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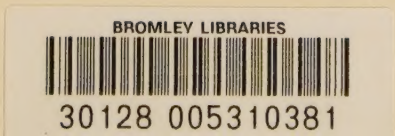

THE DICTIONARY OF ENGLISH HISTORY

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THE DICTIONARY
OF
ENGLISH HISTORY

ORIGINALLY COMPILED BY

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NEW EDITION

REVISED AND ENLARGED

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PREFACE TO NEW EDITION

THIS famous DICTIONARY OF ENGLISH HISTORY—familiarly known to students by the abbreviated title "Low and Pulling"—was originally planned some forty-five years ago by the late Professor F. S. Pulling of the Yorkshire College (now the University of) Leeds, and carried into effect under the skilled editorship of Mr. (now Sir) Sidney Low. The editor was singularly successful in securing the assistance of a band of remarkably able young men, at that time little known outside the limits of their Universities, but most of them destined later to attain positions of considerable eminence in the historical world. Conspicuous among them were W. J. Ashley, Mandell Creighton, C. H. Firth, William Hunt, Sidney Lee, R. L. Poole, Hastings Rashdall, H. R. Reichel, A. L. Smith, and T. F. Tout. Their work in the Dictionary was of the highest quality and much of it remains of enduring value.

Lapse of time, however, has rendered drastic revision of the Dictionary as a whole imperatively necessary. Partial revisions, it is true, were effected in 1896, 1897, 1904, and 1910, but the time has now come when a complete recension of the entire work is required. On the one hand, the mere passage of the years has added an immense number of new topics and fresh names which demand inclusion. On the other hand, the immense advance in historical knowledge made during the present century has rendered a careful consideration of many of the statements of the original articles necessary.

Of the original contributors to the first edition of the Dictionary it has fortunately been possible to consult seven, and they have all been exceedingly kind either in permitting, or in assisting in, the revision of their articles. In cases where additions have been made by the present editors to articles signed by their initials, the additions are enclosed in square brackets; in a few cases where the articles have had to be largely re-written, the original initials have, by request, been omitted. The present editors wish particularly to thank Sir Sidney Low, the first editor, for the kindly and invaluable advice and assistance which he has generously afforded to them at every stage of their undertaking.

With respect to important articles by distinguished writers no longer living, e.g. the notable articles on ecclesiastical history by Bishop Mandell Creighton, it has generally been considered best to leave the original signed article unchanged, and to add, within square brackets, a supplement bringing the article up to date, indicating any necessary revisions, and mentioning later authorities.

The articles which have demanded the most drastic revision are those on economic history and on colonial and imperial history. These two departments of history have almost been created during the past forty-five years. The editors have been fortunate in securing for these two sections the invaluable expert assistance of, for economic history, Mr. A. V. Judges, B.A., of King's College and the School of Economics, and, for colonial and imperial history, Mr. H. Ross, M.A., of King's College and the Institute of Historical Research.

The editors also wish most cordially to thank the following eminent contributors or revisers of special articles: Professor J. W. Adamson (Education in England); Mr. H. L. Beales; Dr. Dorothy M. Broome (Royal Household, Chamber, Wardrobe, Privy Seal, Master of the Rolls); Dr. E. F. Churchill (Dispensing and Suspending

Powers); the Rev. Dr. T. Corcoran (Education in Ireland); Mr. C. H. Driver (Robert Owen, Francis Place, Socialism); Dr. Maxwell Garnett (League of Nations); Mr. J. H. Humphreys (Proportional Representation); Mr. A. G. Little (the Friars); the Rev. Dr. A. Main (Church of Scotland); Miss Mabel H. Mills (Exchequer, Sheriff, Bailiff, County Court, Lord High Treasurer, Matthew Paris); Miss Constantia Maxwell (Ireland, Irish Church); the Rev. Professor J. Moffat (Free Church of Scotland); the Rev. Dr. A. Peel (Congregationalism); Dr. Eileen Power; Professor Stanley Roberts (Welsh Church); Professor J. Strong (Education in Scotland); the Rev. Dr. Norman Sykes (Church of England, Convocation); Professor C. S. Terry (Scotland); Mr. W. T. Whitley (Baptists); Mr. W. H. Wickwar (Freedom of Press, Broad Church, Chartists); and a high authority who wishes to remain anonymous for the article on the Society of Friends.

Apart from the articles above-mentioned there are new articles on a large number of topics, of which the following may be specially noted: Archæology, Arms and Armour, Chronicles, Colonial Office, Foreign Office, the Great War, Home Office, the Royal Household, Imperial Conferences, Knight Service, Labour Party, Parliament Act, Post Office, Records.

Among changes in the *format* of the Dictionary may be noted: (1) Peers have been entered under their family names, with cross references under their titles; (2) Chronicles, formerly described separately, have, with one or two exceptions, been dealt with in a single comprehensive article; (3) the table of regnal years, formerly appended to the article under the title "King," has been placed under its own title; (4) the spelling of Indian and other names has been modernized.

The bulk of the more laborious part of the editorial work has been performed by Dr. Helena M. Chew and Mr. A. C. F. Beales, from whose pens many of the new articles have come. It is a pleasure to me to thank them for the admirably able and efficient manner in which they have carried through their arduous duties.

In conclusion, I would express the hope that in its new form this DICTIONARY OF ENGLISH HISTORY may continue to render the useful service which in its old form it has provided for so many years.

F. J. C. HEARNSHAW.

KING'S COLLEGE,
UNIVERSITY OF LONDON.
May 4, 1928.

PREFACE TO FIRST EDITION

AT a time when the systematic study of English history is every day attracting the interest of an ever-widening circle of readers, it is somewhat remarkable that there should be no convenient handbook to the whole subject. The present publication is an attempt to supply this deficiency, so far as it can be supplied by a work which is intended to be useful rather than exhaustive. It is scarcely possible that everything relating directly or indirectly to a subject so vast and so ill-defined as the history of a great people and a great empire could be included within the compass of eleven hundred moderate-sized pages. The compilers of a concise historical dictionary must be content to make a selection from the materials at their command. The present work is not an encyclopædia, and the editors are aware that many things are omitted from it which might have been included, had its limits been wider, and its aim more ambitious. But they hope that the general reader, as well as the special student of the history of the British Empire, will find this volume a convenient auxiliary to his studies; and they are sanguine enough to anticipate that it will fill a gap on his bookshelves not at present occupied by any single book of reference. Dictionaries of biography already exist in abundance; handbooks of dates and chronology are common and familiar things; manuals of English history, political and constitutional, of all sizes and all degrees of merit, are at the easy command of the reading public; and it is possible, by diligent search, to discover works on English bibliography, and even on the bibliography of English history. But if a great book is a great evil, a great many books are assuredly a greater. The most earnest student cannot be expected to read his history with a dozen manuals and works of reference at his elbow, in case he should be in doubt as to a fact, or should require to verify a date, to gain some information on a constitutional point, to satisfy himself as to the sequence of events at one of the epochs of our annals, or to find out the authorities for a particular period. To produce a book which should give, as concisely as possible, just the information, biographical, bibliographical, chronological, and constitutional, that the reader of English history is likely to want, is what is here attempted.

In deciding what should or should not find a place in these pages, the Editors have tried to keep in view the probable needs of modern readers. Practical convenience has guided them in the somewhat arbitrary selection they have been compelled to make; and with a view to this end they have not hesitated to make some slight changes of plan which suggested themselves in the course of the work. In the biographical department names of purely personal and literary interest have been omitted, and the biographies have been written throughout from the historical standpoint. No attempt is made to supplant other dictionaries devoted solely to biography; but the reader will, it is hoped, find sufficient information about every prominent personage to be of use to him in his historical studies, while the references to authorities which accompany all the more important articles will show him where to go if he desires to pursue his inquiries further. In the older "Helps to English History," such as that of Heylin, space equal to the whole of this work is devoted to genealogies and to the lists of the holders of public offices and dignities. In the present volume relatively little space is given to these subjects. The genealogies of the great families

and the order of official succession are very fully worked out in many well-known and easily accessible works. A modern student is likely to have more occasion for the accounts of the growth of English institutions, and for the summaries of great epochs in our history, and of the relations of the country with foreign powers, which occupy a considerable portion of these pages. In these instances it is hoped also that the bibliographical notes, supplemented by the special article on AUTHORITIES ON ENGLISH HISTORY, will be found of considerable value, even by those who can lay claim to some historical scholarship.

It is perhaps necessary to say that, though "English" on the title-page of this work is to be understood in its widest and least exact sense, and though the doings of Englishmen, Scotsmen, Irishmen and Welshmen at all places and periods *nostri est farrago libelli*, yet very much more attention is devoted to the history of England than to that of Scotland, Ireland, Wales, and the Colonies. Selection being inevitable if the book were not to sacrifice its chief recommendation, that of practical utility, it is felt that the rule adopted, though illogical, is the one likely to promote the greatest convenience of the greatest number of readers. It has been thought advisable to bring the book down to our own day; but very recent events have been treated more briefly than those of more remote periods, and only those living and recently deceased statesmen have been included, concerning whom there can be no reasonable doubt that their names have a right to appear in a Dictionary of English History. For obvious reasons no articles on living historians have been given, though it is hoped that full justice is done to their works in the bibliographical notes.

To save space, and to secure somewhat more adequate treatment, it has often been thought better to group the various divisions of a large subject into one article, rather than to discuss them separately in a number of short ones. Here, again, the rule followed is somewhat arbitrary. But a reference to the Index will generally show the reader where to look in case he does not find the title he is in search of in its proper place.

Such merits as this volume may be found to possess are due in great measure to the able staff of contributors who have given it their invaluable aid. To all of them the Editors have to render their grateful thanks. For many useful suggestions and much kindly interest displayed in the progress of the work, they have to acknowledge their obligations to Dr. Mandell Creighton; Professor Rowley, University College, Bristol; Mr. Arthur L. Smith, Fellow of Balliol College, Oxford; Mr. Lloyd Sanders, M.A.; Mr. W. J. Ashley, M.A.; and Mr. T. A. Archer, B.A. Their special thanks are due to Mr. T. F. Tout, M.A., whose assistance throughout has been of the greatest value, and who has constantly and most kindly placed the benefits of his extensive knowledge of modern history at the service of the Editors.

1884.

DICTIONARY OF ENGLISH HISTORY

Abbeville, THE TREATY OF (May 20, 1259), better known as the Treaty of Paris, was concluded between Louis IX of France and Henry III of England, after the abortive attempt of the latter to recover the provinces which John had lost. The English king relinquished all claims to Normandy, Anjou, Touraine, Maine, and Poitou; but was guaranteed the possession of Gascony, which he was to continue to hold as a fief from the French crown. Louis further ceded to Henry all his own rights in the three bishoprics of Limoges, Perigueux and Cahors, together with the reversion of Saintonge and the Agenais; and promised him a grant of money sufficient to maintain five hundred knights for two years.

The text of the treaty is given in Rymer, "Fœdera," i. 675 (ed. of 1704). *Ib.* 688.

Abbey. [MONASTICISM.]

Abbot (abbas, literally "father") was a title of respect applied in early times to all monks, but was afterwards specifically restricted to the superior of a monastery. The abbot was elected by the brethren of the monastery, subject to varying and ill-defined rights of the Crown and the bishop; but, on the whole, as the position of abbot was one of comparatively small political importance, freedom of election was allowed to a degree very rare in bishoprics, and the power and influence of the great orders freed them also in most cases from episcopal jurisdiction. Thus chosen, the abbot held office for life, unless canonically deprived by the bishop. In the earliest days of the English Church, the abbots, like other monks, were very commonly laymen, but later it became usual for them to receive priest's orders; and an early instance of a series of presbyter abbots is to be found in the great foundation of Iona. In Ireland, abbots were either themselves bishops, or usurpers of episcopal functions. In the monastic cathedrals which form such a peculiar feature in English Church history, the bishop was also abbot. The power of the abbot varied with the order to which he belonged, but it was always very high. In theory, as the name denotes, it was paternal; and, in early times, this paternal authority is the same as absolute power. The abbot was to be feared as lord as well as loved as father. No one was allowed to act without his orders, and the whole management of the monastery ultimately depended on him. But Benedictine abbots were restricted in various ways by their obligation to observe the rule of their founder. The practical limitations to the power of the abbot were: (*a*) the *prior;* (*b*) the *decani* and *centenarii* chosen by the monks; (*c*) the general *chapter* of the monastery (by the rule of St. Benedict, the abbot was obliged to take counsel with all the monks, junior as well as senior, though the final right of decision rested with him, and not with the brethren); (*d*) the *bishop*, though exemption, after the twelfth century, generally took away this check; (*e*) the *advocatus*, an influential layman, who was appointed owing to the inability of the abbot to interfere in person in civil suits, and who consequently largely limited the power of the abbot over the property of the abbey and secular matters generally. But, with all these deductions, the abbot held a most imposing position. As practical landlord of a large district, he had much social influence and political consideration. In England the position of the abbot was especially important; for, introduced by monks, English Christianity had from the first a monastic aspect. Thus half the English cathedrals became Benedictine abbeys, of which the canons were monks and the bishop abbot. As magnates, or as king's chaplains, a few abbots sat in the witenagemot; and, after the Conquest, many of them attended the great council [and later the parliament], and were ranked after the lords spiritual. Under the early Norman kings, Norman abbots were set over the English monasteries, and in many cases met with determined resistance from their monks. They organized the monastic system more strictly than before; and each new order found a home in England during the twelfth and thirteenth centuries. Some abbots were called *mitred*, because they received from the pope the right of wearing the mitre and other vestments proper to the episcopal office. This did not, however, affect their constitutional position. The smaller abbots felt attendance at parliament to be a strain on their resources, and during the fourteenth century, when the theory prevailed that baronial tenure was the ground of the summons, many of them secured exemption by claiming that they did not hold their

estates by any tenure that involved the duty of parliamentary attendance. In Edward I's model parliament of 1295 there were present 67 abbots and priors; but this number rapidly declined, and from 1341 to the dissolution of the monasteries varied from 27 to 31. The abbots summoned in 1483 may be mentioned as showing the chief amongst the body. They were: Peterborough, St. Edmunds, Colchester, Abingdon, Waltham, Shrewsbury, Cirencester, Gloucester, Westminster, St. Albans, Bardney, Selby, St. Benedict of Hulme, Thorney, Evesham, Ramsey, Hyde, Glastonbury, Malmesbury, Crowland, Battle, Winchcombe, Reading, St. Augustine's, St. Mary's York, and the priors of Coventry and St. John of Jerusalem. As the average number of lay lords attending parliament was about 40, the proportion of abbots was large. The monasteries, however, represented the influence of the papacy as against the bishops, and were left unmolested both by pope and king. The elections of abbots were rarely interfered with by the Crown, and in the later Middle Ages abbots did not take much part in political affairs. They were chiefly busy with the administration of the secular business of their monasteries. When once the work of civilization had been accomplished, monasticism drifted apart from the general current of national life, and its abuses became increasingly manifest. The religious reformers found little difficulty in calling attention to the sloth and uselessness of the smaller monasteries, and in 1536 the temporalities of all that did not exceed £200 a year were given by act of parliament to the king: their number was computed at 380. The greater monasteries followed by process of compulsory surrender, and by 1540 all had been suppressed. They took no common action to avert their doom; the abbots in the House of Lords did not raise their voices against the measure for vesting in the Crown the property of monasteries which should be suppressed. With the disappearance of the abbots from the House of Lords, the preponderance of lay over spiritual peers was established, and the subsequent work of the reformation of the Church was rendered more easy. Lay abbots, or *advocati ecclesiæ*, were common in the abbeys of Irish origin from the eighth to the twelfth centuries. They were commonly the descendants of the founder or of a neighbouring lord, and were originally the lessees of the abbey lands. In some cases, the *coarb*, or abbot, chosen by the monks retained his spiritual position, but, in temporal matters, he was quite superseded by the *advocatus*. [CATHEDRAL; MONASTICISM.]

The ecclesiastical and social position of an abbot can best be gathered by reference to the history of some monastery, such as Walsingham's "Gesta Abbatum Monasteriæ S. Albani," ed. Riley, 1863–72, or "Chronica Joceline de Brakelonde," "Memorials of St. Edmund's Abbey," Rolls Series, i, pp. 209 seq. The constitutional questions concerning abbots are discussed in the "Lords' Report on the Dignity of a Peer," 1829. See also arts. *Abbot*, in the "Dictionary of Christian Antiquities," the "Encyclopædia Britannica," and the "Catholic Encyclopædia"; Montalembert, "The Monks of the West"; Butler, "Benedictine Monachism"; and for the Celtic abbots, Skene, "Celtic Scotland," vol. ii, and Fowler's edition of Adamnan's "Life of St. Columba." [M. C.]

Abbot, CHARLES, LORD COLCHESTER (1757–1829), was educated at Westminster, and Christ Church, Oxford, and attained much practice at the bar. He entered parliament in 1795, and strongly supported the Seditious Meetings Bill. In 1801 he was appointed chief secretary for Ireland. In 1802 he became Speaker of the House of Commons, in which capacity he gave a casting vote against Lord Melville in 1805. He strongly opposed the Catholic Relief Bill, and effected several important improvements in the mode of managing business in the House. He resigned his seat in 1816, and was raised to the peerage.

Abbot, GEORGE (1562–1633), Archbishop of Canterbury, 1611–33, was born of humble parents in Guildford; became a fellow of Balliol College, Oxford, 1582; was elected master of University College in 1597, and made Dean of Winchester in 1600, Bishop of Lichfield in 1609, and translated to the see of London, 1610. He owed his appointment as archbishop (1611) to his union of Calvinistic theology with a desire to maintain the authority of the Crown in ecclesiastical matters. Such a position coincided with the wishes of James I; but Abbot, though a man of earnest piety, was narrow-minded, stern, and lacking in geniality. He was in theological matters the conspicuous opponent of Laud, who represented the reaction against Calvinism. His conscientiousness was shown by his determined refusal to comply with the wishes of the king in forwarding the divorce of the Countess of Essex from her husband, that she might marry the favourite, Robert Carr, Earl of Somerset. In 1621, at a staghunt at Bramshill Park, Abbot accidentally shot a keeper. This raised the question among canonists whether, in consequence of having shed blood, he had become legally incapacitated from the episcopal office. A commission of bishops and judges appointed to determine this point were divided in opinion, but advised the king that it was desirable that the archbishop should ask for pardon. Though Abbot was greatly shaken by this untoward event, he still was bold enough to express his disapproval of the Spanish marriage of Prince Charles. On the accession of Charles I, Abbot found that his influence at court was gone, and that Laud was the favourite. In 1627 he incurred Charles I's displeasure by manfully refusing to license a sermon by Dr. Robert Sibthorpe, in favour of passive obedience. He was ordered into confinement, while the archbishopric was put into the hands of a commission, with Laud at the head. He was, however, restored to

some degree of royal favour next year; but, suffering from disease, and embittered in temper, he was helpless against the influence of Laud. His last years were spent in the indolence of sickness and despair, and his death made way for the undisputed power of his rival. He was buried in Trinity Church, Guildford, where his monument still remains. Abbot was munificent in his benefactions, and built a hospital at Guildford, which bears his name. He was a worthy man, but had neither knowledge, large-heartedness, nor tact sufficient for his office.

Heylin, "Cyprianus Anglicanus"; Spelman's "Apologie for Archbishop Abbot," 1727; Abbot's "Narrative" in Rushworth, "Historical Collections," vol. i. [M. C.]

Abbott, Charles, 1st Lord Tenterden (1762–1832), was the son of a hairdresser. He was educated at King's School, Canterbury and Corpus Christi, Oxford, and was called to the bar in 1795. His treatise on the "Law of Merchant Ships and Seamen" (1802) was recognized as the standard work on its subject. Owing to the weakness of his health he refused a seat on the bench in 1808, but in 1816 he was made a puisne judge in the Common Pleas. In 1818, on the retirement of Lord Ellenborough, he became lord chief justice of the King's Bench and, though a Tory, he never allowed his political sympathies to colour his judgments. He was raised to the peerage in 1827.

Abdication. [King; Crown.]

Abel, Thomas (*d.* July 30, 1540), chaplain to Katharine of Aragon, strongly opposed the divorce of that princess; and was attainted for his share in the affair of Elizabeth Barton, and found guilty of misprision of treason. He was subsequently imprisoned and executed for denying the king's supremacy, and affirming the legality of the marriage with Katharine. He carved the famous punning inscription (an **A** upon a bell) on the walls of the Beauchamp Tower in the Tower of London.

Abercorn, Peerage of. In 1603 James Hamilton, Master of Paisley, grandson of James Hamilton, 2nd Earl of Arran and Duke of Châtelherault [Douglas; Hamilton], was created Baron Abercorn, and in 1606 Earl of Abercorn. John James, 9th earl, was created Marquis of Abercorn in 1790, and his successor James (*b.* 1811), lord-lieutenant of Ireland, 1866–8, and 1874–6, was created Duke of Abercorn and Marquis of Hamilton, August 10, 1868. The title is derived from the Castle of Abercorn in Linlithgowshire, a stronghold of the Douglases, taken by James II in the Douglas rebellion of 1455. Abercorn was the seat of one of the earliest monasteries in Scotland, and of a Pictish bishopric.

Abercromby, Sir Ralph (1734–1801), born near Tullibody, Clackmannanshire, entered the army as cornet in a dragoon regiment in 1756, and was gazetted to a colonelcy in 1781. He had, however, seen scarcely any active service, on account of his opposition to the government while in the House of Commons, and the sympathy he manifested for the American colonies. In 1793 he commanded a brigade under the Duke of York in Holland. In the winter of 1794–5 he showed great skill in protecting, as far as possible, the British forces during their disastrous retreat. After the close of this expedition, he was appointed commander-in-chief of the forces in the West Indies. He returned in 1799, and held the chief command in Ireland during that and the following year. There he showed much talent in reorganizing an undisciplined army, as well as statesman-like tact. Thwarted, however, by the Irish government, he reluctantly resigned his office, and accepted the chief command in Scotland, whence he was called to serve again in the disastrous expedition to Holland under the Duke of York. In 1801 he was appointed to command the expedition against the French in Egypt. With wonderful skill and daring he disembarked his forces at Aboukir in the face of the French army. On March 21 the two armies met near Alexandria. Abercromby gained a complete victory; but the battle, which saved Egypt from the French, cost the English the life of their commander. In acknowledgment of Sir Ralph Abercromby's services, his widow was created a peeress of the United Kingdom, with the style and title of Baroness Abercromby of Aboukir. The title descended to her eldest son. Her third son, James, judge-advocate-general, 1827, Speaker of the House of Commons, 1835–9, was created Lord Dunfermline of Dunfermline in 1839. [Alexandria, Battle of.]

Lord Dunfermline, "Sir R. Abercromby: a Memoir," 1861. [W. R. S.]

Aberdeen, was an important place even before its elevation to a city in the twelfth century. It was made a royal burgh by William the Lion, and received a charter from Robert Bruce in 1319. The university was founded in 1494 by Bishop Elphinstone, and Marischal College by George Keith, Earl Marischal, about a century later. They were united in 1860. In 1336 the greater portion of the town was burnt by the English, and when rebuilt was called New Aberdeen.

A. M. Munro, "Aberdeen," 1906.

Aberdeen Doctors, was the name given, in 1638–9, to six clergymen of Aberdeen—John Forbes, Robert Barron, Alexander Ross, William Leslie, Alexander Scrogie, and James Sibbald—who strenuously opposed the compulsory administration to all persons of the oath to preserve the Solemn League and Covenant.

Aberdeen, George Hamilton-Gordon, 4th Earl of (1784–1860). [Gordon.]

Aberdeen, Peerage of. [Gordon.] In 1682 Sir John Gordon of Haddo, lord chancellor of Scotland, was created Earl of Aberdeen in the peerage of Scotland. George, 4th earl, was made a peer of the United Kingdom in 1813, and in 1818, on his marriage with Lady Catherine Hamilton, assumed the additional surname and arms of Hamilton.

Abergavenny, Barons. [Neville.]

Abergavenny, Peerage of. The lordship of Abergavenny was granted in the reign of William II to Hamelin de Ballon. After passing through many hands, it came in the later fourteenth century into those of William Beauchamp, fourth son of Thomas, Earl of Warwick, whom we find summoned to parliament in November 1392 as "Willelmus Beauchamp de Bergeveny." The barony passed to a branch of the Neville family on the marriage (*c.* 1424) of Elizabeth, heiress of Richard Beauchamp, Earl of Worcester and Lord Bergavenny, to Sir Edward Neville (youngest son of Ralph, Earl of Westmorland, by Joan Beaufort, daughter of John of Gaunt). In 1784 George, Lord Abergavenny, was created Viscount Neville and Earl of Abergavenny; and in 1876 William, the 5th earl, was advanced to the dignity of a marquis. [Neville.]

Abhorrers (1679), was the name given to the adherents of the court party, who, on petitions being presented to the king, praying him to summon parliament for January 1680, signed counter-petitions, expressing *abhorrence* for those who were attempting to encroach on the royal prerogative. [Petitioners.] It is said that the names Whig and Tory (q.v.), as party designations, were first used in the disputes between the Petitioners and Abhorrers.

C. B. R. Kent, "Early History of Toryism, 1660–1703," 1908.

Abingdon, Peerage of. In 1572 Sir Henry Norris, who was ambassador to France the preceding year, and son of the Sir Henry Norris beheaded in 1536 for alleged criminality with Anne Boleyn, was summoned to parliament as Baron Norris of Ryecote. He was the father of the distinguished military commander, Sir John Norris. His grandson, Francis, was created Earl of Berkshire in 1620–21, but died two years later, and the Berkshire peerage expired. The Norris peerage descended by the female line to James Bertie, who was created Earl of Abingdon in 1682. This nobleman, as lord-lieutenant of Oxfordshire, commanded the local militia against the Duke of Monmouth on the latter's invasion of England. He, however, opposed James II's action in religious matters, and was the first English peer to join William.

Abinger, James Scarlett, Baron (1769–1844). [Scarlett.]

Abjuration Oath, The (1701), was a pledge of renunciation of the exiled Stuart dynasty, exacted from time to time after the Revolution of 1688. It first appears in 1690, embodied in a proposed "Act for the further security of his Majesty's person, and for extinguishing the hopes of the pretended Prince of Wales, and all other pretenders and their abettors." Every person who held any office, civil, military, or spiritual, was solemnly to abjure the exiled king; the oath of abjuration might be tendered by any justice of the peace to any subject of their majesties; and, if it were refused, the recusant might be sent to prison, to lie there as long as he continued obstinate. The influence of William caused this bill to be rejected, as well as a less severe measure, imposing a declaration on all office-holders that they would stand by William and Mary against James and James's adherents. In the last year of the reign, after Louis XIV had acknowledged the Pretender, it was again introduced in the "Act for the further security of his Majesty's person, and the succession of the crown in the Protestant line." After a long debate in the Commons, the abjuration oath was made compulsory; but the provision was only carried by a majority of one. William gave his assent to the measure on his death-bed. On the accession of Anne a new act was passed, applying the oath to the new reign. The oath was taken freely by the Tories, and even by noted Jacobites, the Pretender having, it was said, sent instructions to that effect to his adherents. It was renewed on the occasion of the union with Scotland, when the Scottish clergy petitioned against it, but without result. The bill was subsequently re-introduced on the accession of George I, and on the death of the Old Pretender (1766). The oath was not finally abolished until 1858 [when it was amalgamated with the oaths of allegiance and supremacy. The act of 1858 was superseded in 1868 by the Promissory Oaths Act]. [L. C. S.]

Abjuration Oath for Scotland, The (1662), was imposed on all persons holding public office, and consisted, among other abjurations, of a declaration that the Covenant and League "are of themselves unlawful oaths, and were taken by and imposed upon the subjects of this kingdom against the fundamental laws and liberties of the same." The oath was modified in 1716, when it became a simple declaration of allegiance to the Hanover settlement and a renunciation of the Stuarts. [Covenant.]

Abjuration of the Realm, The Oath of, was the oath to quit the country, exacted from any felon who had taken advantage of the privilege of sanctuary, and refused to stand his trial. Such a person was bound to leave the kingdom within a specified period, and if he returned he might be put to death. The practice was finally abolished, in company with the

privilege of sanctuary, by 21 James I, cap. 28. [Sanctuary.] Abjuration was known as a definite punishment in the twelfth and thirteenth centuries. Thus, according to the Assizes of Clarendon and Northampton (q.v.), both those who failed in the ordeal, and those who were successful—if they were of ill repute or were charged with a serious offence—were to abjure the realm. By statutes passed in 1593 (35 Eliz. c. 1 and 2) Protestant dissenters who had failed to attend divine service, and Roman Catholics, might be compelled to abjure the realm, and if they refused, or returned without licence, they were adjudged felons, and might be hanged. Dissenters were relieved of the necessity of abjuration by the Act of Toleration (1689), but as regards Roman Catholics, it was not finally removed from the statute book till 1791.

Abraham, Heights of. [Quebec; Wolfe.]

Absenteeism, owing to the character of the Anglo-Norman conquest of Ireland, and the lapse of many great Irish fiefs to English baronial houses, early became a crying evil in that country. In 1331, Edward III, intent upon the re-anglicization and de-feudalization of Ireland, ordered all absentees either to return to their estates or to furnish garrisons for their defence. When Lionel of Clarence was sent out in 1361, sixty-four absentee lords were ordered to accompany him. In 1374, too, they were called upon to go in person or to send substitutes. In 1379 the English parliament passed a statute ordering all proprietors who were absentees to contribute two-thirds of their means to the defence of Ireland. In the fifteenth century legislation against absenteeism was also frequent. The problem was rendered yet more acute as a result of the wholesale confiscations of the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, and by the beginning of the eighteenth century it was estimated that the rental spent by the absentee landlords in England amounted to between £600,000 and £1,200,000 per annum. Accordingly in 1727 an absentee-tax of four shillings in the pound was imposed on all moneys paid out of Ireland; but the king being allowed to grant exemptions, it did not do much good. In 1769 this law was renewed and the exemptions done away with, or at least, only maintained for members of the royal family and distinguished officers. But an attempt to increase the tax in 1773 had to be given up, owing to the opposition it aroused in England. In 1783 a like attempt failed in Ireland. In 1796 an absentee-tax was defeated in the Irish parliament by English influence, and after that no such measure was mooted, though the evil continued to increase. In 1779 Arthur Young estimated the amount of rent annually sent out of the country at £732,000.

J. A. Froude, "English in Ireland," 3 vols., 1874; W. E. H. Lecky, "Ireland in the 18th Century," 1892; Report of Select Committee on the State of Ireland, 1828; Parliamentary Papers, Ireland, 1845, xix–xxii.

Abyssinian Expedition, The (1867). Theodore, King of Abyssinia, fancying that he was slighted by the British government, who had refused to assist him against the Egyptians, had seized and imprisoned in his fortress of Magdala all the British subjects within his reach. Among others was Mr. Cameron, British consul at Massawa. An embassy sent to the king was eventually seized and imprisoned with the rest. Lord Stanley's remonstrance being disregarded, war was declared. It was waged from India, and the expedition was dispatched from Bombay in the winter of 1867 under Sir Robert Napier. The campaign was conducted under difficulties, which arose from the varying nature of the climate and the natural impediments of the ground. Little resistance was experienced from the natives. Theodore, at last, sent back all the prisoners, and offered to treat. Napier, however, refused to listen to any terms short of a total surrender, and to this the king refused to agree. He shut himself up in his citadel of Magdala, which was perched upon a lofty rock, and defended not only by the natural difficulty of the ascent, but also fortified. The British surmounted the difficulties of the ascent, forced their way through the gate at the top, and fought from post to post till the position was won, April 13, 1868. Theodore was found dead inside the gate, slain by his own hand. The town and fortress were destroyed, and within a week the troops were returning home.

H. M. Hozier, "The British Expedition to Abyssinia," 1869; H. M. Stanley, "Coomassie and Magdala," 1874 and 1896.

Acadia. [Canada, Dominion of.]

Acre, or St. Jean d'Acre, a town on the coast of Syria, anciently called Ptolemais, is connected with three episodes in English history:—(1) The Siege of Acre. In June 1191 Richard I arrived before the town, which had already been besieged by the Crusaders for more than two years, with the loss, it is said, of over 120,000 men. A series of assaults was immediately made on the town, but these were seriously impeded by the attacks of Saladin on the Christian lines. At length, however, the garrison offered to treat; they were allowed to retain their lives, and (July 12) the Crusaders marched into the town. (2) The Defence of Acre. On March 16, 1799, Bonaparte's Egyptian army appeared before Acre. The town was held by a Turkish garrison, under Yusuf Pasha, aided by Sir Sidney Smith, who commanded the English squadron in the roads, and a French engineer, Phélippeaux, who had once been a schoolfellow of Bonaparte. Animated by these leaders, the Turks held out with great bravery for sixty days of open trenches; and on May 20 the French were compelled to retreat. "That miserable fort,"

as Napoleon called it, was thus the means of causing his Syrian expedition to be abandoned, and his great projects of Oriental conquest to be altogether hopeless. Alluding to Sir Sidney Smith, he is said to have frequently remarked: "That man made me miss my destiny." (3) THE BOMBARDMENT OF ACRE, November 3, 1840. After the refusal of Mehemet Ali to agree to the terms of the Quadrilateral Alliance, 1840, a combined Austrian, Turkish, and British squadron (the latter, consisting of 6 line-of-battle ships, and 10 smaller vessels, commanded by Admiral Sir R. Stopford) sailed to the coast of Syria, and bombarded Acre, which fell in ruins after enduring a tremendous fire for three hours.

Act of Parliament. [STATUTES.]

Acton Burnel, THE SO-CALLED "PARLIAMENT" OF (1283). In 1283 Edward I summoned to Shrewsbury an assembly of lay magnates, representatives of the shires, and deputies of certain towns and boroughs to pronounce judgment upon David of Wales. Later the magnates adjourned to the seat of Edward's great minister, Robert Burnel, where was promulgated, at a session of the king's council, the famous Statute of Merchants (q.v.).

Adamnan, ST. (*c.* 624–704), Abbot of Iona, was converted, while on a mission to Aldfrid of Northumbria in 686, to the custom of the Roman Church with regard to the celebration of Easter—a conversion which embroiled him in disputes with the monks of Iona. He paid three visits to Ireland, during one of which he successfully urged, on part of the Irish Church, the necessity of conformity to the Roman paschal observances. Adamnan wrote in Latin the "Life of St. Columba," which although containing some elements of legend, is the great authority for the history of the old Celtic Church. He also wrote "De Locis Sanctis."

"Adamnani Vita S. Columbæ," ed. J. T. Fowler, 1920.

Adamson, PATRICK (1537–92), Archbishop of St. Andrews, was educated in France, and returned to Scotland in 1571[?], when he entered the ministry. In 1575 he was one of the commissioners employed to settle the constitution of the Church of Scotland, and soon after was appointed by the Regent Morton Archbishop of St. Andrews. His life thenceforward was a long course of opposition to the Presbyterian party, who lost no opportunity of taking proceedings against him, and finally succeeded in getting him excommunicated (1588) and deprived of the revenues of his see, so that, it is said, his last years were passed in actual want. He was the author of a poetical version of the Book of Job, and other works in Latin verse.

J. Macpherson, "History of the Church of Scotland," 1901.

Addington, HENRY, VISCOUNT SIDMOUTH (1757–1844), the son of Anthony Addington, Lord Chatham's family physician, was called to the bar about the same time as Pitt, whose intimate friend he was. By Pitt he was persuaded to leave the bar, and to turn his attention to political life. He was accordingly returned to parliament as member for Devizes, 1784, and soon became conspicuous as a devoted follower of Pitt. In 1789 he was elected Speaker, and presided over the House until, on Pitt's resignation in 1801, he was invited by the king to form an administration. It was very feeble, and would scarcely have lived a month if Pitt had not for a time given it his protection and advice. Addington's ministry was chiefly signalized by the conclusion of the treaty of Amiens (q.v.); but when Pitt withdrew his support, the utter weakness of the cabinet became very clear, and Addington was forced to make way for his former leader. There was now a complete breach between the two, and Addington, who had been created Viscount Sidmouth, attacked Lord Melville, and through him the prime minister, with great vehemence. After Pitt's death, Addington became president of the council in the Grenville and Fox administration. In the ministry of Perceval and the Duke of Portland he had no place; but, when Lord Liverpool came into office in 1812, he was appointed home secretary. In this position his repressive policy, and the hostility he showed to popular movements, made him remarkably unpopular with the nation at large; but he maintained his post for several years, until he resigned it to Sir Robert Peel, 1821, after which he took but little share in politics. His administration has been described by Macaulay as one which, in an age preeminently fruitful of parliamentary talents, contained hardly a single man who, in parliamentary talents, could be considered as even of the second rate. "He was," the same writer says, "universally admitted to have been the best Speaker that had sate in the chair since the retirement of Onslow. But nature had not bestowed on him very vigorous faculties," and his long occupation of the chair had unfitted him for the task of heading an administration.

Pellew, "Life and Correspondence of Lord Sidmouth," 1847; Lord Holland, "Memoirs," 1850

[W. R. S.]

Addison, JOSEPH (1672–1719), essayist, poet, and Whig statesman, first achieved fame by the publication in 1704 of his *Campaign*, a poem on the battle of Blenheim, written at the request of Godolphin. Henceforth his rise was rapid. He became commissioner of appeals, secretary to the legation at Hanover, and in 1706 under-secretary of state. In 1708 he entered parliament as member for Lostwithiel. In the autumn of the same year,

Lord Wharton, the lord-lieutenant of Ireland, appointed him his chief secretary and keeper of the records. From Ireland Addison sent his contributions to the *Tatler*, the first of the periodical publications which his friend Steele projected. On the fall of the Whigs in 1711, Addison was dismissed from office. During the general election he contributed some violent party papers to a political journal, entitled the *Whig Examiner*. In March 1711 the *Spectator* appeared, under the conduct of Steele, and during the years of its existence (March 1711–December 1714), Addison was the principal contributor. On the death of Anne, Addison was made secretary to the lords of the regency. On the accession of George I, he again became chief secretary to the lord-lieutenant. In 1715 he published the "Freeholder," the best of his political writings; and in 1717 he became secretary of state. But his health was failing, and he finally quitted office in 1718, with a pension of £1,500 a year. In 1719 his defence of the Peerage Bill involved him in a quarrel with Steele, whom he attacked in a party journal called the *Old Whig*. This was the last of Addison's literary efforts. He died June 17, 1719, and was buried in Westminster Abbey. Addison's importance in the political history of England is not great, though he held high office, and his personal career was remarkably successful. In principles he was a strict Whig of a somewhat narrow cast; and in the schism which took place in 1717 it is notable that he supported the "old Whigs," Sunderland and Stanhope, against the more progressive section of the party which Walpole headed. It is as an essayist that he won his title to fame.

The "Works" of Addison were published in six volumes, with Notes by Bishop Hurd in 1811. There is a good "Life" by Miss Aikin, published in 1843, and a lengthy memoir in the "Biographia Britannica." The famous character of Addison, under the name of Atticus, in Pope's "Epistle to Dr. Arbuthnot," and Macaulay's account of the relations between Addison and Steele in his essay on the former are well known. See also "Dictionary of National Biography," and biography by W. J. Courthope, 1884. [S. L.]

Addled Parliament was the name given to the parliament which sat from April 5 to June 7, 1614. No parliament had been in session since 1611; but in 1614 the condition of the finances, and the unwillingness of the people to pay the customs levied by the king without the sanction of parliament, made it essential to assemble one. James hoped that, by employing "undertakers" (q.v.) or intermediaries, between himself and the Commons, he might obtain a considerable grant in return for the renunciation of some small portions of the royal prerogative. But when parliament met, it showed itself determined not to grant any supplies until the king's claim to levy impositions had been surrendered. Finding that the Commons persisted in their determination to make redress of grievances precede grants of supply, James dissolved parliament before a single statute had been passed, and committed the leaders of the opposition to prison.

Addresses to the Crown are (1) from parliament, (2) from the people. (1) Since the time of Edward I, parliament has exercised the privilege which it inherited from the Great Council of the baronage, of freely offering its advice to the Crown, and demanding the abolition of grievances. Nearly all the legislation of the fourteenth century is based upon the petitions of parliament. From the reign of Henry VI, the petitions and addresses began to assume the form of actual statutes, and were called bills. In later history, parliament asserted its right to address the Crown on subjects of wider policy, such as the settlement of the succession under Elizabeth, and recommendations to the queen to marry (1562 and 1566); whilst advice on questions of peace and war has often been tendered to the Crown by parliament. Thus the House of Commons presented a remonstrance against the continuance of the American war, and on receiving an unsatisfactory answer, declared that it would "consider as enemies to his Majesty and this country all who should advise or by any means attempt the further prosecution of offensive war on the continent of America, for the purpose of reducing the revolted colonies to obedience by force." Addresses to the Crown are always moved in both Houses in answer to the royal speech at the beginning of the session; and the debate upon the address has become the formal opportunity for approving or challenging the ministerial policy put forward in the royal speech. (2) Addresses from individuals have been offered to the king from the earliest times, usually in the form of petitions for pardons, or redress of private grievances; and though these petitions were subsequently usually made to the House of Commons, they were occasionally laid at once before the sovereign himself, as in the case of the petition of the clergy in 1344. The practice of addressing the Crown on political matters had, however, no precedent until the time of Charles I (1640), and in 1662 was restrained by an act against tumultuous petitioning. In 1679 the Whig petitions for the assembling of parliament were met on the part of the Tories by counter-addresses from the Abhorrers (q.v.). In 1701 petitions were presented, praying for the dissolution of parliament, and again in 1710; whilst in 1784 numerous addresses to the king set forth that the people were willing to support Mr. Pitt and the prerogative. The constitutional character of the addresses of 1710 was supported by a vote of the House of Commons, which affirmed "that it is the undoubted right of the people of England to petition or address the king for the calling, sitting, and

dissolving parliaments, and for the redressing of grievances." [CROWN; PARLIAMENT.]

May, "Law of Parliament"; J. Redlich, "Procedure of the House of Commons," 1908.

[F. S. P.]

Adelaide, QUEEN (1792 – 1849), the daughter of George, Duke of Saxe-Coburg-Meiningen, was married to the Duke of Clarence, 1818. On the accession of the Duke of Clarence as William IV, a bill was passed [REGENCY BILLS] appointing her regent, in case any child of the king's succeeded him during minority. She scrupulously abstained from interfering in politics; but in spite of this, the dissolution of the Melbourne cabinet in 1834 was attributed to her influence. After the accession of Queen Victoria, her life was chiefly spent in works of charity and benevolence.

See Biographies of William IV.

Adelais of Louvain (*d.* 1151 ?) was the second wife of Henry I, to whom she was married in 1121. She survived her husband, and subsequently married William de Albini, ancestor of the family of Howard.

Aden, an important military position on the south-west coast of Arabia, was taken by the British in 1839, and, in spite of attacks made upon it by the Arabs, has ever since remained under British rule. Its position gives it a great importance as a coaling station for the Indo-European steamers. Aden is governed by a resident, and forms part of the Bombay presidency.

F. M. Hunt, "The British Settlement of Aden," 1877.

Adjutators, THE (usually styled AGITATORS), were representatives elected by each regiment of the New Model army in 1647, to act in concert with the officers in compelling parliament to satisfy the demands of the army before disbanding it. They presented a petition to parliament, in which they complained of "the ambition of a few men, who had long been servants, but were degenerating into tyrants." The parliament, finding it impossible any longer to refuse to listen to the demands of the army, sent a committee, consisting of Cromwell, Ireton, Skippon, and Fleetwood, to head-quarters to pacify the soldiers. But the army mutinied, seized the money intended for their pay, and expelled the officers whom they suspected. On May 29 a great meeting of Adjutators, under the authority of Fairfax, was held at Bury St. Edmunds, and a rendezvous of all the troops called at Newmarket. On June 2 the army leaders sent Cornet Joyce to remove the king out of the hands of the parliament. This having been done, on June 10 a great rendezvous of the army was held at Thriplow Heath, near Cambridge. Here the army refused to accept the conditions of parliament, demanded the dismissal of eleven of the most obnoxious Presbyterian leaders, and began to march on London. On the approach of the army the eleven withdrew, and the Independents became for a time the majority in the House. But the City of London was strongly Presbyterian, and on July 26 a large muster of apprentices and others came into the House, and compelled the recall of the eleven members and the replacing of the London militia in the hands of the Presbyterians. Thereupon the army, which had been encamped close to London, entered the city (August 8) and again expelled the eleven members. The power was now entirely in the hands of the army, and the Adjutators were busy holding meetings, and urging forward extreme measures, and demanding vengeance on the king. Cromwell and the officers began to grow anxious to restore discipline in the army, and when some of the regiments showed signs of acting independently, vigorous measures were taken, one of the ringleaders shot, and others placed under arrest. Lilburne and others attempted to revive the Adjutators in 1649; but the attempt was frustrated by Cromwell. [CROMWELL; FAIRFAX.]

C. H. Firth, "Cromwell," 19 . [F. S. P.]

Admiral, THE LORD HIGH, was one of the great officers of state who was specially concerned with the government of the navy and the administration of maritime affairs. The name is derived from an Asiatic word corresponding to the Arabic *Amir*, and the Turkish *Emir*, a commander or general; and it was probably adopted by the English either directly from the Saracens, in the course of the later Crusades, or from the Sicilians or Genoese. We hear of the appointment of officers called "custodes maris" from time to time under the Norman and earlier Angevin kings, but the definite organization of the admiralty dates from the reign of Edward I, who in 1294 appointed William de Leybourne "captain of all the postmen," and in 1306 appointed three admirals, with jurisdiction over the eastern, western, and southern coasts respectively. In 1360 a single high admiral was first appointed. From 1404 till 1632 there was an uninterrupted succession of lord high admirals of England, whose duties were not only to act as naval commanders-in-chief, but also as ministers of marine and presidents of the Court of Admiralty. In 1632 the duties of the office were entrusted to a commission of the great officers of state; and under the Commonwealth naval affairs were managed by a committee of parliament, and afterwards by Cromwell. After the Restoration, the office of lord high admiral was held by King Charles II, and by James, as Duke of York and as king, and by Prince George of Denmark, the husband of Queen Anne. Since 1708, however, the office has always been in commission, with the exception of a short period (May 1827–September 1828), when the Duke of Clarence, after-

wards King William IV, was lord high admiral. By the Acts 2 Will. and Mary, c. 2, and 1 Geo. iv. c. 90, the authorities, jurisdiction, and powers of the lord high admiral were vested in the lords commissioners of the admiralty. The chief of these commissioners is styled the first lord of the admiralty. In modern times he has become practically sole and responsible minister for the navy, and is now always a member of the cabinet. In 1869, Mr. Childers, then first lord of the admiralty, introduced important changes into the working of the department which tended to give the minister more undivided control and responsibility. The personnel of the board of admiralty was increased as a result of the Great War. The original number of members, six, was increased to ten: the first lord (generally a civilian), four naval lords, one civil lord, a deputy and an assistant chief of staff, a financial secretary, and a permanent secretary. The title of ADMIRAL has also been used continuously since the thirteenth century to designate the highest grade in the Royal Navy; but it does not appear to have come into general use in this sense till the latter part of the sixteenth century. There were formerly three classes of admirals, those of the Red, the White, and the Blue squadrons, but this distinction was abolished in 1864. [NAVY.]

LORD HIGH ADMIRALS.

William de Leybourne, or Leyburn, is styled at the Assembly at Bruges March 8, 15 Ed. I, *Admirallus Maris Angliæ*	1286
John de Botetort, Admiral of the North; William de Leyburn, Admiral of the South	1294
John de Bello Campo, or Beauchamp, constituted High Admiral of both West and North	1360
Sir Robert Herle	1361
Sir Ralph de Spigurnell	1364
Richard Fitzalan, Earl of Arundel	1387
Edward of Rutland, afterwards of Albemarle, High Admiral	1392
John Beaufort, Marquis of Dorset (natural son of John of Gaunt), High Admiral of the Northern, Western, and Irish Fleets	1398
Thomas Percy, Earl of Worcester, Admiral of both parts	1399
Thomas of Lancaster, High Steward of England, afterwards Duke of Clarence	1404
John Beaufort, Earl of Somerset	1406
Edmund Holland, Earl of Kent	1407
Sir Thomas Beaufort, natural son of John of Gaunt, created by letters patent, 1411, Admiral of England, Ireland, and Aquitaine for life	1408
John of Lancaster, Duke of Bedford, son of Henry IV	1426
John Holland, Duke of Exeter, constituted, together with his son, Admirals of England, Ireland, and Aquitaine	1436
William de la Pole, Marquis and Earl of Suffolk, Admiral of England, Ireland, and Aquitaine	1446
Henry Holland, Duke of Exeter	1449
Richard Neville, Earl of Warwick	1461
William Neville, Earl of Kent	1462
Richard, Duke of Gloucester	1465
Richard Neville	1466
Richard, Duke of Gloucester	1471
John Howard, Duke of Norfolk	1483
John de Vere, Earl of Oxford	1485
Edward Howard (afterwards Duke of Norfolk)	1513
Thomas Howard (brother of the above, afterwards Duke of Norfolk)	1514
Henry, Duke of Richmond	1526
William Fitzwilliam, Earl of Southampton	1537
John Russell, Lord Russell	1541
John Dudley	1543
Lord Thomas Seymour	1548
John Dudley, Earl of Warwick	1551
Edward, Lord Clinton	1552
William Howard of Effingham	1553
Edward, Lord Clinton	1555
Charles, Lord Howard of Effingham	1585
George, Duke of Buckingham	1619
Committee of Parliament	1649–1660
James, Duke of York	1660–1673
Charles II, by his Privy Councillors	1673–1684
James II, as Duke of York and King	1684–1689
Thomas, Earl of Pembroke	1702
George, Prince of Denmark	1702–1708
William, Duke of Clarence	1827–1828

FIRST LORDS OF THE ADMIRALTY.

Prince Rupert	1673
Sir Henry Capel	1679
Daniel Finch (afterwards Earl of Nottingham)	1680
Arthur Herbert	1689
Thomas, Earl of Pembroke	1690
Charles, Lord Cornwallis	1692
Anthony, Viscount Falkland	1693
Edward Russell	1694
Edward, Earl of Oxford	1697
John, Earl of Bridgewater	1699
Edward, Earl of Oxford	1709
Sir John Leake	1710
Thomas, Earl of Strafford	1712
Edward, Earl of Oxford	1714
James, Earl of Berkeley	1717
Viscount Torrington	1727
Sir Charles Wager	1733
Daniel, Earl of Winchilsea	1741
John, Duke of Bedford	1744
John, Earl of Sandwich	1748
George, Lord Anson	1751
Richard, Earl Temple	1756
Earl of Winchilsea	1757
Lord Anson	1757
George, Earl of Halifax	1762
George Grenville	1762
Earl of Sandwich	1763
John, Earl of Egmont	1763
Sir Charles Saunders	1766
Sir Edward Hawke	1766
Earl of Sandwich	1771
Augustus, Viscount Keppel	1782
Richard, Viscount Howe	January 30, 1783
Viscount Keppel	April 10, 1783
Viscount Howe	December 31, 1783
John, Earl of Chatham	1788
George, Earl Spencer	1794
John, Earl of St. Vincent	1801
Henry, Lord Melville	1804
Charles, Lord Barham	1805
Charles Grey	1806
Thomas Grenville	1806
Henry, Lord Mulgrave	1807
Charles Philip Yorke	1809
Robert, Lord Melville	1812
Sir James Graham	1830
George, Lord Auckland	1834
Thomas Philip, Earl de Grey	1834
Lord Auckland	April 25, 1835
Gilbert, Earl of Minto	September 19, 1835
Thomas, Earl of Haddington	1841
Edward, Earl of Ellenborough	January 13, 1846
George, Earl of Auckland	July 21, 1846
Sir F. Baring	1849
Duke of Northumberland	1852
Sir J. Graham	1853
Sir Charles Wood	1855
Sir John Somerset Pakington	1858
Edward, Duke of Somerset	1859
Sir John Somerset Pakington	1866
Henry L. Corry	1868
Hugh Childers	1868
George J. Goschen	1871
George Ward Hunt	1874
William H. Smith	1877
Thomas, Earl of Northbrook	1880
Lord George Francis Hamilton	1885
Marquis of Ripon	1886
Lord George Francis Hamilton	1886
Earl Spencer	1892

G. J. Goschen	1895
Earl of Selborne	1900
Earl of Cawdor	March 5, 1905
Lord Tweedmouth	December 5, 1905
Reginald McKenna	April 1908
Winston S. Churchill	October 1911
A. J. Balfour	May 1915
Sir E. Carson	1917
Sir Eric C. Geddes	1918
Walter Long	1919
Lord Lee of Fareham	1921
L. C. M. S. Amery	October 1922
Lord Chelmsford	January 1924
W. C. Bridgeman	November 1924

Admiralty, Board of. [Admiral, The Lord High.]

Admiralty, Court of, is the court of the lord high admiral in his judicial capacity. The early admirals and *custodes maris,* from the time of Henry I onwards, had the prerogative of judging on all disputes between merchants and sailors, and on all offences committed on the high seas, out of the jurisdiction of the Common Law Courts. These privileges provoked the jealousy of the common lawyers, and, in 13 Rich. II, a statute was passed strictly limiting its procedure to matters transacted on the seas, and this statute was enforced by one passed two years later. When there was a lord high admiral the judge of the Admiralty Court was generally appointed by him; when the office is in commission he is appointed by the Crown. The criminal jurisdiction of the Admiralty Court is now no longer exercised, and offences committed on the high seas are tried at Common Law. By an act of the reign of Henry VIII, all such offences were to be tried by commissioners of oyer and terminer under the great seal, and according to the law of the land. When the Central Criminal Court was established in 1834, the judges were authorized to decide on all offences committed within the jurisdiction of the admiralty. The civil jurisdiction of the court is important, and, by 3 and 4 Vict. c. 65, comprehends all causes arising out of questions of the title to, or ownership of, vessels, maritime contracts, salvage, and cases of collisions and damages on the high seas. By the Judicature Act of 1873, the Admiralty Court was united with the Court of Probate and Divorce to form one division of the Supreme Court of Judicature. At the breaking out of war, a commission is issued to the judge of the Admiralty Court constituting him president of a Prize Court, to decide as to what is, or what is not, lawful prize. Property captured from the enemy is held not to have absolutely ceased to belong to its former owner till condemned by the sentence of a Prize Court. The proceedings in this court are supposed to be conducted according to the law of nations, and the decisions of its judges, and notably of Lord Stowell during the early years of the French revolutionary war, form very important contributions to international law. Courts of Vice-Admiralty, having analogous powers to the Admiralty Court, are established in most of the British colonies. The chief justice of the colony is *ex-officio* judge of this court, and there is an appeal from his decision to the judicial committee of the privy council. The Admiralty Court for Scotland retained its separate existence at the Union, though the Scottish lord high admiral was abolished. In 1831 the Scottish Admiralty Courts were abolished, and their functions entrusted to the Courts of Session and Justiciary. [Navy.]

For the early history of the Admiralty, the best authority is "The Black Book of the Admiralty," a most important collection of documents bearing on the subject, chiefly in the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries, with the valuable prefaces of Sir Travers Twiss in the Rolls Series, 1871, etc. See especially the Editor's introduction to vol. ii. Among other matters of interest, the Black Book contains a transcript of the "Laws of Oleron," issued by Richard I at that town, which formed the basis of the maritime jurisprudence of all the western nations. See also Rymer's "Fœdera"; Pepys's "Naval Collections"; "A Treatise on the Sea Laws," 1724; J. Exton, "Maritime Dicæologie," 1746; Sir Harris Nicolas, "History of the British Navy"; Knight's "Political Cyclopædia," art. *Admiralty*; and Stephens's "Commentaries on the Laws of England."
[S. L.]

Admonition, The, 1588. A book entitled "An Admonition to the Nobility and People of England and Ireland, concerning the present wars made from the execution of his Holiness' sentence, by the high and mightie King Catholike of Spain," was issued by Cardinal Allen, in order to advocate the Spanish invasion of England, and to declare the papal sentence of excom. munication against Elizabeth. It is a document full of gross and offensive attacks on the queen, and may be considered as one of the most indecent political libels that have ever appeared. The effect of the "Admonition" was to disgust not only all Protestants, but also a great many Catholics. The style is so unlike the usual manner of Cardinal Allen that it has often been attributed to the pen of the Jesuit Parsons; but whoever was its real author, it was signed and acknowledged by Allen.

The "Admonition" was reprinted with a preface by Rev. J. Mendham, 1842.

Admonition to the Parliament, An, 1571, the work of two Nonconformists, named Field and Wilcox, was presented to parliament by Thomas Cartwright. The object of the pamphlet, which was written in a spirit of intolerance and defiance, was the complete abolition of episcopacy. A second "Admonition" was also published by Cartwright (who was supported by Leicester), and spread over the country. An elaborate answer was written by Archbishop Whitgift, and Field and Wilcox were committed to Newgate.

Adrian IV, Pope (*d.* 1159), was the only Englishman who has occupied the papal chair. His name was Nicholas Breakspear. He was born probably at Langley in Hertfordshire, *c.* 1100, studied in France, and finally

entered the monastery of St. Rufus in Provence, of which he became abbot. In 1146 he was created a cardinal, and later was sent as papal legate to Norway. In 1154 he was chosen pope. His pontificate was disturbed by the attempt of Arnold of Brescia, whom he succeeded in arresting and executing (1155). Adrian is memorable in European history as beginning the long and bitter quarrel between the popes and the Hohenstaufen emperors. In English history his chief interest lies in his grant to Henry II of the sovereignty of Ireland in 1155, which was claimed by the popes under the spurious "Donation of Constantine." That the investiture took place there can be little doubt, since the story rests on the authority of John of Salisbury; but the authenticity of the so-called "Bull Laudabiliter" is more open to question, and has given rise to much controversy. For a full discussion of the points at issue see Round, "Commune of London"; and, on the other side, Orpen, "Ireland Under the Normans" and the "Catholic Encyclopædia," art. *Adrian IV.*

Biographies by F. H. K. Mann (1914) and E. M. Almedingen (1926).

Adullamites (1866) was a name derisively applied to those Liberals, about forty in number, who opposed the majority of their party on Earl Russell's proposal for a further reform of parliament. Their leaders were Robert Lowe (q.v.), Edward Horsman, and Lord Elcho. John Bright, on March 13, compared this party to the assembly which came to the cave of Adullam, when David called about him everyone that was in distress and everyone that was discontented. The defection of the Adullamites led to the overthrow of Lord Russell's ministry.

Adventurers. [Merchant Adventurers.]

Adventurers of 1642, The. The English parliament having confiscated between two and three millions of acres in Ireland, in consequence of the rebellion of 1641, debenture bonds were issued made payable in land after the reconquest of the country. About a million acres were thus disposed of, the original idea being that the money thus obtained should actually be employed in suppressing the rebellion; but the outbreak of civil war in England prevented this. When in 1653 the conquest was finally accomplished, the counties of Limerick, Tipperary, and Waterford, in Munster; King's and Queen's County, East and West Meath, in Leinster; Down, Antrim, and Armagh, in Ulster, were set aside for satisfying these claims, and those of the Puritan soldiery. Many of these Adventurers were subsequently deprived of a large portion of their lands by the Act of Settlement and Explanation in 1665, and a considerable number emigrated to America.

J. A. Froude, "English in Ireland," 1872–4.

"Advertisements" (1566) was the name of a book of discipline issued by Archbishop Parker. It marks the beginnings of the persecutions of the Puritan clergy, and has in recent times excited much controversy. The archbishop had previously endeavoured in vain to induce Cecil to consent to an official promulgation of these "advertisements"; but as Cecil was not anxious to provoke opposition by too rigid an execution of the Act of Uniformity, he had refused to authorize or publish them, and Parker was consequently left to issue them on his own responsibility. Their title ran: "Advertisements partly for due order in the public administration of Common Prayer and using of the Holy Sacraments, and partly for the apparel of all persons ecclesiastical, by virtue of the Queen's Majesty's letter commanding the same." The points especially insisted on were the wearing of the surplice and cap; and generally they enforced rigid obedience to the more obnoxious portions of the Act of Uniformity. Much controversy has arisen as to the precise validity of these Advertisements. On the one side it has been maintained that the royal authorization gave binding force to the archbishop's injunctions, and that they were the "other order" which the Act of Uniformity of 1559 half anticipated as likely to supersede the "Ornaments Rubric," which enjoined that church ornaments should remain as in the second year of Edward VI. This view, which was adopted by Lord Selborne in the "Ridsdale Case," has been attacked by Mr. J. Parker in his "Ornaments Rubric," where it is maintained that the Advertisements were simple archiepiscopal injunctions, and that their enforcement of a minimum of ritual did not aim at abolishing the vestments, etc., of Edward VI's First Prayer Book.

J. R. G. Usher, "Reconstruction of the English Church," 2 vols., 1910.

Advertisements, Duty on. Advertisements in newspapers appear to have first come into use during the period of the Commonwealth, the first being, it is said, an announcement of an heroic poem on the death of Cromwell. Advertisements became common during the latter half of the seventeenth century, and in the reign of William III a gratuitous paper of advertisements was started and existed for some time. By an act of 1712, a duty was imposed on each advertisement published. In 1833 the tax was reduced from 3s. 6d. in Great Britain, and 2s. 6d. in Ireland, to 1s. 6d. in the former and 1s. in the latter country. In 1851 the tax brought in over £175,000. The duty was abolished in 1853.

See article in *Quarterly Review*, June 1855; C. D. Collet, "History of Taxes on Knowledge," 1899.

Advocate, The Lord, also called the King's or Queen's Advocate, is the chief law officer of the Crown in Scotland, and corre-

sponds, roughly speaking, to the English attorney-general. The king's advocate is found in existence in 1483, in 1540 he became one of the officers of state, and in 1587 he is first mentioned as *lord* advocate. The origin of the office is extremely obscure; it has been supposed that, with the title, it was derived from the French; and the duties of the earlier kings' advocates, of whom there is a fairly full list from 1483, are equally ill-defined. They appear to have been comprised in the prosecution of state officers, and the inquiry into the extent of the feudal forfeitures arising from those offences. In the middle of the sixteenth century it is possible to gain a clearer idea of his functions; the lord advocate was public prosecutor, he conducted all cases in which the sovereign was concerned, which, from the reign of Queen Mary, have been pursued in his name, and in the latter part of the century appears occasionally to have combined the offices of advocate and judge in the Court of Session. Previous to the Union, the lord advocate sat in parliament in virtue of his office; but now he is not necessarily, though he is generally, a member of the Lower House. He is appointed by the Crown, and tenders his resignation when the administration changes. When the Duke of Newcastle abolished the office of secretary of state for Scotland in the reign of George II the duties of that minister were transferred to the lord advocate. In parliament he answers all questions relating to Scotland, and undertakes all measures of Scottish legislation; but he is not a member of the privy council, and is called right honourable by courtesy only. Outside parliament he acts as public prosecutor, in which duties he is assisted by the solicitor-general and four advocates-depute, and appears for the Crown in all civil cases. His warrants for searching, apprehending, and imprisoning run in any part of Scotland; he is allowed to sit within the bar of the Court of Session, a privilege enjoyed by peers of the realm.

Barclay, "Digest of the Law of Scotland"; More, "Lectures on the Laws of Scotland," vol. i; also Omond, "History of the Lords Advocate," 1846.

[L. C. S.]

Advowson is the right of presentation to an ecclesiastical benefice. The word is taken from Lat. *advocatio*, for he who held the advowson was the protector or *patron* of the church. In the early Anglo-Saxon period the clergy administered only "pro tempore" in the parochial churches, receiving their maintenance from the cathedral church; and all appointments within the diocese lay with the bishops. By the end of the eighth century, however, the great lords were beginning increasingly to build and endow churches, and to such it was permitted to nominate, subject to the bishop's consent, their own resident priests, to whom the revenue of the church was appropriated. Originally the right of nominating or presenting was vested in the person by whom the church was founded, but gradually it became annexed to the manor in which the church was built. Such are advowsons *appendant*. Where, as is often the case, the right of presentation has been sold by itself, and thus separated from the ownership of land, it is called an advowson *in gross*. English law recognizes two types of advowson: (i) *presentative*, where the patron has the right of presenting a clerk to the bishop for institution; (ii) *collative*, where the bishop himself is patron. Until the Benefices Act of 1898 there existed a third type—the *donative*—where the patron, by royal foundation or licence, had the right to present without reference to the bishop. An advowson is considered in law as an incorporeal hereditament. Formerly, advowsons and the power of exercising the right of presentation for one or more terms were saleable, subject to some restrictions. They might be mortgaged, in which case the mortgagee presented, but on the nomination of the mortgagor. The law of simony, which, as far as temporal courts are concerned, is founded on 31 Elizabeth, c. 6, and 13 Anne, c. 11, forbade a clergyman to purchase a next presentation for himself; but he might purchase an advowson and be presented on the next vacancy. Within recent years, however, the law relating to advowsons has been greatly modified. The Benefices Act of 1898 severely curtailed the right of owners of advowsons and next presentations to transfer them, and laid down more rigid regulations as to the qualifications to be demanded from a presentee. The Benefices Act (1898) Amendment Measure, passed by the Church Assembly in 1923, went much further. It provided that patronage rights should be incapable of sale after the next two vacancies; prohibited the presentation of a clergyman by himself, his wife, or any other interested party; and made impossible for the future the mortgaging of advowsons. If a patron neglects to exercise his right the presentation lapses at the end of six months to the bishop, the archbishop, and the Crown successively. No Roman Catholic may present, either in person or by his trustees; but the presentation vests in one or other of the two ancient universities, according to the geographical situation of the benefice. The bishop is bound to institute the clerk presented by the patron unless there is good cause to the contrary. The remedy for disturbance of patronage was anciently by an action of *dernier presentment*. The procedure now is by an action of *quare impedit* in the temporal court; by a suit of *duplex querela* in the spiritual court; or by *jus patronatus*—a process instituted by the bishop at the request of either patron or presentee. The act of 1898 provided an alternative mode of appeal in all cases, save those in which doctrine or ritual were concerned, to a court composed of the archbishop of the pro-

vince and a judge of the High Court nominated "ad hoc" by the lord chancellor.

Phillimore, "Ecclesiastical Law"; Chitty, "Statutes"; Halsbury, "Laws of England."

[W. H.] [H. M. C.]

Ælfgar. [Algar.]

Aelfheah. [Alphege.

Æthelberht. [Ethelbert.]

Æthelred. [Ethelred.]

Æthelstan. [Athelstan.]

Affirmations. [Oaths, Parliamentary, and Oaths in Courts of Law.]

Afghan Wars. (1) Situated in immediate proximity to the N.W. frontier of India, Afghanistan has, from the earliest times, figured conspicuously in the history of Hindustan and of Central Asia. Its first connexion with English history dates from the year 1809, when the rumour of a joint invasion of India, determined on by Napoleon and the Tsar Alexander, led to the dispatch of the Hon. M. Elphinstone as envoy to Shah Shuja, then ruler of Kabul. A treaty was concluded between the two at Peshawar. In 1834, Shah Shuja, who had been dethroned, endeavoured to regain his power, and advanced on Kandahar, but was defeated by Dost Mohammed, ruler of Kabul, and Kohandil Khan, who reigned at Kandahar. He took refuge eventually with Nasir Khan, of Kalat, who enabled him to return to Ludhiana. In 1837, the siege of Herat, by Persia, encouraged, as believed, by the Russians, and the defeat of the Sikhs by Dost Mohammed, led the British to dispatch Burnes as resident at the court of Kabul. The resolution was formed of placing the ex-king, Shah Shuja, on the Afghan throne. An army of 21,000 men was assembled on the Indus (January 16, 1839), and, advancing on Kandahar, took possession of that city, where Shah Shuja was crowned on May 8. Ghazni fell next, the gate of the city being blown in by Lieutenant (afterwards General Sir Henry) Durand. Dost Mohammed fled, and the British entered Kabul without opposition. Shah Shuja's restoration was at first popular, but the people soon began to gather in insurrection. On November 2, 1841, rebellion broke out, and Sir Alexander Burnes and other officers were assassinated; and on January 6, 1842, the British garrison of 4,500, with nearly three times that number of camp followers, proceeded to evacuate the country, but perished miserably in the mountain passes between Kabul and Jalalabad, a single survivor, Dr. Brydon, alone reaching the latter city. Ghazni fell to the Afghans on December 10. Kandahar and Jalalabad, however, were held firmly by Generals Nott and Sale respectively. A strong expedition, under General Pollock, was prepared in India, and after forcing the Khaibar Pass relieved Jalalabad. After halting two months, General Pollock advanced and inflicted a severe defeat on Mohammed Akbar Khan, entering Kabul a few days later. Soon after the departure of our troops Shah Shuja was assassinated, and Dost Mohammed Khan was restored to his former power. During the Sikh revolt, in 1848, he joined against the British, but a friendly understanding was arrived at and a treaty concluded in 1855. The same year saw the acquisition of the Kandahar province by Dost Mohammed, and the second Persian advance on Herat; its capture and final cession, through fear of the British, who had sent an expedition to the Persian Gulf, are the subsequent events of note.

(2) Shere Ali Khan, who ascended the Afghan throne in 1863, eventually overcame his rivals and foes in 1868. An arrangement was arrived at between the British and Russian governments in 1872 that Afghanistan was beyond the field of Russian influence, and the practical violation of this understanding in 1878, coupled with the repulse by the Afghans of a British mission, led to a fresh Afghan war. The victories at Ali Masjid and Paiwar, and the capture of Kandahar and Kalat-i-Ghilzai by Sir Donald Stewart, placed all the important vantage points of Eastern Afghanistan (Kabul excepted) in our hands. A treaty was concluded at Gandamak with Yakub Khan, who had succeeded to power on the death of his father, Shere Ali, but all its provisions were scattered to the winds by the murder of Sir Louis Cavagnari, who had been deputed as British envoy to Kabul. Sir Frederick (afterwards Lord) Roberts promptly advanced on the capital, and defeated the Afghans at Charasia. At the close of 1879, the total defeat of Mohammed Jan effectually dispersed the insurgents. But the approach of the Sirdar Ayub Khan from the side of Herat kindled anew the flames of rebellion. This pretender, having defeated General Burrows at Maiwand, proceeded to invest Kandahar, but was utterly routed in his turn by General Sir Frederick Roberts, who had effected the difficult march from Kabul with much skill and generalship. In September 1880, the British troops were withdrawn from the Kurram and Kabul valleys, and in the following April from Kandahar, leaving the government of the country in the hands of Abdur Rahman, whose authority as ruler of the country had been recognized by Britain in July 1880. After that date the Amir gradually established his power, remaining on excellent terms with Britain. The delimitation of the N. frontier led in 1885 to a collision between Russian and Afghan troops at Panjdeh, and almost to an Anglo-Russian war.

The chief authorities on Afghanistan are given in Sir Charles MacGregor's admirable "Gazetteer," published at Calcutta in 1871. The leading events of the subsequent campaigns are briefly chronicled in Robertson's "Three Campaigns in Afghanistan," 1881. For the later history cf. Wheeler, the "Ameer Abdurrahman," 1895; also H. B. Hanna, "Second Afghan War," 1899–1910; A. Forbes, "Afghan War," 1891–2; Sir J. Kaye, "History of the War in Afghanistan," 3 vols., 1851 and 1890; Sirdar Ikbal Ali Shah, "Afghanistan of the Afghans," 1928.

Africa, British Dominions in. The British Dominions in Africa are as follows. Fuller information will be found elsewhere under the respective titles. (1) Anglo-Egyptian Sudan; (2) East Africa, including Kenya, Somaliland, Tanganyika, Nyassaland, Uganda, and Zanzibar; (3) South Africa, including the Union of South Africa with Basutoland, Bechuanaland, Rhodesia, and Swaziland; (4) West Africa, including Gambia, Gold Coast, Lagos, Nigeria, and Sierra Leone. The following islands adjacent to Africa are sometimes classed among British African Dominions: Ascension, St. Helena, Tristan d'Acunha, Mauritius, Rodriguez, the Seychelles, the Amirante Islands, and Socotra.

Agadir Crisis, The (1911), arose out of the Algeciras Conference of 1906 (q.v.) and the German policy of driving a wedge into the Triple Entente (q.v.). France, acting on the Algeciras agreement, landed troops in Morocco and occupied Fez. Germany replied in June 1911 by sending the gunboat *Panther* to Agadir "to protect the lives and interests of German subjects" in Morocco. France refused to recognize the German desire for a partition of Morocco. Great Britain supported her wholeheartedly, and the resolute speeches of Mr. Lloyd George (July 21) and Mr. Balfour in London checked the Kaiser's course. Negotiations were opened between France and Germany, and on November 4 a treaty was concluded vindicating the French Protectorate over Morocco and compensating Germany with half the French Congo. The equilibrium of the Mediterranean was preserved.

P. Albin, "Le Coup d'Agadir," 1912.

[A. C. F. B.]

Agent-General is the name given to a representative in England of one of the self-governing British colonies. His duties are to look after the political and economic interests of his colony in London.

Aghrim, Battle of (July 12, 1691), fought in the campaign between William III and James II, in Ireland, resulted in a victory, gained by Ginkel, over the Irish and French troops under St. Ruth.

See Biographies of William III.

Agincourt, Battle of, fought October 25, 1415. Henry V, in attempting to regain the ground which Edward III had lost in his first campaign against France, took Harfleur, but finding his army greatly diminished by sickness, was unable to undertake any great expedition. He resolved to make his way to Calais through the hostile provinces of Normandy, Picardy, and Artois. His army consisted of about 6,000 men, of whom 5,000 were archers, and 900 men-at-arms. A French army three or four times as large was gathered under the Constable D'Albret, to cut them off. The English succeeded in crossing the Somme near Béthancourt on October 19, only to find that the French had mustered in force at Bapaume with the object of cutting off Henry's retreat to Calais. On the morning of the 25th the two armies confronted each other at the two ends of a narrow parallelogram shut in on either side by the orchards and enclosures of the villages of Agincourt and Framecourt, and traversed by the road to Calais. The French were drawn up in three battles ranged one behind the other. The first two fought on foot; the third was mounted ready for the pursuit. The confined nature of the ground gave no chance for the use of artillery, and the heavy-armed French were at a disadvantage in the soft ground, as compared with the light-armed English yeomen. The English were drawn up in the traditional three divisions, each being flanked by bowmen, so arranged as to command the whole field of battle, and protected by a four-fold line of stakes. Henry had hoped to fight on the defensive, but the refusal of the enemy to advance compelled him to make the first move. As soon as the French responded to his challenge, he halted his men. It was eleven o'clock when the order was given to the English to advance. The archers once more fixed their stakes in the ground so as to form a palisade from behind which they opened a deadly fire upon the French men-at-arms, who were unable to advance quickly in the soft ground, and fell in numbers. Finding themselves unsupported, they broke, and the English archers, seizing their hatchets and maces, rushed into their lines and cut them down or turned them to flight. Then, reinforced by the English men-at-arms, the archers attacked the second division of the French. Here the battle was fiercer and more equal. The Duke of Alençon on the French side, and Henry V on the English, fought desperately, and for two hours the victory was uncertain. At length Alençon was slain, and the French gave way. A cry was raised among the English that a new French army was coming up in their rear. In the panic Henry V gave orders that all prisoners should be slain. Many brave Frenchmen met their death before it was discovered that the supposed army was only a band of peasants who had collected to plunder. Meanwhile the third division of the French wavered, and, at last, fled. After three hours' fighting the victory of the English was assured. The French losses were very heavy. More than 5,000 men fell on the field, amongst them 1,500 nobles and knights. As a result of the battle, Henry was able to continue his march to Calais, and the superiority of the light-armed archer to the heavily burdened knight or man-at-arms was even more effectively demonstrated than at Poitiers.

R. Garnett (ed.), "Drayton's Battle of Agincourt," 1893.

Agitators. [Adjutators.]

Agra is a strong and ancient town on the river Jumna, in the North-West Provinces of India. It was formerly one of the chief cities of the Mogul dynasty, and in the wars of 1803 it was held by the Mahrattas, from whom it was captured by General Lake after a day's bombardment, and ceded to the British by Sindhia at the peace of Surge Anjangaon. Agra contains the famous Taj Mahal, a magnificent mausoleum built by Shah Jahan over the remains of his wife.

G. W. Forrest, "Cities of India," 1903; G. S. Powle, "Short History of the Fort at Agra," 1916.

"Agreement of the People" was one of John Lilburne's numerous pamphlets, and was published in 1648. It was received with great enthusiasm by the Levellers; and at a meeting held between Hertford and Ware, for the purpose of restoring discipline to the army, and satisfying the claims of the soldiers, a large number wore this pamphlet in their hats. Fairfax and Cromwell ordered them to remove the pamphlets. All the regiments except Lilburne's obeyed; and Cromwell, perceiving the necessity of at once stopping the insubordination, caused one of the ringleaders to be shot, and had all the others imprisoned. [Lilburne; Levellers.]

Agricola, Gnæus Julius (37–93), Roman governor of Britain (78–84), had, previous to his appointment, served in the island under Cerealis. During his governorship he endeavoured to subdue the tribes in the north, and to conciliate the Britons to the Roman rule by making them acquainted with the advantages of civilization. He encouraged them to come to the towns, and had many of the sons of the chiefs instructed in literature and science, and he succeeded so well "that they who had lately scorned to learn the Roman language were becoming fond of acquiring the Roman eloquence." In 78 he reduced Mona; in 79 he subdued the north of Britain to the Tweed; in 80 he advanced as far as the Firth of Tay; the year 81 was employed in constructing a chain of forts between the Clyde and the Forth; in the next year he explored the north-west part of the island, and planned a descent upon Ireland, but the rising of the Caledonians, under their chief Galgacus, prevented this project being carried out. After some severe fighting he defeated Galgacus, and thus subdued the whole island. In 84 he sailed round the island, and discovered the Orkneys; and in the same year he returned to Rome, where a triumph was decreed to him.

The Life of Agricola was written by his son-in-law, the historian Tacitus. The "Agricola" is the best extant account of the condition of Britain in the early part of the period of the Roman rule.

Agriculture. A certain amount of information will be found under other headings, particularly Manor; Common Lands, Open Fields and Enclosures, Tithes, Hide, Reeve. The book lists there recommended should be consulted, whilst the following works are suggested for general reading:

Ernle, "English Farming, Past and Present"; Gras, "History of English Agriculture"; Curtler, "A Short History of English Agriculture"; M. E. Seebohm, "The Evolution of the English Farm"; Gras, "The Evolution of the English Corn Market" (not advised for preliminary work); Cunningham, "The Growth of English Industry and Commerce" (the first volume only); Hammond, "The Village Labourer, 1760–1832"; Hasbach, "The English Agricultural Labourer"; Levy, "Large and Small Holdings." In the narrative portion of Rogers's "History of Agriculture and Prices," which should be used with caution, much information will be found, ably treated by the hand of a master.

Ahmadnagar. A town of British India, capital of a province of the same name in the district of Gujarat. During the Mahratta war of 1803 General Wellesley invested and captured the town. It was restored to the Mahrattas at the end of the war; but in 1817, after the treaty of Poona, again passed into the hands of the British.

See biographies of Wellington.

Aid. The term *auxilium* or aid had during the Middle Ages an exceedingly wide connotation. It may, indeed, be said to have applied to almost any kind of contribution the nature of which was theoretically voluntary, from whatsoever source it was derived. In a specialized sense, however, it was a feudal payment, having its origin in the acknowledged obligation of the tenant to render assistance to his lord in all emergencies, financial as well as military. It was in theory always a voluntary offering, dependent, Bracton tells us, upon the grace of the vassal and not upon the will of the lord; but actually the right of the lord to demand contributions on certain specific occasions secured early recognition, and a distinction was drawn between the "ordinary" levies, which ceased to be in any real sense voluntary, and the "extraordinary" levies, which retained, at least in theory, the character of an out-and-out gift. Glanvil, writing in the reign of Henry II, gives as the recognized occasions for the exaction of an aid, the payment by the lord of his relief, the marriage of the lord's eldest daughter, and the knighting of his eldest son; and discusses in addition the possibility of an aid to maintain the lord in his wars. By Magna Carta, however, the number of "ordinary" aids was finally fixed at three: viz., the aids to marry and to knight and the aid to ransom the lord when he was captured in warfare. Of the amount to be exacted the Charter of 1215 said no more than that it should be reasonable; but this deficiency was remedied in the case of mesne tenants by the Statute of Westminster I, which fixed the rate at twenty shillings from the knight's fee and from every twenty librates of socage land; and by 25 Edward III, stat. 5, c. 11, which extended this provision to aids levied by the Crown. An aid to ransom was levied only once in English

history—viz., in 1193–4 in order to raise the money necessary to procure the release of Richard I from his German captivity. Aids to marry were imposed by Henry II in 1168, by Henry III in 1235 and 1245, by Edward I in 1302, and by Henry IV in 1401; and aids to knight by Henry III in 1253, and by Edward III in 1346. After the lapse of more than a century the claim of the Crown to the recognized feudal *auxilia* was revived by the first of the Tudor monarchs. In 1504 Henry VII placed before parliament a demand for an aid to knight his eldest son and to marry his eldest daughter, although Prince Arthur had been knighted on November 30, 1488, and was already two years dead, while the Princess Margaret had been married to the King of Scots as early as August 1502. Since a levy upon the traditional basis of the knight's fee was at that date obviously impossible, the Commons offered instead a subsidy of £40,000, which was graciously reduced by the king to £30,000. James I followed the example of his predecessor and exacted an aid to knight his son Prince Henry in 1609, and another to marry the Princess Elizabeth in 1612, on a basis of voluntary composition. The course of the ordinary feudal aids was by now, however, almost run, and they were finally abolished with military tenures by the statute of 1660.

In the meantime the "extraordinary" aid had been passing through a widely different process of development. It is scarcely too much to say that we may see in it the source of origin of our modern system of taxation and even of our representative institutions. "The evolution of a national parliament," it has been said, "is a logical consequence of the theory of the aid." The doctrine of consent was extended from purely feudal to national taxation, as soon as any form of exaction developed to which that term can legitimately be applied. The carucages and the taxes on movables of the Angevin period were put in charge with the consent of the Great Council, and were assessed by the royal officials usually with the help of local juries. Clauses 12 and 14 of the Charter of 1215 required the co-operation of the *commune concilium regni* in all extraordinary levies; and, despite their disappearance from later issues, the principle they introduced steadily triumphed under Henry III. At first the idea existed that consent must be individual, and in 1217 the Bishop of Winchester was exempted from payment of the gracious aid on the ground that he had not been present when it was granted; but gradually the doctrine was established that the consent of those present bound the absentees. A further advance was achieved with the broadening of the basis of representation. After more than half a century of experiment, Edward I at last securely laid the foundations of our representative system, and a parliament which included representatives of the shires and boroughs as well as the nobles and clergy came into being. Even so the door to arbitrary taxation had not been finally closed to the Crown, as the exactions of Edward I and Edward III abundantly witnessed. The *Confirmatio Cartarum* of 1297 still left the king a loophole which was only closed in 1340 when Edward III committed himself to the promise that the community "be not henceforth charged or grieved to make common aid or to sustain charge if it be not by common consent of the prelates, earls, barons, and other magnates and Commons of our realm of England, and that in Parliament." When the Yorkists and the Tudors resorted to non-parliamentary exactions they were obliged to cloak them under the guise of "loans and benevolences" in order to avoid too open an infringement of constitutional procedure. Thus the feudal dues and impositions of the eleventh and twelfth centuries gave place in the thirteenth and fourteenth to a system of taxation the incidence of which was felt by the nation as a whole rather than by individual classes, and the basis of which was personalty rather than land. But the bequest of the old order to the new was the great principle that taxation requires consent. Bracton's statement that "aids depend on the grace of the tenant and not upon the will of the lord" grows into the principle enunciated by Chatham: "The taxes are a voluntary gift and grant of the Commons alone." [Taxation.]

S. K. Mitchell, "Taxation Under John and Henry III"; G. B. Adams, "Origin of the English Constitution"; Dowell, "History of Taxation"; McKechnie, "Magna Carta."

[H. M. C.]

Aidan, St. (*d.* 651), was a monk in the Columban monastery of Iona. Upon the failure of a mission sent into Northumbria at the request of the king Oswald, who had learnt something of Christianity in Scotland, Aidan was sent and was at once installed as bishop, with his see at Lindisfarne. He established Christianity, and was one of the most zealous supporters of the unreformed Paschal Cycle; despite which Bæda fully recognizes his piety and integrity. To St. Aidan many miracles are ascribed, the most remarkable of which is, perhaps, his reputed power of stilling the most violent tempest by the use of consecrated oil.

Bæda, "Historia Ecclesiastica," i, 3, 50; "Acta Sanctorum"; Plummer, "The Churches in Britain before A.D. 1000"; biography by A. C. Fryer, 1884.

Aids, The Voluntary, was the name given to a grant of £120,000, made in 1628 by the Irish notables, payable in instalments of £40,000 a year in return for certain "Graces" (q.v.) or concessions from the Crown. These payments were afterwards, especially by Strafford's action, renewed, and altogether continued for ten years. The Graces were never actually granted.

Aiguillon, Siege of (1346), was the most famous siege of the French wars of Edward III's reign. The fortress of Aiguillon was strongly situated on the borders of

Gascony and the Agenais, between the Lot and the Garonne, and it was bravely defended by Sir Walter Manny against John, Duke of Normandy, from April till the end of August. The duke had sworn never to quit the siege till the place was taken; and, finding his assaults ineffectual, resolved to reduce the place by famine. But the great victory of the English at Creçy imperatively called for the presence of the duke's army in the north of France, and he was compelled to raise the siege.

Sir C. Oman, "England and the Hundred Years' War," 1898.

Ailesbury, Thomas Bruce, 2nd Earl of (*d.* 1741). [Bruce.]

Ailmer, Sir Laurence, was sheriff of London in 1501, and subsequently lord mayor. He resisted the exactions of the king's rapacious ministers, Empson and Dudley, and was committed to prison in the last year of Henry VII's reign for refusing to pay the fine of £1,000 imposed upon him.

Aird's Moss, Fight of (1680), in Ayrshire, was a small skirmish in which the royal troops routed a party of the extreme Scottish Covenanters, who had signed the "Sanquhar Declaration" (q.v.), or Cameronians, as they were subsequently called. Richard Cameron, the leader of the sect, fell in this encounter.

Air Force, The Royal, was formed in April 1918, by the amalgamation of the flying branches of the army and navy. The Royal Flying Corps had been formed in 1912, and had become part of the army just before the outbreak of the Great War, the Royal Naval Air Service being formed as a corresponding unit. The disadvantages of the dual system led to the establishment of an Air Ministry (q.v.) in 1918, and to amalgamation.

Air Ministry, The, is a department of state formed in 1918 on the establishment of the Royal Air Force. The Air Council consists of a president (the secretary of state for air), four service members, and a secretary. The Air Ministry gives administrative effect to the council's decisions.

Air Raids on England, during the Great War, began in December 1914, with a Zeppelin attack off Dover, and ended in August 1918, with a raid off the coast of Norfolk. The first aeroplane attack occurred on November 28, 1916. London was first visited on May 31, 1915. The two most famous exploits of the British air defence were the destruction of a Zeppelin at Cuffley, Middlesex, by Lieut. Robinson on September 2, 1916, and a similar achievement by Lieut. Tempest in the same area on October 1, 1916. The largest raid of all, in which nearly forty Gothas were engaged, took place on May 19, 1918. The total British casualties from air raids for the whole period of the war was 1,413 killed and 3,407 injured. The defence of London involved 200 aeroplanes.

J. Morris, "The German Air Raids on Great Britain, 1914–18," 1925. [A. C. F. B.]

Aislabie, John (1670–1742), was chancellor of the exchequer in Lord Stanhope's ministry of 1718. In 1719 he defended the Peerage Bill. In 1720 he, with Sunderland, was requested by Stanhope to consider the proposals of the South Sea Company. They accepted them; and, accordingly, all the intensity of popular indignation fell on them when the scheme failed. The inquiry elicited the fact that an extensive system of bribes had prevailed, and that large sums of fictitious capital had been invented and distributed among leading members of the government. Aislabie's case was so flagrant that no one rose to defend him. He was expelled the House, and sent to the Tower. On his release, he retired to his estate in Yorkshire. [South Sea Company.]

Lewis Melville, "The South Sea Bubble," 1921.

Aix-la-Chapelle, Treaty of (October 18, 1748), closed the War of the Austrian Succession. The initiative came from France, strengthened by her recent successes, and the strong desire for peace felt by Britain and Holland eventually forced the treaty on Austria and Sardinia. The principal articles were:—The renewal of all former treaties and the mutual restoration of all conquests, Britain giving hostages for the restoration of Cape Breton; the fortifications of Dunkirk on the sea-side were to be demolished; the duchies of Parma, Guastalla, and Piacenza were assigned to the Infant, Don Philip, but if he succeeded to the throne of Naples, the two first reverted to the house of Austria, and Piacenza to Sardinia; the Duke of Modena and the republic of Genoa were reinstated in their former territories; the Asiento Treaty with Spain was confirmed for four years; the Protestant succession in England was guaranteed according to the treaty of 1714, and the Pretender was to be excluded from France; the emperor was to be acknowledged by France, and the Pragmatic Sanction guaranteed; the duchy of Silesia and the county of Glätz were guaranteed to the king of Prussia, and the portions of the Milanese held by Sardinia were permanently surrendered by Austria. It resulted in the breach of the Austrian and British alliance.

Ajmer, the chief town of a district in Rajputana, lying east of Jodhpur. It was taken by the Mahrattas from the Moguls in 1770. In 1818 it was finally ceded to the British.

Akeman Street. [Roman Roads.]

Alabama. [Geneva Award.]

Alban. About the end of the ninth century, and before the term Scotia came into use, the district between the Firths of Forth and Clyde and the Spey, which had been known

as Pictland, was called Alban (more correctly, Alba), a name which had still earlier been used to designate the whole country north of the Forth and the Clyde. Donald, son of Constantine (889–900), seems to have been the first Pictish ruler to be called King of Alban. The kingdom was divided into seven provinces or mormaerships—the seven earldoms of later history. About a century later the name was superseded by that of Scotia, Malcolm, son of Kenneth (1005–34), being the first to be called King of Scotia.

KINGS OF ALBAN.

Donald	889–900
Constantine, son of Aedh	900–942
Malcolm	942–954
Indulph	954–962
Dubh	962–967
Cuilean	967–971
Kenneth	971–995
Constantine, son of Cuilean	995–997
Kenneth, son of Dubh	997–1005

See Skene, "Celtic Scotland: a History of Ancient Alban," 1876; P. Hume Brown, "History of Scotland," vol. i, 1911; Rhys, "Celtic Britain."

Alban, St. (*d.* 304 ? 305 ?), is traditionally regarded as the proto-martyr of Britain. His story, as related by Gildas and Bæda, is that Alban, being then a pagan, saved a confessor, who was being pursued by his persecutors, and was at the point of being seized, by hiding him in his own house, and by changing clothes with him. Alban was carried before the magistrate, but having in the meantime become a Christian he refused to sacrifice to the gods, and was accordingly executed just outside the great city of Verulamium (St. Albans). Numerous miracles are related of him, but, putting these aside, there seems no reason for doubting that he is an historic personage. The date usually given for the martyr's death is a difficulty, as in 304–5 Constantius, the father of Constantine, was Cæsar in Britain, who is known to have been very favourable to Christianity. Dr. Hugh Williams considers it more probable that Alban suffered during the persecutions of Decius and Valerian (250–60).

Gildas, "History," § 10; Bæda, "Ecclesiastical History," i, 7; Williams, "Christianity in Early Britain."

Albani. A name cognate in meaning with Alban and Albion, which is found associated with the Celtic tribe who possessed the districts of Breadalbane and Atholl, with parts of Lochaber and Upper Lorne.

Albania. [Dalriada.]

Albans, St., Abbey of, etc. [St. Albans.]

Albany, Dukes of. [Stuart.]

Albany, Peerage of. In 1398 Robert Stuart (q.v.) (second son of King Robert II of Scotland), was created Duke of Albany. On the execution of his son, Murdoch, 2nd Duke of Albany (q.v), in 1425, the peerage was forfeited to the Crown, but revived by James II of Scotland, and conferred on his second son Alexander (q.v.), who transmitted it to his son the regent (1481–1536), John, Duke of Albany (q.v.). In 1565, the title, being again extinct, was granted to Henry Stuart, Lord Darnley (q.v.), husband of Mary, Queen of Scots. After 1766 the style of Earl of Albany was adopted by Charles Edward Stuart, the Young Pretender; the title of "Countess of Albany" being assumed by Louisa Maria of Stolberg-Gedern (1754–1823) on her marriage with the prince in 1772. She quitted her husband in 1780, and after his death married the poet Alfieri. On being deserted by his wife, the Pretender affected to create his natural daughter, by Clementina Walkinshaw, "Duchess of Albany." The title of Albany was added to that of York in the peerages of Ernest Augustus, brother of George I, Ernest Augustus, brother of George III, and Frederick, second son of that king. By letters patent, May 24, 1881, Prince Leopold, Duke of Saxony, fourth son of Queen Victoria, was created Duke of Albany and Earl of Clarence. He died in 1884. His son succeeded to his titles, and became, in addition, Duke of Saxe-Coburg and Gotha in succession to his uncle, Prince Alfred. On the outbreak of the World War in 1914, he declared for the Germans, and was consequently deprived of his English titles under the Titles Deprivation Act of 1917.

Albemarle, George Monck, Duke of (1608–70). [Monck.]

Albemarle, Earls of. [Keppel.]

Albemarle (or Aumale), Peerage of. Odo or Eudes, a claimant of the county of Champagne, held considerable possessions at Aumale, in Normandy. He married Adeliza, sister of William the Conqueror, styled in Domesday Book "Comitissa de Albemarla," and obtained large grants of land in England including the lordship of Holderness. Their son Stephen is styled "Comes de Albemarla," and the title was inherited by his son William, who greatly distinguished himself at the battle of the Standard (1138) and was made Earl of Yorkshire as his reward. His heiress Hawisia succeeded her father in the comté of Aumale and the lordship of Holderness, the title which she carried to her second husband, William de Fortibus (*d.* 1195). Their son William (one of the twenty-five barons named in Magna Carta) inherited the English lands and retained the title of Count of Aumale, although the county was captured by Philip Augustus in 1204. His granddaughter Avelina married Edmund, Earl of Lancaster, second son of Henry III, so that the title and English lands of Aumale became sunk in the royal house. Thomas of Woodstock, sixth son of Edward III, was created Duke of Aumale in 1385, and after his death in 1397 the title was bestowed upon Edward, Earl of Rutland, son of Edmund, Duke of York, by whom, however, it was forfeited in 1399. In 1412, Thomas, second son of Henry IV, was created Duke of Clarence and

Earl of Aumale; he was killed at Beaugé in 1421, when the peerage became extinct. It was revived in 1419, in favour of Richard Beauchamp, Earl of Warwick; but again became extinct on the death of his son Henry in 1446. In 1660 General George Monck (q.v.) was created Duke of Albemarle. The title passed to his son Christopher, and expired with him in 1688. In 1697 the earldom of Albemarle was revived and conferred on William III's faithful follower, Arnold Joost van Keppel (q.v.), in whose descendants it has since remained.

Albert, Prince Consort (1819–61), the husband of Queen Victoria, was the second son of the reigning Duke of Saxe-Coburg-Gotha, and nephew to King Leopold of Belgium, and the Duchess of Kent. The prince was carefully educated, and in November 1839 formally betrothed to his cousin, the queen, to whom he was married February 10, 1840. By an act passed just before this event, a sum of £30,000 a year was settled on the prince for life, the grant having been reduced from £50,000, the sum proposed by the ministry, by the efforts of the Radicals and the opposition. By a subsequent act of this session the prince was named regent in the event of the queen's death before the heir to the crown attained the age of eighteen; and in 1857 he was designated "Prince Consort" by letters patent. He died of typhoid fever, December 14, 1861. The prince's position, as husband of a constitutional sovereign, had been a peculiarly difficult and trying one. Apprehensions were frequently expressed in the earlier part of his married life that his influence would be too extensively exercised in matters of state; and during the years of the Crimean war it was asserted and popularly believed that the prince had taken an undue share in the management of the army and the disposal of patronage. It was, however, gradually acknowledged that the difficult circumstances of his situation could hardly have been met with greater tact and conscientiousness, and with more thorough appreciation of the theory of constitutional monarchy. The prince found a more congenial sphere than politics in the encouragement of the arts and in the promotion of social and industrial reforms, and to his efforts the inauguration and successful establishment of the Great Exhibition of 1851 were in great part due.

The "Speeches and Addresses of Prince Albert, with an Introduction," 1862; Sir Theodore Martin's authoritative and elaborate "Life of the Prince Consort"; "Memoirs of Baron Stockmar," 1872; "The Early Years of the Prince Consort," 1867; and biography by C. M. Yonge, 1889.

Albinus, Clodius (*d.* 197), commander of the Roman forces in Britain, was proclaimed emperor by the legions of the province on the assassination of Pertinax (193). His rival, Severus, who was declared emperor by the troops of Pannonia, at first attempted to win him over by favours; but in 197 marched against him and defeated and slew him at Lyons. This battle of Lugdunum, or Lyons, is interesting as being the first recorded battle fought by a British army on the continent.

Dio Cassius, lxxiii–v.

Albion was perhaps the oldest name for Britain. It occurs in a treatise once ascribed to Aristotle. "Rex Albionis insulæ" was a very favourite title of the more powerful Anglo-Saxon kings (see example in Freeman, "Norman Conquest," i, 548–51), but in later times Albion mainly occurs in poetry. The word means "white," and its use was, perhaps, suggested by the chalk cliffs of the south-east coast. It is etymologically connected with "albus," "alp," etc., and is the Brythonic (Cymric) form of the Goidelic (Gaelic) "Alban," e.g., "Drum Albin" is "Dorsum Albionis" ("Monastic History of Britain," 175 *n*).

For much curious information and extraordinary etymologies, see Cooper, "Thesaurus Linguæ Romanæ et Britannicæ"; "Dictionarium Historicum," London, 1565, s.v. Albion. See also Rhys, "Celtic Britain," pp. 200–3. [T. F. T.]

Albuera, Battle of (May 16, 1811), during the Peninsular War, was fought by Beresford to check Soult, who was advancing to the relief of Badajoz. Soult had with him 24,000 veteran troops, while Beresford, though he had nominally 30,000 men, could only depend on the handful of 7,000 British troops. He had, however, taken up a strong position on a range of hills, in front of which ran the Albuera River. On the morning of the 16th Soult directed a feint attack in front. Beresford endeavoured to avert a flank attack by changing his front, but he was already thinking of retreating, when Colonel Hardinge and Abercromby arrived with fresh troops, with the aid of which the French were driven headlong from the hill. In four hours nearly 6,000 of the allies and 8,000 French had been struck down. On the 17th Soult took up a threatening position, but on the arrival of British reinforcements marched away, and abandoned the attempt to relieve Badajoz.

There is a striking account of the battle in Napier, "Peninsular War"; also Fortescue, "History of the British Army," vol. viii, 1917.

Alcantara, Capture of (1706), was effected by Lord Galway during the War of Succession in Spain (q.v.). He had urged on the Portuguese troops the duty of advancing on Madrid to co-operate with the troops of the Archduke Charles advancing from Barcelona. On his way he drove out a garrison placed by Marshal Berwick in Alcantara.

H. M. A. Parnell, "War of the Spanish Succession," 1905.

Alcock, John (*d.* 1500), Bishop of Rochester, Worcester, and Ely, born in 1430 at Beverley in Yorkshire, was appointed dean of the chapel of St. Stephen's, Westminster, in 1461, and in March 1470 acted as Edward IV's envoy to the King of Castile. In 1462 he was made master of the rolls, which appointment he resigned in March 1472, to John Morton,

upon his own advancement to the see of Rochester. During the illness of Bishop Stillington Alcock held the great seal from September 1472 to April 1473; and from April to September 1475, during the expedition of Edward IV to France, he was acting chancellor in England, while Rotherham, who accompanied the king, was styled "Chancellor of France." In September 1476 he was appointed to the bishopric of Worcester. During Richard III's reign his influence on public affairs was slight; but on the accession of Henry VII he became lord chancellor in 1485, and in 1486 succeeded Morton as Bishop of Ely. He built the beautiful hall at his episcopal palace of Ely, and Jesus College, Cambridge, which he founded on the site of the old monastery of St. Radegund.

Foss, "Judges of England," vol. v.

Alcred (Ealhred), King of Northumbria, succeeded to the throne in the year 765, on the resignation of Ethelwald the Moll. After a troublous reign of nine years, he was compelled to renounce the throne, and seek refuge with the Picts. This is regarded as one of the few authentic cases in Anglo-Saxon history of the formal deposition of a king.

Simeon of Durham, "Historia Regum," ann. 744; W. Stubbs, "Constitutional History," i, 29 seq.

Alcuin (735–804) was born probably at York, and educated in the cathedral school, of which he himself later became master (767). There he earned so wide a reputation as a theologian and man of letters that when in 781, on his return from a visit to Rome to procure the pallium for Archbishop Eanbald, he encountered Charlemagne at Parma, the latter pressed him to undertake the direction of the literary and scholastic revival which he was then planning. Accordingly, Alcuin spent the rest of his life—with the exception of a short visit to England in 790–2—on the continent, engaged at first in supervising the studies in the palace school, and later in reviving the glories of the great school of the monastery of St. Martin at Tours, of which he was made abbot in 796. He is the most prominent figure of the Carolingian Renaissance; and his career testifies to the vigour of the tradition of Anglo-Saxon scholarship established by Theodore and Bæda. Alcuin took an active part in the council of Frankfort (794) at which the heresiarch Felix of Urgel was condemned. His letters, of which a large number have been preserved, are of great historical interest. He maintained throughout his life a close connexion with the country of his birth; and the friendly relations established between Charlemagne and Offa of Mercia are to be ascribed largely to his influence. He was the author of many works, both in prose and in verse, but his distinguished place in the literary history of the Middle Ages is due rather to his career as a teacher than to his actual writings.

"Catholic Encyclopædia," art. *Alcuin*; Gaskoin, "Alcuin: His Life and Work," 1904.

[H. M. C.]

Alderman, or Ealdorman, which is the more ancient form of the word, means simply chief man. It is used in two distinct senses.

(1) Among the first English settlers the title appears to have meant simply chieftain, the position of the ealdorman corresponding to that of the *princeps* of the Germanic tribes as described by Tacitus before the migration, and it continued to be occasionally used vaguely as an equivalent of lord or noble; but in all public documents the word is evidently taken in the strict sense of the chief magistrate of the shire or group of shires, and was not necessarily connected with nobility of blood, service, or large estate. This restriction of the title may be dated about the beginning of the ninth century, in the days of Ecgbert. The ealdorman was, in theory, elected in the witenagemot, but the office became practically hereditary. As the power of the kingdom of Wessex rose and the smaller kingdoms were absorbed by it, the descendants of the royal houses often became hereditary ealdormen in almost unbroken succession; and when their lines became extinct, the ealdormen appointed by the king, with the implied, if not expressed, consent of the witan, transmitted the office to their descendants. Their jurisdictions became enlarged, probably by the aggregation of several shires under one rule. The position of the great ealdormen was a high one; they were practically independent of weak kings. Their *wergild*, or life-value, was equal to that of the bishop, and four times (the king's was six times) that of the thegn.

Originally the ealdorman commanded the military force of the shire, in which capacity he was sometimes called *heretoga*, the leader of the host (*here*); and he sat with the bishop in the shiremoot, receiving a third of the fines levied in the jurisdiction. The ealdormen also attended the central witenagemot, together with the bishops. In Ethelred's reign the name ealdorman began to be supplanted by the Danish title, *earl*, and this process was complete in the time of Canute. As the ealdorman or earl increased in dignity and importance, so his direct share in the administration of the shire decreased; and many of his functions passed to the sheriff, the development of whose office dates from the tenth century. At a later date the term ealdorman reverted to its earlier meaning of headman, and was applied to almost any local officer. Thus in the thirteenth century there is an ealdorman of the hundred, who represents his hundred in the county court. [Earl; Sheriff.]

(2) Alderman, in its mediæval and modern sense, means an official invested with certain municipal powers and duties, and associated with the mayor in the government of a city or town corporate. The word ealdorman, or alderman, had, as has been shown, become

applied to any headman or local officer, and accordingly, in the reign of Henry II, we find that the headman of a gild is called alderman. When, as happened in some of the great towns, the English system of a gild or trade corporation gradually lost its identity in the *communa*, or municipal corporation, the presiding officer of which was the mayor, the mayor and aldermen became associated in the government of the new municipalities. The first mayor of London was appointed in 1191, and the institution of mayor and aldermen in the large towns was pretty general by the end of the reign of John. The authority of the aldermen was, at first, by no means secure, and throughout the reign of Henry III the populace of London protested against their claim to assess taxation and elect the mayor. However, we find them, with four men from each ward, sending members to parliament in 1297, and their appointments, which were annual under Edward II, were for life under Edward IV. Under the Lancastrian kings, the mayor and aldermen are associated with the *town councils*, relics of the earlier town government, which first consisted of twenty-four, and afterwards of larger numbers, and became prominent from the decay of the machinery of the local courts: the mayor, aldermen, and town council forming the elements of the *municipal corporation*. The numbers and sometimes the functions of the aldermen were settled in the charters of incorporation granted to the towns. Under the Stuarts their powers were frequently tampered with from above by the forfeiture and alteration of the charters of incorporation, and the appointment of individual aldermen by royal authority; while they in turn usurped the privileges of the burgesses and freemen, became self-elective, and in some cases obtained the exclusive right of electing members of parliament. Their electoral power, however, was taken from them by the Reform Bill, and the Municipal Reform Act of 1835, and a subsequent act of 1859 did away with the old order of aldermen (except in London), and enacted that their successors were to be elected for six years instead of for life, one-half of their number retiring every third year; and that they should form one-third of the town councillors, from whom and by whom they were to be chosen. Under the Local Government Act of 1888, county aldermen are one-fourth of the members of county councils, and are elected by the rest from their own number or from outside. The alderman is represented in Scotland by the bailie; in Ireland he is elected by the burgesses. [GILD; TOWN.]

W. Stubbs, "Constitutional History," chaps. v, vi, xi, xv, and xxi, and "Select Charters," ed. H. W. C. Davis, 1913; C. Gross, "The Gild Merchant," 2 vols., 1890; A. B. Beaven, "Aldermen of the City of London," 2 vols., 1908. [L. C. S.]

Aldfrid (EALDFRITH), KING of NORTHUMBRIA (685–705), was the son of Oswy, and brother of Egfrid, whom he succeeded. He was well instructed in theology and secular learning, and acquired the title of "the wisest of kings." His Celtic sympathies brought him into conflict with the Roman party led by Wilfrid. His territory was curtailed by the conquests of the Picts, but on the whole his reign was prosperous.

Aldhelm, or ADELM, ST., Bishop of Sherborne (*d.* 709), was born in Wiltshire, and appears to have been connected with the family of the West Saxon kings. As a child he was sent to study under the learned Scot, Maildulf, at Malmesbury, and later he joined the band of scholars who had been attracted to Canterbury by the learning of Theodore and Hadrian. He subsequently became abbot of the community founded by Maildulf. He made a journey to Rome, and took part in the dispute with the British clergy about Easter. In 705 he was made bishop of the new diocese of Sherborne. Aldhelm's learning was greatly celebrated. He wrote in the vernacular as well as in Latin, although none of his English compositions have been preserved. King Alfred considered him as among the best of English poets. His writings include a prose treatise, "De Laude Virginitatis"; a poem, "De Laude Virginum"; some "Ænigmata" in verse; and some letters to Aldfrid of Northumbria and others.

William of Malmesbury, "Vita Aldhelmi"; in "De Gestis Pontificum Anglorum," ed. Hamilton, Rolls Series; "Aldhelmi Opera, in Monumenta Germaniæ Historica," xv, pt. i; Browne, "St. Aldhelm."

Aldred (EALDRED) (*d.* 1069), Archbishop of York, was a monk of Winchester, who became Abbot of Tavistock, and in 1044 Bishop of Worcester. Like many of the native English prelates he travelled much on the continent. Besides journeying twice to Rome, he was sent by Edward the Confessor in 1054 on a mission to the Emperor Henry III; and in 1058 he went on a pilgrimage to Jerusalem. In 1060 he became Archbishop of York, retaining the see of Worcester *in commendam*. The pope refused to bestow the pallium on him till he gave up the see of Worcester. The weight of evidence is against acceptance of the statement of Florence of Worcester that he crowned Harold; but on the death of that prince he submitted to William, for whom he performed the coronation ceremony in default of Stigand. Several legendary tales are told of the latter part of his life, among which is the striking story that he cursed William for his evil deeds, and caused the king to fall trembling at his feet.

E. A. Freeman, "Norman Conquest," ii, 85, iv, 262, etc., 1867–71.

Alexander I, THE FIERCE, KING of SCOTLAND (*s.* 1107, *d.* 1124), was the son of Malcolm Canmore and Margaret, and successor to his brother Edgar. By Edgar's will he

obtained as his kingdom the lands north of the Forth and Clyde, his brother David inheriting Lothian and Cumbria. He gained a great victory on the Moray Firth over the rebellious mormaers of Ross and the Mearns, and founded, in gratitude, the monastery of Scone. An attempt to reconstitute the bishopric of St. Andrews involved the king in disputes with the archbishops of York and Canterbury, who claimed superiority over the Scottish diocese. The controversy ended only with his death, which took place at Stirling, April 1124. He had married Sybylla, natural daughter of Henry I of England. With his father's courage and restless ambition, he seems to have inherited from his mother a devotional feeling and a taste for religious exercises, which were much less characteristic of his race. He inaugurated the feudal policy so thoroughly carried out by his successor, David.

Robertson, "Early Kings of Scotland"; Skene, "Celtic Scotland"; P. Hume Brown, "History of Scotland," vol. i, 1911; C. S. Terry, "History of Scotland," 1920.

Alexander II, King of Scotland (*s.* Dec. 5, 1214, *d.* 1249), was son and successor to William the Lion. The young king was on friendly terms with the English barons during their struggle with John, and entered in 1216 into an alliance with Louis of France. In 1217, however, he came to terms with the young Henry III, whose sister Joanna he married in June 1221. The next year Alexander entered Argyll, drove out all those who had been engaged in insurrections against the royal power, and turned the whole district into the sheriffdom of Argyll, creating also the bishopric of the same name. After a struggle of some years' duration he succeeded in 1235 in finally bringing Galloway into subjection to the Crown. The following year Alexander refused to do homage to the English king, and laid claim to the northern counties of England; but a peaceful solution was reached through the efforts of the papal legate Otho at York in 1237. In 1244 there was another rupture between the two kings over the alleged intention of Alexander to ally with the French king, and war was imminent; but it was averted by the mediation of Richard of Cornwall and the Archbishop of York, and a treaty was concluded at Newcastle. In 1248, Alexander, after trying to induce Haco, King of Norway, to surrender the sovereignty of the isles, made an expedition to the Sudreys. He died, however, before accomplishing his object, near Oban, July 8, 1249, and was buried at Melrose. He married, as his second wife, Mary, daughter of Ingelram de Coucy. He had been a good king, noted for his moderation and justice, bent on the improvement of his subjects and the consolidation of the various discordant elements in his kingdom.

See the "Scotichronicon," edited by Skene; Dalrymple, "Annals of Scotland"; Robertson, "Early Kings of Scotland"; Skene, "Celtic Scotland"; P. Hume Brown, "History of Scotland" vol. i, 1911; C. S. Terry, "History of Scotland," 1920.

Alexander III, King of Scotland (*b.* 1241, *s.* 1249, *d.* 1285), was the son of Alexander II and Mary de Coucy. In 1251, in accordance with the terms of the Treaty of Newcastle, he was married to his cousin Margaret, daughter of Henry III, although the English king's demand for homage was firmly refused. In 1255, Henry by the conquest of Kelso procured the appointment of the Earl of Dunbar, who was favourable to his interests, as regent in the place of the Earl of Menteith. In 1257, however, the Comyns recovered their power, and in 1261 the outbreak of the Barons' war in England freed Alexander from the fear of English intervention. In 1263 a war broke out between Alexander and Haco of Norway, for possession of the Sudreys and the Norse districts on the mainland, which ended in the victory of the Scots at Largs (q.v.), and the consequent annexation of the Isles to Scotland, 1266. Thus Alexander was able to complete the policy of his father. In 1274 Alexander and his queen were present at Edward I's coronation; and in 1278 the Scottish king did homage to his brother-in-law at Westminster, for lands held in England. On the death of his second son, Alexander, January 1284, the king, left childless, summoned a meeting of the Estates at Scone, and caused them to recognize his granddaughter, Margaret, the Maid of Norway, as their future sovereign. Shortly afterwards he married Yolande, daughter of the Count of Dreux, but died owing to a fall from his horse, near Kinghorn, in March 1285.

"Scotichronicon"; Robertson, "Early Kings of Scotland"; P. Hume Brown, "History of Scotland," vol. i, 1911; C. S. Terry, "History of Scotland," 1920.

Alexander, Bishop of Lincoln (*d.* 1148), was one of the family group of episcopal statesmen of Stephen's reign, of which Alexander's uncle, the justiciar, Roger, Bishop of Salisbury (q.v.), was the head. By his influence he was advanced to the see of Lincoln, in 1123, and probably also held some office in the royal court. In 1135, in spite of his oath to support Matilda, he gave his allegiance to Stephen; but in 1139 the king, becoming suspicious of the loyalty of the Salisbury group, arrested Alexander and his two kinsmen, Roger of Salisbury, and Nigel of Ely, at Oxford. In 1141, after the battle of Lincoln, he took part in the reception of the Empress Matilda at Winchester. It is probable that he re-crowned Stephen at Lincoln in 1146. Henry of Huntingdon dedicated his history to Alexander, and speaks of him in terms of praise, but other sources throw a less favourable light upon his character. He began the erection of the present cathedral of Lincoln, to replace the former one, which was destroyed by fire.

Henry of Huntingdon, "Historia."

Alexandra, Queen (1844–1925), the eldest daughter of Christian IX, King of Denmark, was born on December 1, 1844, and married to Albert Edward, Prince of Wales, on March 10, 1863. Queen consort from 1901 to May 1910, when Edward VII died. In public life the queen always evinced a strong interest in the welfare of the masses, being particularly associated with hospital charities. She died on November 20, 1925.

Biographies by D. Williamson, 1926, S. A. Pooley, 1902, W. R. Trowbridge, 1921.

Alexandria, Battle of (March 21, 1801), was fought by the British force under Sir Ralph Abercromby, which had been sent out to complete the destruction of the diminished remnant of Bonaparte's army after he had effected a landing in Aboukir Bay, in the face of a large French force, on March 1. During the next three weeks the French gradually fell back before the British, till they retired into Alexandria. Abercromby now stationed himself to the east of Alexandria, with his right resting on some Roman ruins on the sea-shore, and his left on the Lake Maÿadieh. Early on March 21, the French infantry attacked simultaneously both flanks, though the serious attack was on the right, where all the French cavalry were launched upon the English. The attack was resisted by Moore's division with stubborn bravery, until Abercromby ordered the reserve to charge. It obeyed, threw the French into confusion, and hurled them back to their own lines. Meanwhile the attack on the left had proved to be merely a feint, and a real attack on the centre had been repulsed by the Guards. The British loss was heavy, and Sir Ralph Abercromby fell. Deprived of its general, the army was handled with an excess of caution. The French finally capitulated.

A. T. Mahan, "Influence of Sea Power on the French Revolution," 1892.

Alexandria, Bombardment of (1882). In July 1882, owing to the disturbed state of Egypt, where the so-called "National Party," under Arabi Pasha, had obtained complete control of the government, a British and French fleet was ordered to enter the harbour of Alexandria. On June 11 a fanatical outbreak occurred, and several hundreds of Europeans were killed or injured. The British admiral, Sir Beauchamp Seymour, ordered the fortresses around the harbour to be dismantled, and on refusal to comply he cleared the harbour of foreign vessels and reduced the forts by bombardment on July 11.

"Annual Register," 1882.

Alexandria, Convention of (August 6, 1828), was signed between Admiral Sir Edward Codrington and Mehemet Ali, Turkish viceroy of Egypt, for the evacuation of the Morea by the troops of Ibrahim Pasha. It greatly facilitated the pacification of Greece.

Lady Bourchier, "Memoir of Sir E. Codrington," 2 vols., 1874.

Alford, Battle of (May 1645), was a skirmish fought in Aberdeenshire between Montrose, at the head of the Cavaliers, and the Covenanters under Hurry and Baillie. The latter were defeated.

Alfred (848–99), called in his own times Ælfred Æthelwulfing, in later, Alfred the Great; King of the West-Saxons between 871 and 899, was born at Wantage in Berkshire. Asser gives the date of his birth as 849, but there is some reason for placing it a year earlier. He was the youngest son of King Ethelwulf and his wife, the Lady Osburh, and the grandson of Ecgbert, and of Oslac, the *pincerna*, or cup-bearer, of Ethelwulf.

We know little of Alfred's early life. In 853, says the Chronicle, his father sent him to Rome, when Leo IV was pope; and the pope there hallowed him king, and took him as bishop's son—a statement which probably refers to his investiture by the pope with the titular dignity of consul. In 855 he is said to have revisited the Eternal City as his father's companion. The incident of the winning of the book of Saxon poems should probably be placed between these two pilgrimages, since Osburh is known to have died not later than 855. The authenticity of the familiar story of the way in which Alfred's life-long love of letters was first kindled has been frequently impugned on the ground that Asser elsewhere describes him as remaining "illiteratus" until his twelfth year; but Alfred may well have acquired, either by reading or by learning by heart, a knowledge of vernacular literature before he turned to the study of Latin. He married, in 868, Ealswith, daughter of Ethelred Mucill, ealdorman of the Gaini, a lady of whom singularly little is known. If Asser is to be believed, it was during the wedding festivities that Alfred was seized with the mysterious malady which troubled him to the end of his life, and which was probably some form of the stone.

In 858 Ethelwulf died, and his three elder sons followed him on the throne in rapid succession. With the accession of the third—Ethelred—in 866 Alfred's political career began. We find him early associated with his brother in the government under the title of "secundarius."

In 868 Alfred was called upon to face, for the first time, what proved to be the one mighty task of his life. The Danes had fallen upon the land of the Mercians. Burghred, the Mercian king, cried to his brother-in-law and overlord, Ethelred, king of the West-Saxons, for help. His cry was heard, and Alfred went with his brother to the siege of Nottingham, where the Danes were lying. Nottingham was won back, not by force, but by a treaty—which probably meant a bargain that gave the English a breathing-space, and the Danes a fair profit on their adventure.

Three years later (871) Alfred was sum-

moned to grapple with the work he was born to accomplish, in deadly earnest. After the peace of Nottingham the invaders had gone back to York, stayed there a year, and then (870) had marched southward, seized on Thetford, and defeated and slain Edmund, the East-Anglian king. Very early next year they burst into Wessex itself. "The destroying host" laid hold on Reading, secured their position there, and proceeded straightway to carry on from thence their work of plunder and havoc. Towards Reading the men of Wessex at once hastened, under the command of King Ethelred, of Alfred, and of Ethelwulf, the ealdorman; and a furious strife ensued, which lasted throughout the year. Fight followed fight in quick succession. Victorious under Ethelwulf at Englefield the West-Saxons were, a few days later, baffled at Reading, though led by their king and his brother in person; and after great slaughter had to fall back, leaving the field of carnage in the possession of their enemies. Foiled for the moment, but with courage still unshaken, the royal brothers, four days afterwards, closed with the whole army of the Danes at Ashdown. Here took place one of the most stubborn tugs of war in history. [Ashdown.] To Alfred the chief glory of the victory of the West-Saxons is given by Asser, who tells us that it was his early advance to the attack, while his brother lingered at Mass, that broke the strength of the enemy, and led to their utter discomfiture in the end. Yet this splendid success was indecisive. In an engagement at Basing that followed a fortnight later, "the Danes got the victory" over the winners of Ashdown; and in two months more, at Marton (or Marden), the West-Saxons, after a stubborn conflict, had to withdraw from the field.

At Easter Ethelred died; and Alfred was made king. In another month he was again at handgrips with his dogged foes—this time at Wilton—and again suffered a check. The West-Saxon resistance seems, however, to have convinced the invaders that they might be more profitably employed elsewhere. They therefore came to terms with Alfred, and early next year withdrew from Wessex. After 871 the land had entire rest for four years, though other parts of England were smarting under the rapacity and ferocity of the merciless strangers. Some use of this respite the king must have made: he is recorded as having, in 875, attacked and put to flight seven Danish ships. During the next and following years (876–77) he was also strong enough to force a treaty upon a powerful force that had landed in Dorset, and exact oaths and hostages from them. He found it no easy matter to get rid altogether of the intruders; but in the autumn of 877 they at length sailed away from Exeter to the land of the Mercians. But this deliverance almost brought his kingdom to the brink of ruin. In the first week of 878 the Danish army under Guthrum (q.v.) stole up from Gloucester, and, coming upon the West-Saxons unawares, seized Chippenham. The surprise was complete; so sudden and so swift was the movement, that they had ridden over and taken to themselves the greater part of the kingdom before a sufficient force could be brought together to make head against them at any point. Many people fled beyond the sea; Alfred alone refused to despair; "uneasily, with a little band of warriors, he went along the woods, and into the moor-fastnesses." In one of these he at last halted, and began, with the faithful few that followed him, to throw up a defensive work—thrice-famous ever since as Athelney (q.v.), the Isle of Princes, called so, no doubt, from the trusty handful of high-born men that plied the mattock around the king. It covers a few acres a little south of Sedgemoor, in Somerset. To its narrow compass the last English kingdom had shrunk.

But it was a brief agony, after all. The Danes would seem to have been drawing their toils round Athelney; they threw a considerable detachment on the neighbouring coast, which was beaten with great loss, and Alfred was untiring in his assaults upon them from his stronghold. The country recovered from its surprise, and, some weeks after Easter, Alfred quitted Athelney, and met the levies of the three shires on the eastern skirts of Selwood Forest. With these he went straight upon the enemy, met them at Ethandun (q.v.) (probably Edington in Wiltshire), overthrew their host, and chased its wrecks into their fortress. A siege of fourteen days ended in the Danes engaging to withdraw from Wessex, and their king, Guthrum, consenting to become a Christian. These pledges were punctually kept. At Aller the baptismal ceremonies were begun; at Wedmore they were completed; and soon after, the army of the invaders marched away from Chippenham. Thus was Wessex snatched from destruction, and, with Wessex, the destiny of the English race. The Treaty of Chippenham seems to have left Alfred master of England south and west of Watling Street. In 886 a further unsuccessful Danish attack terminated in the treaty known as "Alfred and Guthrum's Peace," which fixed the southern boundary of the Danelagh and gave Alfred London and its environs.

The years following may be called a time of peace for Alfred and his people. To this period almost certainly belong the great measures that make the second half of England's debt to Alfred—the effacement of the ravages of war, the restoration of material prosperity, the reinvigoration of the national defences, the improvement of the laws, the rekindling of religion, the "relighting of the lamp of learning." The first two of the above objects he tried to effect by repairing the damage done to towns and cities, raising

public buildings, reclaiming waste lands, and making or renewing roads and bridges. Our knowledge of the third is vague; but we know that he reorganized the *fyrd* or national militia, systematized the defences of the country and built many new *burhs* or fortified centres; encouraged the growth of the thegn-class to provide himself with horsemen; and, above all, developed and reformed the naval system so that he might meet the Danes upon their own element. As a legislator, he added nothing to existing laws, but simply revised those of his predecessors, keeping "those that seemed to him good," rejecting "those that seemed to him not good," and combining the former into a single code. Religion and letters had sunk so low among the West Saxons that he had to seek the agents of their regeneration in foreign lands. From Wales he drew Asser; from Mercia, Werfrith and Plegmund; Grimbald and John the Old Saxon from the continent. With their help he reanimated the services of the Church, founded schools and monasteries, and encouraged literary composition in the native tongue. At this last he was himself a diligent worker, as translations (that are not mere translations) of large portions of the writings of Boethius, Orosius, Bæda, and Gregory the Great still survive to prove. Men in later times loved to dwell on this feature of his career; in a mediæval list of West Saxon kings, his name is specially distinguished as "litteratus."

But in 893 the dogs of war were again let slip on his kingdom, and the old hideous scenes of pillage, slaughter, and havoc were renewed. The chief leader of these fresh swarms of marauders was the terrible Hasting. For four years he dragged Alfred up and down, across and along, the country, making treaties and breaking them, getting again and again beaten, both by land and by sea, but recovering himself after every defeat, and refusing to be driven from the land. The value of the king's military reforms was thus effectually tested; and they may be said to have fairly stood the strain. In every recorded encounter—as at Farnham, Benfleet, Buttington—the West Saxons overthrew their foes. The upshot at length was that the Danes, beaten, out-generalled, and checked at every turn, got weary of an unprofitable enterprise, broke up into several bands, and went off in different directions, leaving Wessex at peace. The heroic king's work was now done. He died "six nights before Allhallowmas," probably in the year 899.

Alfred is one of the few historical characters that all writers delight to honour; almost with one consent historians have pronounced that he comes pretty nearly as close to perfection as a man and a king as any ruler of whom there is record. This verdict may be accepted as final; it is certainly not likely to be ever successfully impeached. To his goodness, nobility of character, moral greatness, heroism, his whole life is a testimony. Alfred the Good and Steadfast he assuredly was; and if it may be plausibly hinted that he was a little lacking in the sagacity, originality, forecast, and efficient provision for the future, without which no human greatness is complete, it may yet be pleaded that such a rare combination of moral and intellectual excellence amply justified the writers of the seventeenth century in styling him ALFRED THE GREAT.

Asser's "Life of Alfred," ed. W. H. Stevenson, 1904; E. Conybeare, "Alfred in the Chronicles," 1914; J. Earle, "The Alfred Jewel," 1901; biographies by C. Plummer, 1902, and B. A. Lees, 1915.

[J. R.] [H. M. C.]

Alfred (ÆLFRED) **the Etheling** (*d.* 1036), was the younger son of Ethelred II and Emma. On the death of his father he fled to Normandy, where, together with his brother Edward (the Confessor), he seems to have remained till the reign of Harold, 1036, when, either alone or accompanied by Edward, he made an expedition to England for the purpose of obtaining the crown. He was entrapped, together with his Norman followers, by means of an ambuscade near Guildford, and conveyed to the monastery of Ely; by the orders of Harold, he was either blinded and died of the pain, or was actually murdered. The question whether Godwin had any share in this is a vexed one, but it is certain that he was at the time suspected of being an accomplice. The story that Emma was privy to the treachery and violence which brought about the end of Alfred, in order that the crown might be assured to his half-brother Hardicanute (q.v.), is unworthy of credence.

"Vita Edwardi Confessoris" in "Lives of Edward the Confessor," ed. Luard, Rolls Series; "Encomium Emmæ," "Monumenta Germaniæ Historica," xix; "Anglo-Saxon Chronicle"; Freeman, "Norman Conquest"; and the article in the "Dictionary of National Biography."

Algar (ÆLFGAR) (*d.* 1062 ?) was the son of Earl Leofric, and the father of Edwin and Morkere. We first hear of him in 1051, when, on the triumph of the Norman party and outlawry of Harold, he received the earldom of East-Anglia. On Harold's return in the next year, Algar appears to have quietly resigned it to him, to resume it again in 1053, on the translation of Harold to Wessex. In 1055 Algar was banished. The reason for this treatment is doubtful; but he soon showed his unscrupulous and treacherous disposition by allying with Gruffyd of Wales, and ravaging Herefordshire. Harold was sent against them, and peace was quickly made, one of the conditions being that Algar should be restored to his earldom. In 1057, on his father's death, he succeeded to the earldom of Mercia. Outlawed again in 1058, he was again restored with the help of his former allies to his earldom, and seems

to have spent the latter years of his life in peace and good works. [HAROLD.]

E. A. Freeman, "Norman Conquest," ii, 161, etc., 1867–71.

Algeciras Conference, THE (1906), resulted from the policy pursued by the Kaiser Wilhelm II in reply to the Anglo-French Entente (q.v.) of 1904. One reply was the secret meeting with the Tsar Nicholas at Björkö in 1905. The other was the Kaiser's speech at Tangier in March 1905, in which the independence of Morocco was taken under the protection of Germany. It was followed by a demand for an international conference and for the dismissal of the French foreign minister, Delcassé, whom the Kaiser declared to be anti-German. France, unready for war, complied with the latter demand in June and set on foot preparations for a conference. The conference met at Algeciras in January 1906, attended by representatives of Germany, France, Great Britain, and ten other states, including Morocco. It provided a diplomatic rebuff for Germany in that the Anglo-French Entente was strengthened rather than weakened by it; though there was no official foundation for Delcassé's assertion that the British government had offered to land 100,000 men in Schleswig-Holstein to support France if war should break out.

A. Tardieu, "La Conférence d'Algésiras," 1909.

Algiers, BOMBARDMENT OF (1816), was conducted by the British fleet in consequence of the ravages made by the Algerine pirates on the commerce and coasts of the Mediterranean. The work was entrusted to Lord Exmouth, who at first attempted by negotiations to unite the states of Barbary in an effort to suppress the pirates. In May 1816, while Exmouth was absent in England, pending the result of his negotiations, 2,000 Algerine troops attacked the Italian coral-fishers, who were attending Mass under the protection of the British flag. Exmouth at once set sail, received a reinforcement from the Dutch admiral, Capellen, who desired to be allowed to join in the siege, and on August 27 the fleet reached Algiers. The dey's refusal to accept Exmouth's ultimatum led to a severe bombardment (lasting eight hours) by the British fleet. Next day Lord Exmouth renewed his ultimatum, which was accepted.

"Dictionary of National Biography," art. *Exmouth.*

Alien Priories. [MONASTICISM.]

Alienation of Land. [LAND TENURE.]

Aliens. By our Common Law, nationality depends on the place of birth. Everyone born in a land not subject to the sovereign of this country was an alien. Jews also, though born in this kingdom, were regarded in the same light. [JEWS.] This doctrine has been modified by statute. By 25 Ed. III, st. 2, all, whose father and mother at the time of their birth were in allegiance [ALLEGIANCE], were so far to be held natural-born subjects as to be capable of inheritance. And it was held that the nationality of the mother mattered not, if her husband was a British subject. Aliens could become subjects by denization, which conferred a kind of middle state between a natural-born subject and an alien. This position was sometimes obtained (*temp.* Hen. VIII) by act of parliament, but as a rule by letters patent. Naturalization was obtained only through parliament until the reign of Queen Victoria. All children born in Scotland after the accession of James I to the throne of England (*post-nati*) were held, by the decision in Calvin's case, to be natural-born subjects of England. [POST-NATI.] In the same reign it was determined (7 Jas. I, c. 2) that no alien should be naturalized until he had taken the oaths of supremacy and allegiance, and conformed to the sacramental test. From a desire to strengthen the Protestant interest, an act was passed (7 Anne, c. 5) naturalizing all Protestant residents on their taking the oaths, etc., and declaring the children of all naturalized British subjects to be natural-born. This statute was repealed, as regards its earlier provision, shortly afterwards. Seven years' residence in the American colonies was made (13 Geo. II, c. 7) to confer naturalization on a Protestant alien. During the war consequent on the French Revolution, various statutes were passed, as 33 Geo. III, c. 4, placing aliens under supervision, and giving the secretary of state power to remove them, if suspected, out of the kingdom. The demand of the First Consul, in 1802, for the expulsion of the French emigrants was one of the causes which led to a renewal of the war. The 7 and 8 Vict., c. 66, allowed naturalization to be conferred by the certificate of a secretary of state. By the Naturalization Act (33 and 34 Vict., c. 14), a woman, who has become an alien by foreign marriage, may, after her husband's death, be readmitted to nationality; in this case her children, though born of her alien husband, will also gain the position of British subjects. By naturalization in a foreign state, British subjects are allowed to become aliens. This act also provides for the grant of certificates of naturalization to aliens who have resided within the kingdom, or served the Crown, for five years, and for the grant of a limited nationality by the legislature of British colonies within their own borders. Aliens have been regarded with jealousy both for political and commercial reasons. During the fourteenth century they were often made the subjects of special taxation: By the Great Charter, art. 41, alien merchants were allowed to trade freely. The privileges of the mercantile statutes of Edward I were extended to them. The king favoured them

because they granted him customs. Parliament, however, interfered with these grants in 1303, and at other times. [Customs.] English merchants were jealous of these foreign competitors. In 18 Edward I the citizens of London petitioned that they might be banished. This was refused. Vexatious restrictions were laid upon alien merchants in the reign of Richard III, and were increased by 32 Hen. VIII, c. 16. Aliens are subject to, and under the protection of, the criminal law. By express provision, they also are subject to, and have the advantages of, the Bankruptcy Acts. Aliens by the Common Law lay under great disabilities. An alien could not take or transmit land by descent. He could not hold land either for his own benefit or in trust. Until 8 Hen. V, c. 16, the alien wife of an English subject could not demand her dower. Aliens might, however, hold benefices, for the Church was Catholic. An alien could not have an action for land in his own name, but he might have an action for personal property. His witness was received, but he could not serve on a jury, except on one partly composed of aliens for the trial of aliens (*de medietate linguæ*). These disabilities have to a great extent been removed by statute. By 33 and 34 Vict., c. 14, an alien may acquire by inheritance or purchase. He may hold any kind of property in this kingdom, except a share in a British ship; and title to land may be derived from or through an alien. This act, however, does not confer any right to hold property in land outside the United Kingdom, and provides that no property shall confer on an alien a qualification for franchise or public office. An Aliens Act was passed in 1905 to check the immigration of undesirable aliens. It came into operation on January 1, 1906. It was followed in 1914 by the British Nationality and Status of Aliens Act (amended in 1918 and 1922), one clause of which abolished the legal distinction between natural-born and naturalized subjects.

Hansard, "On Aliens." [W. H.]

Aligarh, Capture of (August 29, 1803), occurred in General Lake's campaign against the Mahrattas. Aligarh, the great military arsenal of the French army of Dowlat Rao Sindhia, in Hindustan, was very strongly fortified. General Lake, however, was determined to take it, and it was captured by the irresistible gallantry of the 76th Highlanders, commanded by Major Macleod.

Ali Morad was one of the amirs of Upper Sind in 1842. His intrigues hastened Napier's proceedings in Upper Sind in 1842, and although he obtained the office of rais, Ali Morad was banished after the revolt of 1843. [Sind.]

Aliwal, Battle of (January 28, 1846), was fought during the first Sikh war. It was a victory for the British under General Sir Harry Smith, who defeated Ranjur Singh and captured sixty-seven guns.

Cunningham, "Sikhs."

Alkmaar, Capture of (October 2, 1799), was effected during the expedition of the Duke of York to Holland. On September 19 an unsuccessful attack had been made by the allied troops. Soon afterwards the Duke of York was strongly reinforced, and on October 2, with 30,000 men, he was ready to attack the equal forces of the French, under the command of Brune, whose position was centred at Alkmaar. The town was captured after a day's fighting begun by the Russians, who were reinforced by Sir Ralph Abercromby later in the day. The combined attack rolled up the French left flank with decisive results.

All the Talents, Ministry of (1806–7), was the name given to the Grenville administration which was called into existence on the death of William Pitt. An attempt was made to include in the new government representatives of all the three parties—the Tories, the moderate Whigs, and the extreme Whigs whose sympathies had all along been with France. Lord Grenville became prime minister; Fox, foreign secretary; Erskine, lord chancellor; Lord Fitzwilliam, president of the council; Lord Sidmouth, lord privy seal; Windham, minister of war; and Lord Spencer, home secretary. Lord Ellenborough, the lord chief justice, was also, by a somewhat startling innovation, admitted into the cabinet. In spite, however, of this singularly imposing array of talent, the cabinet was composed of elements much too discordant to admit of any permanent harmony; and Fox's early death (September 13) removed the commanding mind which alone could possibly have held together men of such different views. One great measure was passed, which will always be associated with this ministry—viz., the abolition of the slave trade (March 25, 1807). Little else of permanent interest was effected. Foreign politics were of too vital importance to admit of any progress in domestic reform; and Fox himself devoted all his ability to negotiating a peace with France, and too late learned to gauge the restless ambition of Napoleon, with the result that he was convinced that his long-cherished hope of peace was in vain. In March 1807 the ministry, which had been greatly weakened by the disaffection of some of its members, resigned office, on being required by the king not only to drop the Catholic Relief Bill which they had brought in, but also to pledge themselves never to introduce any such measure in the future. They were succeeded by the administration in which the Duke of Portland was prime minister. [Fox, C. J.; Grenville; Windham.]

Russell, "Life of Fox"; Pellew, "Life of Sidmouth," 1835. [W. R. S.]

Allahabad, the capital of the North-West Provinces of India, was one of the strong towns of the old Mogul dynasty. At the break-up of the Mogul empire it fell under the yoke of the Vizir of Oudh, by whom it was ceded to the company in 1765, and handed over to the dethroned Mogul emperor, Shah Allum. In 1773 it was, however, handed to the Nawab of Oudh, by whom it was ceded back to the British in 1801. The town contains the remains of a magnificent palace of the Emperor Akbar.

Allectus (*d.* 296) was one of the officers of Carausius, whom he murdered in 293. Allectus then usurped the power in Britain, and governed the province in a very tyrannical manner till 296, when Constantius Chlorus invaded the country, and completely defeated the usurper, who was slain in the battle.

Sir C. Oman, "England Before the Norman Conquest."

Allegiance (Lat. *alligo*, through Low Lat. *ligancia*, and Norm.-French *ligeance*), means the tie which binds each man of a nation to its head in return for the protection allowed him. The idea of allegiance existed in England at an early date. The duties of the king towards the subject were expressed in the promise of Ethelred to govern righteously; those of the subject towards the king in the treason-law of Alfred, and in the laws of his son Edmund (about 943) we have the first recorded oath of allegiance. "All shall swear, in the name of the Lord, fealty to King Edmund as a man ought to be faithful to his lord, without any controversy or quarrel in open or in secret, in loving what he shall love, and not willing what he shall not will." It was to counteract the disruptive tendencies of feudalism, and to assert the royal power, that William I, at the Council of Salisbury, A.D. 1086, caused "all his witan and all the land-owners of substance, whose vassals soever they were," to swear an oath of allegiance to him, which in form was a modification of that of Edmund; and there is a clause directing every free man to take the oath in the so-called Laws of William. Nevertheless, from that date, inasmuch as ownership of land was the sign of the relations between ruler and subject, and all land was held of the king, the idea of allegiance became, as far as he was concerned, identified with those of fealty and homage, though the two last concerned in reality owners of land in the connexion of vassal and lord, and had no necessary connexion with kingship. This change is to be found in the oath of allegiance to Edward I, which was imposed on all over the age of fourteen. With the growth of the idea of loyalty and legitimacy under the Lancastrian and Yorkist kings, the theory became prominent among legal writers. Meanwhile another idea had been growing up—that of the oath of office; it was asserted in the reign of Henry III by the Provisions of Oxford, and probably existed even earlier in the case of sheriffs, and the king's councillors, and in the reign of Edward II the Despensers were banished by parliament for misapplication of allegiance. It was not, however, imposed by statute on all persons holding office until the reign of Queen Elizabeth, the promise then being "to be true and faithful to the king and his heirs, and truth and faith to bear of life and limb and terrene honour, and not to know or hear of any ill or damage intended him without defending him therefrom." This oath might be exacted when necessary from all persons over the age of twelve. James I also imposed a special oath on Roman Catholics, in which he bound them to disclose conspiracies against him, in spite of any excommunication by the pope, thus attacking his supposed deposing power. The oath of allegiance was imposed afresh after the Revolution by the Declaration of Right; but as the form enjoined by it differed from the form imposed by statute, it was determined, in 1689, to pass an act abolishing the old oaths, and determining by whom the new oaths should be taken. The form agreed upon was much the same as that at present in use, but a violent controversy arose as to the class of men who should be required to take it. It was unanimously agreed that it should for the future be applied to all who were admitted to civil, military, or academic offices; but it was felt that to make it retrospective would be to make large bodies of the clergy, who believed in the doctrine of the divine right of kings, resign their livings. On this point the House of Lords and William III were disposed to be merciful, and exempt the clergy from the oath; but the Commons refused to give way, and finally it was decided that all those who refused to take the oath by February 1690, should be deprived of office. The forms of the oaths of abjuration and supremacy were also settled at the same date. A single oath was, however, substituted for the three in 1858, and in the same year this was adapted to the use of Catholics and Jews. By the Promissory Oaths Act, 1868, the form of oath, that at present in use, was fixed as follows:—"I, A. B., do swear that I will be faithful and bear true allegiance to his majesty King George V, his heirs and successors, according to the law. So help me, God!" It is imposed on all officers of state, holders of appointments in the Supreme Court of Judicature, and justices of the peace, though in some cases a simple affirmation is allowed; but members of parliament, on whom the obligation to take the oath of allegiance was imposed in 1679, and again in 1714, now use a special form of oath provided by the Parliamentary Oaths Act of 1866. [OATHS.] [L. C. S.]

Alleluia Victory, The (429 ?), is the name given to a victory of the Britons over the Picts and Saxons. The story, as told by Bæda (who copies from Constantius, "Sanct. Germani Vita"), is that the Britons, being attacked by the combined forces of the Picts and Saxons, sought the aid of St. Germanus. The saint accordingly, after the celebration of Easter, placed himself at the head of the Britons, and drew up his troops in a valley encompassed by hills, in the way by which the enemy was expected. As soon as the foe appeared, Germanus, bearing in his hands the standard, instructed his men to repeat his words in a loud voice, and as the enemy advanced securely, thinking to take them by surprise, the men cried three times aloud, "Alleluia!" The enemy, struck with terror, fled in disorder. Thus the Britons gained a bloodless victory. The scene of this battle is conjecturally placed at Maes Garmon (the Field of Germanus ?) about a mile from Mold, in Flintshire.

Bæda, "Historia Ecclesiastica," i, chap. xx.

Allen, John (1476–1534), had been Archbishop Warham's agent at Rome, and was afterwards employed by Wolsey in visiting the smaller monasteries, with a view to their suppression. In 1528 he was made archbishop of Dublin and chancellor of Ireland. In these capacities he headed the opposition to the Earl of Kildare. In 1534 he was seized by Kildare's orders, and brutally murdered.

R. Bagwell, "Ireland Under the Tudors," 1885–90.

Allen, Cardinal William (1532–94), was at one time principal of St. Mary's Hall, Oxford, and Canon of York during the reign of Mary. In 1568 he established a seminary at Douai, in order to train priests for the conversion of England; and later he founded another at Rome. In 1578 the students were expelled from Douai, and took refuge at Rheims under the protection of the Guises. Becoming closely connected with the Jesuits, Allen entered into various schemes for the subversion of Elizabeth's throne, and advocated a Spanish invasion of England. In 1580, by his aid, a number of Jesuits were dispatched to prepare the English people for rebellion; and it was arranged that, in the event of a Spanish conquest of England, Allen should be made Archbishop of Canterbury, chancellor, and papal legate. In 1587 he was made a cardinal by the pope, in acknowledgment of his services to the Roman Catholic cause, and received a rich abbey from the King of Spain. In 1588 he published at Antwerp, as a prelude to the launching of the Armada, a violent and scurrilous pamphlet against Queen Elizabeth, entitled "An Admonition to the Nobility and People of England" (q.v.), in the composition of which the Jesuit Parsons probably participated. Allen was nominated Archbishop of Malines in 1591, but the appointment was never confirmed, and the remainder of his life was passed at Rome.

Fitzherbert, "Epitome Vitæ Cardinalis Alani," Rome, 1608; Wood, "Athenæ Oxon.," vol. i; Strype, "Annales"; Camden, "Annales Rerum Angliæ"; Lingard, "History of England"; see also arts. in "Dictionary of National Biography" and "Catholic Encyclopædia."

Allenby, Edmund Henry Hynman, 1st Viscount (*b.* 1861), British field-marshal, saw active service in the Bechuanaland Expedition of 1884, and took part in the relief of Kimberley during the Boer War. He went out to France in 1914 in command of a cavalry regiment, became commander of the Third Army in 1915, in which capacity he played a leading rôle in the battle of Arras (q.v.). In June 1917 Allenby was appointed British commander in Egypt and Palestine, where he captured Jaffa (November 14) and Jerusalem (December 9), and pushed the Turks back beyond Damascus early in 1918. For his services he was created a field-marshal and a viscount. From 1919 to 1925 he was British high commissioner for Egypt.

Alliance, the Grand, the Holy, etc. [Grand Alliance; Holy Alliance, etc.]

Alma, Battle of the (September 20, 1854), fought during the Crimean War. After their landing at Eupatoria, the allies marched southwards along the coast. The army, led by Lord Raglan and Marshal St. Armand, consisted of 27,000 British, 22,000 French, and 5,000 Turks. Prince Menshikov, the Russian general, entrenched himself strongly on the heights which overlook the river Alma, about sixteen miles to the north of Sebastopol, with the river between him and the foe. The allies came up under a heavy fire, forced their way through the river, and struggled bravely up to the Russian entrenchments, which, after a slight momentary waver along the whole line, they carried at the point of the bayonet. The Russians retreated slowly, and the allies were too much fatigued and too weak in cavalry to be able to follow up the advantage they had gained.

A. W. Kinglake, "Invasion of the Crimea," 1863–87.

Almanza, Battle of (April 25, 1707), was one of the battles of the War of the Spanish Succession. Peterborough, who had been most successful, was superseded by Lord Galway, an experienced veteran, "who thought it much more honourable to fail according to rule than to succeed by innovation." On the plain of Almanza he encountered the French, under the Duke of Berwick. As Berwick was stronger than the allies in cavalry, it was rash in Galway to act on the offensive; but he wished to drive the French from Valencia. Berwick had drawn up his troops with his infantry and artillery in the centre, and his cavalry on the flanks. The British commander drew up his infantry in line close in the rear of his cavalry. Galway's attack on the French right was at first successful, and the

French centre was for a moment driven back. On the right of the allies the Portuguese cavalry, under the Marquis das Minas, as usual turned and fled; their infantry were cut to pieces. The British centre was assailed at once on the flank and in front, and thus completely routed, they were compelled to surrender. The victory was decisive and important. Valencia and Aragon were at once reconquered by the French.

H. M. A. Parnell, "War of the Spanish Succession," 1905.

Almenara, Battle of (July 27, 1710), resulted in a victory for the allied armies in Spain. The allied and Spanish armies were face to face near the village of Almenara. Stahremberg was still averse to an engagement; but the spirits of the British regiments had been roused by the sight of the enemy, and they murmured loudly at their forced inactivity. At length, two hours before nightfall, Stanhope obtained permission from the Archduke Charles to attack some Spanish regiments who had advanced in a spirit of bravado. He charged at the head of the cavalry. The king's troops at length gave way, and had a few hours of daylight remained it is probable that the whole army would have been destroyed. Philip hastily retired to the line of the Ebro.

H. M. A. Parnell, "War of the Spanish Succession," 1905.

Almoign, Frank. [Frankalmoin.]

Almon, John (1737–1805), after an adventurous career in early life, became acquainted with Churchill and Wilkes, and published a defence of Wilkes's "Essay on Woman." In 1763 he set up as bookseller and publisher. He published "The New Foundling Hospital for Wit," a collection of party squibs, and "The Parliamentary Register," an account of the debates in parliament. In 1805 he published "The Correspondence of the late John Wilkes with his Friends."

Almora, Capture of (April 25, 1815), took place in the Gurkha War. It was effected by Colonel Gardner, aided by 2,000 troops under Colonel Nicolls. As a result the province and forts of Kumaon were surrendered to the British. [Gurkha War.]

Alnwick, Northumberland, in 1093 was attacked by Malcolm Canmore, of Scotland, who was slain before its walls. In 1135 it was taken by David I. In 1174 it was besieged by William the Lion, who was captured by surprise outside the walls. In 1215 Alnwick was destroyed by John. In 1309 it passed into the hands of the Percys. In Northumberland's rebellion in 1403, the castle was temporarily seized by the king; and about the middle of the fifteenth century it was burnt by the Scots. During the rebellion of the Northern lords, in 1569, it was fortified by the Earl of Northumberland for the insurgents. *Alnwick Priory* was a house of Premonstratensian canons, founded by Eustace FitzJohn, and richly endowed by the de Vescys and the Percys.

Tate, "History of Alnwick"; Victoria County History, "Northumberland."

Alphege (Aelfheah), St. (954–1012), Archbishop of Canterbury (1006–1012), was of noble birth, and early in life became a monk. He is said to have been Abbot of Bath, and was certainly advanced to the bishopric of Winchester in 984. In 1006 he was made Archbishop of Canterbury. On the capture of Canterbury by the Danes in 1011, Alphege was taken and was held a prisoner for seven months, in the expectation that he would ransom himself with some of the treasure of his see. On his refusal to pay at the appointed time his captors pelted him with stones, logs of wood, and the bones and skulls of oxen, till one Thrum, whom Alphege is said to have converted, clave his head with a battle-axe. He was considered a martyr by the English, and Anselm contended that he had a right to the title; because he died refusing to plunder his people in order to ransom himself. The English Church celebrates St. Alphege on April 19. The place of his martyrdom was Greenwich.

"Anglo-Saxon Chronicle"; Osbern, "Vita S. Elphegi," in Wharton, "Anglia Sacra," ii, 122 seq.

Alresford, Fight at (March 27, 1644), was between the Royalists, under the Earl of Brentford and Sir Ralph Hopton, and the Parliamentary forces under Sir William Waller. The latter were victorious, though the severe losses they sustained prevented Waller from taking advantage of his victory.

Alyth. [Estates, Committee of.]

Ambassadors. Different ranks and titles exist among the diplomatic representatives of states. Ambassadors hold the first place. Next below them are envoys and ministers plenipotentiary. In the third rank are residents and chargés d'affaires. The distinction between these classes is one of dignity, and depends on the nature of their commission, or the fullness of the representative character with which the agent is invested by his court. This representative character exists in perfection in the office of an ambassador. There is, however, no distinction between these agents as to their rights and privileges. From the time when England, by the conversion of its people, became part of European Christendom, its sovereigns have from time to time sent embassies to other lands, and received the representatives of their rulers. While, however, the mediæval system continued, and Christendom was regarded as one body politic under the emperor and the pope, the mission of ambassadors was occasional, and unregulated by law. As the mediæval polity gave place to a system of independent states, the matter of ambassadors received the attention of jurists. Ambassadors were at first sent

only on special occasions. Long residence was regarded with jealousy by the state which received the embassy, e.g., Coke praises Henry VII because he was too prudent to allow ambassadors to reside within his realm. This feeling died out in the seventeenth century. After the Peace of Westphalia, 1648, resident ambassadors were generally employed by most of the nations of the civilized world. Ambassadors may therefore be classed as either ordinary, resident, or extraordinary. Every sovereign state has a right to send and receive ambassadors, unless it has renounced that right. Mazarin, in 1659, received the ambassadors of Oliver Cromwell at the Congress of the Pyrenees, and rejected those sent by Charles II. A prince who has lost his sovereignty cannot claim to be represented by an ambassador; and so far at least the civilians of Elizabeth were right when, in 1567, they refused to recognize the Bishop of Ross, the agent of the Queen of Scots, as an ambassador. The right of rebels to embassy must be decided by circumstances. To avoid difficulty, a foreign country in such cases sometimes receives from an insurgent state agents invested with the immunities, but not with the representative character of ambassadors. The right to do this was asserted by Lord Russell, in 1861, in the *Trent* affair. A state cannot reasonably refuse to receive an embassy, though it may make an objection to receive any particular ambassador. In 1625, Louis XIII, not without reason, refused to receive the Duke of Buckingham as ambassador of Charles I. The right of inviolability attaches to all ministers representing their sovereign or their state, not only in the country to which a representative is sent, but in any other through which he may have to pass. In 1587, Aubespine, the French ambassador, was found to have been privy to a plot against the life of the queen. Burghley, however, did not bring him to trial because of his right as an ambassador. The inviolability of an ambassador extends to his suite. It is doubtful, however, whether in this case it is equally full in respect of gross crimes. For, in 1654, Dom Pantaleon Sa, brother of the Portuguese ambassador, was executed in London for murder. He pleaded that he was accredited as an ambassador, but could show no credentials. Had he been able to prove that he was a representative of his sovereign, he might have escaped. Certain privileges of ambassadors are established by custom. An ambassador is exempt from civil jurisdiction, unless, indeed, he so far forget his character as to engage in trade. In consequence of this exemption having been violated in 1708, in the case of an ambassador of the Tsar, it has been enforced by our municipal law, 7 Anne, c. 12. An ambassador is also exempt from taxation, and enjoys other like immunities. Akin to these was the privilege of asylum attaching to his house, which is now generally renounced. An ambassador receives *instructions* from his own government, and carries with him *credentials* to the government to which he is sent. He also carries the *full power*, which is his authority for negotiation. After he has delivered his *letters of credence* to the minister of foreign affairs, he has a right to an *audience* of the sovereign to whom he is accredited. The death of either of the sovereigns between whom he negotiates ends his embassy. He may, however, be re-accredited; and if this is likely to be the case, his embassy is held to be suspended, and relations are continued in the expectation of confirmation.

[AMBASSADORS, CONFERENCE OF, is the name given to reunions of ambassadors in certain centres, as, for example, that which sat at Paris from 1815 to 1822 and watched over the execution of the Vienna treaties. A similar conference was in existence after 1920, which met weekly at Paris to discuss the execution of the Treaty of Versailles. This conference comprised the ambassadors at Paris of Great Britain, Italy, Japan, and the United States, and the French foreign minister. Its importance declined as the Council of the League of Nations developed.]

Grotius, "De Legationum jure," ed. Wheaton; Vattel, "Droit des Gens," bk. iv; Wheaton, "International Law"; Phillimore, "International Law," vol. ii; A. J. Grant, etc., "Introduction to Study of International Relations," 1916; Sir E. Satow, "Guide to Diplomatic Practice," 1918 and 1922.

Amboyna, one of the Molucca Islands, was captured by the Dutch, from the Portuguese, in 1607. The English, after having been expelled from Amboyna by the Dutch, obtained in 1619 the right of trading there. The treaty was badly kept on both sides; and in February 1623 the Dutch tortured to death several of the English factors, under pretence that they had intrigued with the natives. In 1654, after the war with Holland, the Dutch agreed to pay a sum of £300,000 to the descendants of the victims as compensation for the massacre. Amboyna has since this been twice captured by the British—in 1795, and again in 1810—but on both occasions subsequent treaties of peace restored it to Holland.

Ambrosius Aurelianus appears to have successfully rallied the Britons of the west in the latter half of the fifth century, against the English invaders. He seems to have been the representative of the Roman party in Britain. According to Gildas, he was "a modest man, who, of all the Roman nation, was then alone in the confusion of this troublous time left alive. His parents, who for their merit were adorned with the purple, had been slain in these same broils." Nothing certain is known, however, of his career, nor of his connexion with the great legendary hero of the period—Arthur—with whom he has sometimes been identified. As a result of the stand he made the English attack went to pieces, and until the latter half of the sixth century no notable advance was made by the invaders.

American Colonies, The, were for the most part founded in the seventeenth century. The North American continent was first discovered in 1497 by John Cabot, to whom a patent was granted by King Henry VII; but the first attempts at exploration were made by the Spaniards in 1512 and onwards, on the coast of Florida. The French under Ribaut and Laudonnière from 1562 attempted to settle there, but were ejected by the Spanish, who founded the permanent settlement of St. Augustine in 1567, only ceded in 1763. The French also, soon after 1535, began to make settlement in the north, over Canada, Cape Breton, and Nova Scotia, then called Acadia. Nova Scotia was seized by Great Britain in the War of the Spanish Succession (1701–13), and Canada in the Seven Years' War (1757–63). [Canada.] The first abortive attempt at English colonization was made in Newfoundland (1578) by Sir Martin Frobisher; then followed two by Sir Humphrey Gilbert (1578 and 1583), and a number of attempts from 1584 to 1603 by Sir Walter Ralegh, the first of which, in what is now North Carolina, was for a little while successful. At length, in 1607, the London company dispatched an expedition which effected the first permanent English settlement in North America on the James River in Virginia.

The thirteen colonies which afterwards formed the United States are usually divided into three groups—those of Virginia, New York, and New England.

(1) The Virginia group. *Virginia*, a name given by Ralegh to one of his unsuccessful attempts at colonization in honour of Queen Elizabeth, at first had a very struggling existence. Spanish antagonism, the rigour of the climate, together with the ignorance and the demands of the company's financiers, combined to hinder the progress of the colony, but after "the Starving Time," fresh immigrants and the cultivation of tobacco as a staple product brought prosperity. In 1619, the Virginian House of Burgesses assembled for the first time, but in 1624 James I dissolved the London company, and Virginia became a Crown colony. Indian massacres occurred in 1619, 1628, and 1644, but after the death of Opechancanough in 1646 followed thirty years of peace. Under the Commonwealth Virginia was practically independent in spite of its surrender to the Parliamentary commissioners in 1652. With the Restoration, Charles II restricted the commerce of the colony by Navigation Acts, while the assembly, which was extremely Royalist, persecuted Nonconformists and limited the suffrage. Finally, in 1672, the whole of Virginia was handed over for thirty-one years to Lord Colepepper and Lord Arlington. From these causes sprang a rebellion, known from its leader as "Bacon's Rebellion," in 1675, which was crushed two years later by Sir George Berkeley. Lord Colepepper was made governor for life, and the position of the colonists during the remainder of the Stuart period was disastrous. After the Revolution, however, Virginia recovered her prosperity, and the separate history of the colony consists chiefly in a series of disputes between the governors and the assemblies. *Maryland*, named after Queen Henrietta Maria, was originally part of Virginia, but was made into a separate colony by charter in 1632, when it was granted by Charles I to a Catholic, Cæcilius, 2nd Lord Baltimore, under a charter which conceded equality to all Christian creeds, Its condition was one of great prosperity until the Civil War in England. Twice Baltimore's authority was overthrown, but in 1656 it was re-established by the Protector. Under William and Mary, the colony was annexed to the Crown, and Roman Catholicism became illegal; but in 1715 it was restored to the descendants of its founder, now become Protestants. *The Carolinas* were so called in the first instance by the French settlers in honour of Charles IX of France, and North Carolina was the scene of most of Ralegh's attempts at colonization, being then part of Virginia. The name was given to them afresh by Charles II, in whose reign the four scattered settlements there were granted by charter to eight proprietaries (1663), and a constitution known as the "Grand Model," prepared for it by Locke and Shaftesbury in 1667. It was, however, found unworkable; the colonists took matters into their own hands, divided themselves into two governments, began to import negro slaves and to treat the Indian tribes with great brutality. Finally, in 1729 the proprietors sold their rights to the Crown. *Georgia*, originally part of Carolina, was founded by Colonel James Oglethorpe, with some government assistance, as a refuge for insolvent debtors and persecuted Dissenters whom he rescued from English prisons. Its religious ideas were strongly influenced by the advent of some Moravian settlers, and by the visits of the two Wesleys and Whitefield. In 1739, threatened by the Spanish colony, Oglethorpe invaded Florida without success, and three years later had to repulse a counter-attack. Slavery was introduced into the colony about 1750, and two years later Georgia was annexed to the Crown.

(2) The New York group. Of these *New York* and *New Jersey* have a common history. Delaware Bay was discovered for the Dutch by Henry Hudson in 1609, and a settlement made at Albany in 1615. Soon New Amsterdam, at first a trading station of the Dutch West India Company, became a permanent town, and the island of Manhattan was bought from the Indians. After a struggle for existence with the English colonies, with the Indians, who nearly destroyed them, and with the Swedes, whose settlement, "New Sweden," was annexed in 1655, the state and city of New Amsterdam became very prosperous. In 1664, however, the country was granted by Charles II to

James, Duke of York, who assumed possession without difficulty; New Amsterdam became New York, and the district between the Hudson and Delaware New Jersey. For a short period the Dutch recovered it again, but it was finally ceded to England in 1674. James II united New York and New England under the governorship of Sir E. Andros, but at the Revolution he was driven out, and the connexion dissolved. The rights of the proprietors in New Jersey were bought in 1682 by the Quakers, who surrendered their sovereign rights to the Crown in 1702. *Pennsylvania*, a district originally occupied by the settlement of New Sweden, was purchased from Charles II by William Penn in 1681, when its capital, Philadelphia, was founded, and a treaty concluded with the Indian tribes, 1683. Soon afterwards a boundary dispute arose with Maryland, which terminated in the cession, in 1701, to Penn of the tract on the south of the Delaware, which was known as the Delaware Territory, and which was attached to Pennsylvania, though with a separate legislature, till 1776, when Delaware declared itself an independent state. After the English Revolution Penn's proprietary rights were confiscated.

(3) The New England group. This was so named by John Smith, who made one of the two early and unsuccessful attempts to found a settlement there. In 1620, however, some Puritan Nonconformists, known as the "Pilgrim Fathers," sailed from England in the *Mayflower*, and, landing in Plymouth Bay, effected a permanent occupation. Their relations with the Indians were on the whole friendly, and fresh settlements were made, viz., *New Hampshire* (1622), *Massachusetts* in 1628, *Rhode Island* by Roger Williams (1631), and *Connecticut* colonized from Massachusetts from 1633 and onwards. This last settlement involved the New Englanders in two Indian wars, which resulted in the defeat of the Pequod and Narragansett tribes. The northern colonies were subjected by Charles I to severe restrictions, but in 1643 formed a military alliance known as *The United Colonies of New England*. Massachusetts soon proved itself the most powerful of the four colonies, and in 1676 crushed the Indians in a great war called, after the chief of the Wampanoags, "King Philip's War." New England was severely oppressed after the Restoration by Andros and other governors; Massachusetts forfeited her charter in 1684, but with the Revolution better times came. In 1690 the Massachusetts government instigated a war for the conquest of Canada, which lasted with a long interval after the Peace of Utrecht (q.v.) down to the close of "King George's War," i.e., the War of the Austrian Succession.

Such was the origin of the thirteen American colonies, of which it may be said that the southern, where slave-labour was universal with the exception of Georgia, were in the main aristocratic, and the northern sectarian and democratic. Their constitutions varied considerably, but as a rule they consisted of a house of assembly elected by the burgesses, or freemen, reinforced frequently by nominees of the proprietaries, a council nominated, generally, by the governor, but in Massachusetts by the freemen, and a governor appointed in Crown colonies by the king and proprietors, in the others by the council.

Before the commencement of the Seven Years' War in Europe, a border warfare known as the "French and Indian War" broke out in America, during which occurred the occupation of the Ohio valley by the French, who built there Fort Duquesne (q.v.), and the defeat of General Braddock and George Washington when they advanced against it, 1755. War was not formally declared until 1756, when the newly-built Fort William Henry was taken by the enemy. Towards the end of the war, however, fortune changed, and the great success of Wolfe in Canada was anticipated by the capture of Fort Duquesne (subsequently renamed Pittsburg) in 1758 by General Forbes supported by Washington. After the Peace of Paris (1763), the Virginians defeated the Ottawas and their allies in the last great war waged by the colonists against the Indians.

It is impossible here to do more than just hint at the events which from that date tended to embitter the relations between the colonies and England. There were, in the first place, the *Navigation Laws* (q.v.), dating from 1651, which regulated colonial commerce in the interests of British shipping and industry. These laws were largely evaded by smuggling until Grenville in 1764 began to enforce them and by a *Revenue Act* laid heavy duties on various imports, including wines. The *Stamp Act* (q.v.) (1765), followed, which imposed duties ranging from ½d. to £10 on printed publications, but it was received with such outcry and riots all over America that it had to be repealed in the following year, while a *Declaratory Act* at the same time insisted on the dependence of the colonies on the king and parliament of Great Britain. This conciliatory policy did not continue long. In the same year the New York Assembly was suspended for refusing to supply stores to the royal troops in obedience to the *Quartering Act*, and Charles Townshend's fatal *Revenue Act*, imposing import duties on paper, glass, tea, and other articles followed in the next year. The Massachusetts Assembly was dissolved in 1768 for refusing to rescind a letter of protest, and there was a collision between the citizens of Boston and the British troops, known as the "Boston Massacre," in 1770. Lord North's *Tea Act* (1770), which removed the restrictions except that on tea, postponed war for awhile, but the rejection of Dunning's petition for the removal of Hutchinson from the governorship of Massachusetts by the British government was followed, in consequence of the burning of the tea ships in Boston harbour,

by the *Boston Port Act* (q.v.), the spark which set the incendiary forces of a century ablaze. [American Independence, War of; United States, Relations with.]

P. A. Bruce, "Economic History of Virginia in the Seventeenth Century," 2 vols., 1895; George Bancroft, "History of the United States," 6 vols., 1885; Alexander Brown, "The Genesis of the United States," 2 vols., 1890; and "The First Republic in America," 1898; J. A. Doyle, "The English in America," 5 vols., 1882–1907; A. B. Hart, "The American Nation," 27 vols., 1904–8; G. O. Trevelyan, "The American Revolution"; E. Channing, "History of the United States," 5 vols., 1919–21; H. L. Osgood, "The American Colonies in the 17th Century," 3 vols., 1904–7; C. M. Andrews, "The Colonial Period," 1912; C. H. Van Tyne, "The Causes of the War of Independence," 1922; J. T. Adams, "Revolutionary New England," 1691–1776, 1923, and "Founding of New England," 1921; C. M. Andrews, "Colonial Self-Government, 1652–89," 1905; J. Windsor, "Narrative and Critical History of America,"; J. F. Jameson (ed.), "Narratives of American History," 1882; J. T. Scharf, "History of Maryland," 1879; N. D. Mereness, "Maryland as a Proprietary Province," 1901; B. C. Steiner, "Maryland during the English Civil War," 2 vols., 1906–7; B. Trumball, "A Complete History of Connecticut from 1630 to 1740," 1804–18; E. E. Atwater, "History of the Colony of New Haven," 1881; L. B. Evans, "A Student's History of Georgia," 1898; C. Z. Lincoln, "The Constitutional History of New York," 5 vols., 1906; J. Fiske, "The Dutch and Quaker Colonies in America," 2 vols., 1900; E. P. Tanner, "The Province of New Jersey," 1908; G. Barstow, "History of New Hampshire from its Discovery, in 1614, to the Passage of the Toleration Act, in 1819," 1853; W. H. Fry, "New Hampshire as a Royal Province," 1908; J. G. Palfrey, "History of New England," 5 vols., 1858–90; B. B. James, "The Colonization of New England," 1904; W. B. Weeden, "The Economic and Social History of New England," 2 vols., 1890; H. M. Jenkins, "Pennsylvania, Colonial and Federal," 3 vols., 1903; S. G. Fisher, "Pennsylvania, Colony and Commonwealth," 1897; W. R. Shepherd, "History of Proprietary Government in Pennsylvania," 1896; W. Bradford, "History of Plimoth Plantation," 1898; J. Winthrop, "History of New England, 1630–49"; T. Hutchinson, "History of Massachusetts," 3 vols., 1874–98; G. E. Ellis, "Puritan Age and Rule in the Colony of the Massachusetts Bay, 1629–85," 1891; S. G. Arnold, "History of Rhode Island, 1636–1790," 2 vols., 1894; T. B. Richman, "Rhode Island, 1636–83," 2 vols., 1902; E. McCrady, "History of South Carolina under the Proprietary Government, 1670–1719," 1897; W. R. Smith, "South Carolina as a Royal Province, 1719–1776," 1903; S. A'Court Ashe, "History of North Carolina," 2 vols., 1908; R. W. Usher, "The Pilgrims and their History," 1918.

American Independence, Declaration of (July 4, 1776), was a manifesto issued by the representatives of the thirteen United Colonies assembled in congress, and signed by all of them but one. The original draft was the work of Thomas Jefferson of the State of Virginia, which had in the preceding May issued a Declaration of Rights, and the alterations made were only matters of detail. It began with an imaginary picture of "natural" society, and an assertion of the original rights of man. The inference it drew from the hypotheses was that man has a right to upset any form of government which violates these "natural" conditions. The declaration went on to enumerate "the repeated injuries and usurpations, all having in direct object the establishment of an absolute tyranny over these States." The last paragraph sums up the position which the colonies claimed to hold in the future: "We, therefore, the representatives of the United States of America, in general Congress assembled, appealing to the supreme Judge of the world for the rectitude of our intentions, do, in the name and by the authority of the good people of these colonies, solemnly publish and declare that these united colonies are, and of right ought to be, *free and independent States.*" Jefferson, in his indictment of George III, had inserted a paragraph charging him with waging "cruel war against human nature itself" by encouraging the slave-trade. This clause, however, was struck out, on account of the disapproval expressed by some of the Southern members; and thus congress committed itself to the inconsistency of asserting in one paragraph that all men are created equal, that they are endowed by their Creator with certain inalienable rights, that among these are life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness; while in the rest of the declaration it tacitly recognized, since it did not prohibit, the slave-trade. "The declaration," says Bancroft, "was not only the announcement of the birth of a people, but the establishment of a national government. The war was no longer a civil war; Britain was become to the United States a foreign country. Every former subject of the British king in the thirteen colonies now owed primary allegiance to the dynasty of the people, and became a citizen of the new Republic. Except in this, everything remained as before." In the history of political thought, the declaration has an important place. It embodied in a formal state-paper some of those theories on the equality of man, and the origin and character of human society, which were thrown into a popular shape by Rousseau. And the influence which this enunciation of the freedom and equality of all men exerted on the European peoples was immediate and profound, as well as lasting. The Americans largely owed their political theories to France; but the Declaration of Independence gave form and expression to the theories, and was thus a distinct step in the direction of that attempt to realize certain *a priori* political theories which formed one element in the French Revolution.

J. B. Scott (ed.), "Declaration of Independence, Articles of Confederation, and Constitution of the United States," 1917; C. Becker, "The Declaration of Independence," 1922. [S. L.]

American Independence, War of (1775–83). For some time before the spring of 1775 the relations between the colonies and the mother country were such that they were in a state of virtual hostility. Actual warfare began in April 1775, when the first blood was shed at Lexington, near Boston. Colonel Smith had been sent to destroy a magazine at that place, but was met by unexpected opposition. He succeeded only partially, and after a long and desultory skirmish retreated with considerable

loss. In the north, Fort Ticonderoga, on Lake Champlain, was surprised; and its garrison surrendered the fort and its copious stores. On May 10, the congress assembled for its second session at Philadelphia, and prepared for war by voting 15,000 men as the "continental" army. While it was still sitting, a British fleet appeared in Boston Roads, and its arrival was the signal for General Gage to declare martial law. On June 17 was fought the battle of Bunker Hill (q.v.), which had been occupied by the Americans, and was carried on the third assault by the British troops, with great loss of life. Washington arrived soon after the battle to take command, and found the difficulty of the situation increased by want of ammunition and the insubordination of the men. The British were masters of the sea, and held Boston and Charleston, but were surrounded by the blockading lines of Washington. After the battle, Penn carried to England the Olive Branch Petition, the last attempt at reconciliation on the part of America. In the meantime an expedition was sent to Canada, which proved a total failure, and sacrificed many valuable American lives. In Virginia, Lord Dunmore exasperated public opinion by his many cruelties, and by offering inducements to the slaves to join the British side. Howe evacuated his position in March, and while he sent Clinton to co-operate with the fleet at Charleston, in Carolina, he himself threatened New York from Sandy Hook. The attack on Charleston was gallantly repulsed; and Clinton brought back his division to take part in the operations against New York. On July 4, the American congress adopted the Declaration of Independence. The attack on New York was long delayed; but on August 27, the British troops drove the defenders from Long Island; and it was only Howe's dilatoriness that allowed Washington to withdraw unmolested from New York. The British withdrew into winter quarters, and left Washington free to take advantage of their inactivity by surprising the garrison of Trenton, and soon afterwards acquiring nearly all New Jersey by winning a decisive battle at Princeton. Howe remained idle till June 1777, when he organized a threefold expedition, which was so far successful that after defeating Washington at Brandywine Creek, in September, he advanced unopposed into Philadelphia. "It is not General Howe that has taken Philadelphia; it is Philadelphia that has taken General Howe," said Franklin; and so it proved. While Washington passed the winter in his camp at Valley Forge, with resources gradually dwindling, his forces weakened by privations, fevers, and insubordination, and himself harassed by the petty jealousies of the government and his own officers, Philadelphia became "the Capua of the British army." Meanwhile, in New York State, Clinton captured Forts Clinton and Montgomery, on the Hudson; but he did not proceed fast enough to co-operate with Burgoyne, who was advancing from Canada. On August 16, a detached division of his force had been destroyed at Bennington (q.v.), and Burgoyne himself, after being defeated at Stillwater, on September 19, was compelled to capitulate, with 3,500 men, at Saratoga, on October 17. The immediate result of Saratoga was a treaty between France and America, which was virtually a declaration of war by France against Great Britain. In June, Clinton, who had succeeded Sir William Howe as commander-in-chief, evacuated Philadelphia and retreated on New York. Washington opposed his march at Monmouth, and finished a severe contest master of the field, but not strong enough to offer any further resistance. In the north, operations were at a standstill through the embarrassed condition of both commanders, and the interest of the war centred in the south. In December, Savannah was taken by Colonel Campbell; and in January 1779 Lower Georgia was reduced by Colonel Prevost. In February, South Carolina was overrun, and Charleston was again threatened by the British, who spent the summer in alienating, by their ravages, the few loyalists that remained. In September, a combined French and American force failed to take Savannah. In the meantime, Washington had tided over his difficulties by maintaining a strictly defensive attitude. A large armament sent by Massachusetts to destroy a British outpost in Penobscot Bay was signally defeated and almost destroyed. In October 1779, Rhode Island was evacuated, and Clinton carried the troops, thus set free, to the attack of Charleston. It was not, however, till May 1780 that General Lincoln surrendered the town. Clinton returned to New York, leaving 5,000 men with Lord Cornwallis, who by the end of June reported that all resistance was at an end in Georgia and South Carolina. But strenuous efforts were made to save the South, and General Gates, with strong reinforcements, met Lords Cornwallis and Rawdon at Camden (q.v.), on August 16, and was signally defeated, with heavy loss. A small detachment, under Sumter, was also cut to pieces by Colonel Tarleton's cavalry, and the American army of the South seemed to be annihilated. But the severity of Cornwallis and Rawdon had alienated the population, and the inhabitants rose on all sides to oppose the advance of the former into North Carolina. During the winter Washington and Clinton maintained a passive attitude, each watching the other, and neither strong enough to take the offensive; and Washington's difficulties were increased by the disaffection of the troops, who had received no pay for ten months. On March 1, 1781, a crisis was averted by the signing of the Articles of Confederation, which united all

the states by a common bond of union. In the south, Greene, who had succeeded Gates, put a new aspect on the war. In January 1781, he defeated Tarleton at the Cowpens; but, notwithstanding, Cornwallis assumed the offensive, and advanced northwards. Greene retreated 200 miles before Cornwallis, who was gradually leaving his base of supplies farther and farther in his rear. On March 15, Greene gave him battle at Guilford Court House (q.v.), and after a fierce struggle was driven from his position, but Cornwallis was so weakened that he retreated to Wilmington, though in April he again advanced to Petersburg, in Virginia. Meanwhile, Greene had organized a combined movement against South Carolina and Georgia. He himself was attacked and defeated by Lord Rawdon, who, however, was compelled by the simultaneous advance of Lee and Marion to retire to Charleston, and the greater part of South Carolina was again in American hands. In September, the battle of Eutaw Springs (q.v.) ended in a victory for the British, which was as disastrous as a defeat; and the British forces in the south were henceforth pent up in Wilmington, Charleston, and Savannah. From Petersburg Cornwallis had pursued Lafayette, who continued to elude him; but in the beginning of August, in obedience to orders from Clinton, he withdrew with his army to Yorktown, where he strongly fortified himself. At the same time a large French force joined Washington, and a southward march was begun. On August 31, Count de Grasse arrived with a French fleet in Chesapeake Bay, and a few days later beat off the British under Admiral Graves. On September 28, the whole army had completely invested Yorktown (q.v.); and on October 19, 1781, Cornwallis surrendered, with all his army and supplies. In March 1782, Rockingham again became prime minister; and by Shelburne, one of the new secretaries of state, Sir Guy Carleton was at once sent out to supersede Clinton, and to prosecute conciliatory measures. Franklin had been carrying on negotiations at Paris; but the American commissioners persisted in vain proposals, until it was discovered that France was playing a double game. The intrigues of the loyalists, together with the wretched condition of the American army, brought matters to a crisis, and, on November 30, preliminary articles of peace were signed. On December 5, the king announced his tardy and reluctant consent to the independence of the American colonies. In April 1783, congress, beset by the numerous discontents in the army, and threatened by mutineers, issued a proclamation for the cessation of hostilities. On September 3, the treaties were ratified, but various arrangements remained to be carried out, and it was not till November 25, 1783, that the British troops evacuated New York. The war had cost America little under £50,000,000, but she had gained independence at a price that was not too dear. Its result to Great Britain was the loss of half a continent and the addition of 115 millions to the national debt.

Jared Sparks, "Diplomatic Correspondence of the American Revolution," 12 vols., Boston, 1829; Jefferson's "Works," ed. H. A. Washington, 1854; J. Q. Adams, "Works," 10 vols., 1856; A. Hamilton, "Works," ed. J. C. Hamilton, 1857–8; "The Life and Correspondence of President Rees"; "The Chatham Correspondence." The best general account is to be found in G. Bancroft's exhaustive "History of the United States," new ed. in 6 vols., 1876. C. H. Van Tyne, "Causes of the War of American Independence," 1922; R. G. Adams, "Political Ideas of the American Revolution," 1922; F. J. Hinkhouse, "Preliminaries of the American Revolution as seen in the English Press, 1763–75," 1927; C. M. Andrews, "Colonial Background of the American Revolution," 1924; Sir G. O. Trevelyan, "George III and Charles Fox," 1912; A. T. Mahan, "The Navies in the War of American Independence," 1913.

[W. R. S.]

American War (1812–15), arose out of the severe action of Great Britain towards neutral vessels in the war against Bonaparte. America, to retaliate, adopted the British policy, and laid an embargo upon all trade with both France and Great Britain. Some arrangement was attempted in 1809; but it was impossible to effect any permanent conciliation so long as Great Britain adhered to the orders in council of 1807, and Brougham's motion for their repeal came too late to avert the war. The war, which was declared without any great unanimity on the part of congress, in June 1812, was at first almost entirely confined to combats between detached frigates, in which the Americans were generally successful, and to attempts by the Americans on Canada, which always ended in failure. The cause of the British want of success in the naval actions was in some degree, no doubt, due to the excellence of their enemies' seamanship, and the picked crews they obtained by enlisting British deserters; but it was also partly owing to the superior size and armaments of the American frigates, which were in reality almost equivalent to the smaller ships of the line. The most celebrated of these detached actions was that between the *Chesapeake* and the *Shannon*. Great Britain carried on the war in a very desultory manner, until the close of the campaign in the south of France set free the Peninsular veterans, many of whom were shipped straight from Bordeaux to America. In the meantime, negotiations had been entered into at Ghent, which continued for more than twelve months before they resulted in the conclusion of peace. A large fleet, under Admiral Cockburn, was dispatched with the Peninsular troops, under General Ross, to make a combined attack by sea and land on the Chesapeake River. The expedition completely succeeded in the capture of Washington, the chief public buildings of which city were destroyed. A combined sea and land attack was made upon Plattsburg on Lake Champlain; but the flotilla, unaided by Sir George Prevost, who commanded the troops, was annihilated, and

the enterprise had to be abandoned. A projected attack on Baltimore was also given up; but the state of Maine was almost entirely in the hands of the British. An expedition on a large scale was undertaken against New Orleans, under General Pakenham. Natural difficulties, greatly increased by the energy and ability of the American commander, General Jackson, met the armament at every turn, but were at length overcome by the alacrity of the men; and on January 8, 1815, a final assault was made. This was conspicuous no less for the intrepid gallantry of the troops on both sides, which caused a terrible loss of life, including that of Sir E. Pakenham, than for the utter mismanagement and want of unity among the British commanders. The assault was delivered in a number of separate attacks on different points, which failed from lack of co-operation and neglect of the most simple details. So great was the loss of the British that General Lambert, who had succeeded to the command, felt it desirable to withdraw. Had means of communication been more rapid in those days, this useless bloodshed would have been averted, since already, on the previous December 24, a convention had been signed at Ghent. This convention was merely a compromise, which left undecided all the chief points on which the two countries were at issue. The rights of neutrals were not touched upon, and the question of the frontier line between Canada and the United States was reserved for future negotiation.

R. Johnson, "The American War of 1812–15," 1882; F. A. Updyke, "Diplomacy of the War of 1812," 1915. [S. L.]

Amherst, Jeffrey, Baron (1717–97), was present at Dettingen and Fontenoy, and fought under the Duke of Cumberland at Hastenbeck. In 1756 he was appointed to command the 15th Regiment of Foot, and two years later became major-general. In 1758 he was sent to America, and, acting in co-operation with Admiral Boscawen, effected the capture of Louisburg, the capital of Cape Breton. In the following year, in conjunction with General Prideaux, Sir E. Johnson, and Wolfe, he took Ticonderoga. In 1760 he reduced Montreal, taking the fort of Isle Royale on his way. Shortly afterwards he planned a successful expedition for the recovery of Newfoundland. In 1761 he was created a knight of the Bath, and appointed commander-in-chief and governor-general in America. In 1770 he was appointed governor of Guernsey, and in 1772 lieutenant-general of the ordnance. In 1776 he was raised to the peerage, with the title of Baron Amherst of Holmesdale. Shortly afterwards he was made commander-in-chief, and in that capacity quelled the riots of 1780, but was compelled to resign in 1782. He was again appointed in 1793, and accepted the rank of field-marshal in 1796.

Gentleman's Magazine, 1797.

Amherst, William Pitt, 1st Earl (1773–1857), was the eldest son of Lieutenant-General Amherst, brother of the 1st Baron Amherst. On the death of the latter in 1797, he succeeded to the title. In 1816 he was appointed ambassador-extraordinary to the Emperor of China. On reaching the precincts of the imperial palace at Pekin, and refusing to submit to the humiliating ceremonies of the emperor's court, he was refused admission to the presence of the emperor, and his mission was thus rendered useless. On his return voyage, the vessel he was in was wrecked off the island of Pulo Leat, from which he proceeded, accompanied by Sir Henry Ellis, in the boats of the wrecked ship to Batavia. He was subsequently appointed governor-general of India, and landed at Calcutta, 1823. He had no sooner assumed the government than he found himself involved in hostile discussions with the Burmese, which terminated within a year in a declaration of war. After two campaigns the first Burmese War ended in the Treaty of Yandaboo (q.v.). The progress of the Burmese War also gave rise to the Barrakpur Mutiny (q.v.), which was violently suppressed, and to several seditious manifestations in India. The governor-general was created Earl Amherst of Arakan in 1826. [Burmese Wars.]

Ellis, "Proceedings of the late Embassy to China," 1817; biography by A. T. Ritchie and R. Evans, 1894.

Amhurst, Nicholas (*d.* 1742), was a writer of satires and political papers of considerable ability, who conducted *The Craftsman*, a political journal, to which Bolingbroke and Pulteney contributed largely.

"Biographia Britannica"; Wilson, "History of Merchant Taylors' School."

Amiens, Mise of (January 23, 1264), was the award pronounced by Louis IX of France, to whom the question as to the obligation of Henry III to observe the Provisions of Oxford had been referred, on December 16, 1263. Since 1261 the baronial party had been reduced by desertions, and distracted by Prince Edward's attitude towards their cause in 1262, and by disputes and jealousies among themselves. This, with the fear of Louis openly supporting Henry III with troops, explains their forced assent to an arbitration which, from Louis's character and frequent services to Henry, could only issue one way. Influenced by his strong views as to the kingly office, and by the authority of the papal bull, possibly also by the negotiations already on foot for the papal appointment of his brother Charles to the crown of Naples, Louis, after some days' hearing of the pleadings on either side, and perhaps some hesitation, decided completely for his brother sovereign, annulled the Provisions of Oxford, especially as to the employment of aliens in England and the royal

appointment of sheriffs; but after all left to the barons a loophole in declaring that his decision was not to annul any of the ancient charters or liberties of the realm. His pronouncement was too one-sided to be accepted by the baronage. In March the warfare broke out which ended for the time in Simon's victory at Lewes. Similar arbitrations were frequent about this period: even the day before Lewes, the barons offered to submit all, save the aliens question, to a new body of arbitrators; and a striking political song of the time shows the general feeling, even in the national party, that some compromise must be accepted. The award had the effect of still further reducing and weakening Simon de Montfort's party.

The documents connected with this event are given in Père Daniel, "Histoire de France"; Rishanger, "Chronicle" (Camden Society); Stubbs, "Select Charters." See also the "Liber de Antiquis Legibus"; the "Royal Letters" (Rolls Series); Rymer's "Fœdera"; Wright's "Political Songs" (Rolls Series). The best modern accounts are in biographies of Simon de Montfort. [A. L. S.]

Amiens, Treaty of (March 25, 1802), between Great Britain and France, put an end for the time to the great war which had lasted since 1793. The mutual losses during the preceding years, the complete supremacy of the British fleet, and the blow given to the nothern alliance by the battle of Copenhagen, and, on the other hand, the defeats inflicted on Britain's continental ally, Austria, in 1800, and the Treaty of Lunéville, which she concluded with France on February 9, 1801, led both governments to desire a cessation of hostilities. The treaty was the work of the Addington ministry. In the previous October the preliminaries had been agreed to and signed, but some troublesome negotiations had to be gone through before it was finally ratified at Amiens, by Lord Cornwallis on the part of Great Britain, and by Joseph Bonaparte, assisted by Talleyrand, for France. According to it, Great Britain gave up all her conquests but Trinidad and Ceylon. The Cape of Good Hope was restored to the Dutch, but was to be a free port. Malta was to go back to the Knights of St. John, under the guarantee of one of the great powers. "Cet article est le plus important de tout le traité, mais aucune des conditions qu'il renferme n'a été exécutée; et il est devenu le prétexte d'une guerre qui s'est renouvelée en 1803, et a duré sans interruption jusqu'en 1814" ("Histoire des Traités," vi, 149). Porto Ferrajo was to be evacuated. On the other hand, the Republic of the Ionian Islands was acknowledged; the French were to withdraw from Naples and the Roman states; the integrity of Portugal was to be guaranteed; Egypt was to be restored to the Porte; and, finally, the Newfoundland fisheries were to be placed on the same footing as they held before the war began. These terms, as noticed above, were not considered sufficiently satisfactory by the British; consequently the peace was of very short duration, war being declared against Bonaparte in 1803.

For text of the Treaty see "Annual Register," 1802 [S. L.]

Amir Khan, a Rohilla adventurer and free-lance, joined Jaswant Rao Holkar in his plunder of the territories of Sindhia and the Peshwa. During the Holkar War (1804) he waged a predatory warfare against the British and their allies. He became the recognized chief of the Pathans in India. In 1809 he sacked the town of Jabalpur. The British, however, interfered, when Amir Khan withdrew to Indore. During the Pindari war his army and his influence were alike destroyed by the British victories and the vigorous policy of Lord Hastings. He founded a dynasty, however, at Tonk, in Rajputana, and his Mohammedan descendant still exists as a protected prince, in consequence of a treaty made in 1817.

Amirante Islands, or Admiral Islands, so named after Vasco da Gama. A group of small coral islands in the Indian Ocean, south-west of the Seychelles. Occupied by the British during the Napoleonic wars, they were ceded by France to Britain in 1814. Until 1903 they were administered from Mauritius as part of the dependent Seychelles group, but since 1903 that group has enjoyed the status of a separate colony.

Amritsar, The Treaty of (April 25, 1809), was concluded between the East India Company and Ranjit Singh. Its provisions were that the British government should have no concern with the territories and subjects of the raja north of the Sutlej; and that the raja should not commit any encroachments, or suffer any to be committed, on the possessions or rights of the chiefs under British protection south of it.

Amritsar was the scene of serious riots in 1919, when banks and other buildings were burnt in protest against the Rowlatt Act. The disturbances culminated (April 13) in the death of 400 natives during Gen. Dyer's dispersal of an unlawful gathering.

Ancolites, The, were a small British tribe, inhabiting probably part of Berkshire and Oxfordshire. They are mentioned by Cæsar, but not by Ptolemy.

Ancrum Moor, Battle of (February 1545), was fought in Roxburghshire, between the forces of Henry VIII, headed by Sir Ralph Evers and Sir Brian Latour, and the Scots, under the Earl of Angus, Scott of Buccleuch, and the Master of Rothes. The English were completely beaten, owing to their desertion by the Borderers who had joined them.

P. Hume Brown, "History of Scotland," 1911.

Anderida (Andredes-ceaster), the name of a Roman fortress and settlement on the Sussex coast, which Camden placed at New-

enden, in Kent, and others have considered to have been situated at Hastings, Chichester, or under the downs near Eastbourne, where, in 1717, Roman pavements, baths, and other remains were found. Most modern authorities agree in placing it on the site of Pevensey. According to the traditional story of the Anglo-Saxon conquest, the town was taken and burnt by the Saxons, under Ella, in 491, and all the inhabitants put to the sword. The *Forest of Anderida* (Andredes-weald) was the great belt of wood which stretched across south-eastern England through Hampshire, Kent, and Surrey, having a length of more than seventy, and in some places a breadth of over thirty, miles. The district still called the Weald may be held to mark out roughly the extent of the closer portions of this forest. [FORESTS.]

T. Codrington, "Roman Roads in Britain," 3rd ed., 1918.

Anderson, SIR EDMUND (1530–1605), one of Elizabeth's judges, was employed in the prosecutions of the Jesuits, as queen's sergeant, 1581. In the following year he was made chief justice of the Common Pleas, an office which he retained until his death. In 1586 he tried the conspirators in Babington's plot, and was one of the commissioners at the trial of Mary, Queen of Scots, in October 1586. He subsequently tried Udall and Davison [MARPRELATE] for the issue of the warrant against Mary, Queen of Scots.

Anderton, WILLIAM (*d.* 1693), was a violent Jacobite pamphleteer, in the reign of William III. For two years he evaded the government agents, but was at length traced to a house near St. James's Street. He attempted to conceal his press, but it was discovered, together with a tract called "Remarks on the Present Confederacy and the Late Revolution." He was indicted for high treason before Treby at the Old Bailey. He denied that he had printed the libels. It was argued in his favour, moreover, that, as printing was unknown in the reign of Edward III, it could not be construed into an overt act of treason, and that, under the statute of that sovereign, a further distinction ought to be made between the author of a treasonable pamphlet and the man who merely printed it. He was, however, found guilty, and after being kept for some time in suspense, in the hope that he would betray his accomplices, was executed.

Cobbett's "State Trials," xii, 1246.

André, MAJOR JOHN (1751–80), was the son of a London merchant. Entering the army, he rose rapidly. He was appointed to serve under General Grey in America, and, when Sir H. Clinton succeeded Grey, was made adjutant-general. His tact and ability in this position caused him to be selected, in the month of September 1780, to superintend the negotiations for the surrender of West Point, on the Hudson River. The man he had to deal with on the other side was Benedict Arnold, an American general whose ambition was not satisfied with his position. An arrangement was made between the two for a meeting, to take place on the 17th, when Washington would be absent. The sloop which was carrying André to the meeting-place ran aground, and Arnold, on hearing of the mishap, refused to come down himself, but sent for André to come to him. André, on his return, found the sloop gone, and could not induce the boatmen to put off to her. He accordingly returned to Arnold, who persuaded him to exchange his uniform for a countryman's dress, and go back to the British lines by land. He accomplished the greater part of the journey in safety, and was already in sight of the British lines when he was arrested, and, in spite of Arnold's passport, carried back to Washington. A court of inquiry was forthwith held; André was found to be a spy, and sentenced to death. Washington was most unwilling to carry out the sentence, and he endeavoured to seize Arnold, the real offender, in order to be able to release André. But Arnold was not to be found; and on October 2 André met his fate with perfect composure. Washington himself declared that he was more unfortunate than criminal. His bones were afterwards brought to England (1821), and interred in Westminster Abbey.

J. Sparks, "Life of Arnold"; J. Codman, "Arnold's Expedition to Quebec," 1901.

Andros, SIR EDMUND (1637–1714), became governor of New York in 1674, and in 1685 was appointed governor of New England by James II. His administration was so unpopular with the colonists that, in 1689, all the colonies subject to him revolted, and he was sent back to England for trial, but acquitted. In 1692 he went out as governor of Virginia, holding the office with credit to himself and advantage to the country until 1698. He was subsequently governor of Jersey, 1704–6.

Angel was the name of a gold coin, first introduced into England in 1465. The value of an angel was originally 8s. 4d., but in Edward VI's time it was raised to 10s. It derived its name from the representation of the Archangel Michael which appeared on it. Angels continued to be coined down to the reign of Charles I. [COINAGE.]

Angevins, THE, sometimes called PLANTAGENETS. Anjou first became connected with England by the marriage, in 1127, of Matilda, daughter of Henry I, with Geoffrey V, Count of Anjou. Their son Henry became King of England, as well as Count of Anjou. Anjou remained united to England till 1205, when Philip Augustus conquered it, and annexed it to the French crown. For a short time, during the reigns of Henry V and Henry VI, it was again united to England; but in 1444 the latter king, on his

marriage with Margaret of Anjou, ceded his claims. The Angevin rulers filled as great a space in the history of the Middle Ages as the Habsburgs have done in more modern times. The first Count of Anjou was Fulk the Red, who at the end of the ninth century was thus rewarded for his services against the Northmen. But by the twelfth century, when the petty counts had added Saintonge, Maine, and Touraine to their territory, men began to throw their origin farther back, into legends of an heroic champion, Ingelger, son of the wild Breton hunter, Tortulf; and accounted for that fitful energy and successful unscrupulousness which marked the whole race, by tales of an ancestress who had been an evil spirit or a witch in guise of a lovely countess. In Fulk the Good there appears the other side of the Angevin character: the literary, poetic, and artistic tastes strong in Henry III and Edward III, in Richard I and Richard II, and partly shared by Henry II and John; the capacity for business and the organizing power which distinguished Henry II and Edward I. So, too, the physical prowess of Richard I was an inheritance from his ancestor, Geoffrey Greygown, the third count; while the fourth count, Fulk the Black, in his successful adventurousness, his restless pilgrimages to Jerusalem, his cruel revenges on his wife and son, seems to anticipate familiar stories of our own Plantagenet kings. With Fulk's son, Geoffrey Martel, the original Angevin line ends, to be continued by his daughter's marriage with Geoffrey of the house of Orleans. Their son, Fulk Rechin, "to whom alone it is due that the charge of trickery is urged against this family," brought upon himself many enemies and some disasters. The next count, Fulk the Young, had already secured Maine by marriage; and his successor, Geoffrey the Handsome, called Plantagenet, by his marriage with the Empress Matilda, heiress to Henry I of England, raised to its climax the long advancement of his house. Their son, Henry II of England, succeeded, in 1151, to Anjou, Maine, and Touraine from his father, and Normandy from his mother, and received, in 1152, Poitou, Limoges, Auvergne, Guienne, and Gascony, with Eleanor, the divorced wife of Louis of France. He was crowned King of England in 1154, made himself Lord of Ireland in 1171, exacted full homage from the captive King of Scots in 1174, and obtained for his second son, Geoffrey, the succession to Brittany by marriage. In 1170 Anjou was set apart, with Maine and Normandy, to form a temporary dominion for his eldest son, Henry, as Aquitaine was for Richard, Brittany for Geoffrey, and Ireland for John. But with the accession of John "Lackland," Anjou, like most of the other French possessions of the English crown, passed to Philip of France. Before this, Ralph de Diceto, finding a pious explanation for the success which had now reached such a height, had declared "the prophecy made to Fulk the Good by the leper whom he carried so piously (and who was none other than the Saviour Himself), that his seed should prosper to the ninth generation, is being fulfilled." But most men spoke otherwise of the Angevins. Thus Giraldus Cambrensis, not content with recounting their diabolic origin, St. Bernard's prediction of their curse, and Richard Cœur de Lion's gloomy acceptance of it ("Let us fight; son with father, brother with brother; it is instinct in our family: from the devil we all came, to the devil we shall all go"), draws out furthermore the calamitous end of all the offspring of Eleanor, as a vengeance foretold for her parents' adulterous union; he recites the visions which warned holy men of the punishment reserved for Henry II's sins against the Church, and points the moral of the breakdown of that great king's empire, after all his subtle schemes and his toilsome, gainful life, before the divinely-favoured royal house of France. This indeed was the feeling which many men had about the Angevins; not without some reason. "They remind us," says Dr. Stubbs, "of those unhappy spirits who, throughout the Middle Ages, were continually spending superhuman strength in building in a night inaccessible bridges and uninhabitable castles, or purchasing with untold treasures souls that might have been had for nothing, and invariably cheated of their reward." There is, indeed, in all the English kings of this race, even in Edward I, something of this waste of vast energies upon futile results, which are no sooner grasped than they crumble in the hand. They had not, with all their insight, that rare gift of penetrating to the real heart of their age, the gift that only sympathy with it can give. Even Edward I could not see that he was, in his own despite, making of Scotland what he had already made of England—a self-governing patriotic nation. Yet to this dynasty England owes much. Henry II not only finally defeated the feudal class by superseding its privileged jurisdiction, by subduing it to his strong centralized system, by withdrawing its military basis, but he also set up a counterpoise to it in the revived popular courts, in the developed use of local juries, in the reconstituted national militia, in the legalized liberties of the towns. In a word, he began the varied training of the English people to co-operation in the work of government, which Edward I took up and carried on to its completion. Moreover, the very tyranny and neglect of the other kings were direct instruments of benefits never intended. Richard I's careless absence and heavy exactions left his ministers free to expand the principles bequeathed them from Henry II's reign. A still greater debt of gratitude we owe to the misgovernment of

John, the worst of the line, inasmuch as it alone supplied the pressure which could force the baronage for the first time to act with and for Church and people, and produced the coalition which extorted the Great Charter. Henry III's shiftiness recalled this coalition into action so often that it became a permanent union. The second Edward's failure taught the nation that a vigorous kingship was still a requisite of political stability, to control the baronage, and to be the working head of the government. Edward III, in his selfish haste for the means of warfare and ostentation, sold away the Crown's power of extra-parliamentary interference in taxation and legislation. And Richard II's unsuccessful attempt at absolutism precipitated the downfall of prerogative, and gave constitutional government sixty years in which to strike its roots down too deep even for the destroying hand of Yorkist, Tudor, and Stuart kings to kill their latent life. And it is to the stern peace kept by the Angevin kings, to their repression of private justice and private war, to their firm but prudent attitude to the Church, that we owe the early rise of English literature and philosophy, the great age of the English Church, the enfranchisement of the peasantry, the populous independence of the towns, the growth of wool-trade and maritime commerce. All the Angevins were men of strong but conflicting character; none was without physical bravery, bodily activity, passionate emotions. Even the worst were men who superstitiously respected some form of religion, while they violated its spirit: like Henry II, jesting and drawing pictures at Mass, but dying before the chapel altar at Chinon; or Richard, after an agony of repentance for his sins, recovering, to plunge into them afresh. All inflicted, and in turn suffered, the ancestral curse, the pangs of filial or fraternal ingratitude. None is contemptible, save, perhaps, Henry III; none, save John, fails to win some sympathy. They must remain to us as they were to their contemporaries—a marvellous race, with many elements of greatness, with immense personal endowments, and a certain mysterious shadow hanging over all; whose work for the most part was destined to pass away, but through whom other results were brought about, destined to be of incalculable value and indestructible permanence.

H. W. C. Davis, "England Under the Normans and Angevins"; G. B. Adams, "Political History of England, 1066-1216"; T. F. Tout, "Political History of England, 1216-1377"; Sir J. Ramsay, "Foundations of England"; "The Dawn of the Constitution"; "Angevin Empire"; "The Genesis of Lancaster"; and biographies of the Angevin kings. [A. L. S.]

ANGEVIN KINGS OF ENGLAND.

Henry II	1154–1189	Edward I	1272–1307
Richard I	1189–1199	Edward II	1307–1327
John	1199–1216	Edward III	1327–1377
Henry III	1216–1272	Richard II	1377–1399

Angles, THE. If identity of name and general probability be held fair proofs of identity of race, the Angles (Angli, *Anglii*), after whom this land is called, are first mentioned in the "Germania" of Tacitus (written about A.D. 98), as dwellers to the north of the Elbe. Fifty years later Ptolemy writes of them as occupying the left bank of the same river, apparently in the neighbourhood of the modern town of Magdeburg; but his statement seems to have been due to a geographical error. There can be little doubt that their real position was on the neck of the peninsula of Jutland, between the Jutes on the one hand and the Saxons on the other, in the area which is now known as Schleswig, but which an English writer of the tenth century (Ethelweard) specifically names *Anglia Vetus*, or Old England. Next to nothing is told us of the Angles in written history. Tacitus gives details of their worship of a goddess Nerthus ("Mother Earth"); and traditions of early Anglian kingship have survived in the stories preserved in both Danish and English literature of the warlike achievements of King Wermund and his son Offa (fourth century A.D.). Scholars are satisfied that they were of Low-German stock, and were closely akin to, yet distinct from, the Saxons, having a speech that, though essentially the same as the Saxon, showed more frequent marks of Scandinavian influence. But, like the Saxons, they were of pure German type; Roman civilization had never reached them. A legal code, the Laws of the Anglii and Werini, which has been attributed to various dates between the sixth and ninth centuries, and which presumably belonged to them, survives as a record of native usages in an intermediate stage between those of the "Germania" and of the earliest-known English system. In the sixth century, at various but unknown dates, and by many but unconnected expeditions, the Angles crossed over to Britain, and conquered to their own use the whole of the east coast from the Stour to the Firth of Forth. Pushing steadily their encroachments westwards, and slaying, expelling, or enslaving the bulk at least of the natives, they eventually formed the powerful kingdoms of Mercia, Northumbria, and East Anglia, with not a few smaller states; and fought and prospered until two-thirds of the conquered land had passed into their possession. This great movement is believed to have caused an exhaustive migration of the race. Bæda is our authority for a report that their fatherland was without inhabitants even in his time. Yet some will have it that their name still abides there in the local term *Angeln*. In Britain, though they just missed winning political supremacy, they fixed their name ineffaceably on the whole German population and the land it lived in. Many have speculated upon, but none gained any solid knowledge of, their distinguishing characteristics; it would seem, however, that wherever they differed from their Saxon

brethren, they more nearly resembled their Danish cousins.

Sir C. Oman, "England Before the Norman Conquest," 1910, 5th edn. 1921; H. M. Chadwick, "Origin of the English Nation," 1907; E. T. Leeds, "Archæology of the Anglo-Saxon Settlements," 1913.

Anglesey (Latin, *Mona;* Welsh, *Môn*), an island and county of North Wales, was in the earliest times celebrated as the headquarters of Druidism, and therefore of resistance to the Romans. It was conquered by Suetonius Paulinus in A.D. 61, and again more thoroughly by Agricola in 78. On the withdrawal of the Romans, it became the centre of the power of the kings of North Wales, or Gwynedd, and Gildas calls the famous Maelgwn "insularis draco." Yet it was conquered, with much other Welsh territory, by Edwin of Northumbria (Bæda, ii, 5), and perhaps this Anglian conquest explains Nennius—"Mona insula quæ Anglice Englesei vocatur id est insula Anglorum." But Northumbria soon fell, and the "isle of the English" became Welsh again. It contained Aberffraw, the chief palace of the kings of Gwynedd. During the ninth, tenth, and eleventh centuries, it was repeatedly ravaged by the Danes, who very probably effected permanent settlements in it. After the Norman Conquest, it became the battleground of Irish Dane, native Welsh, and Norman adventurers. Under William Rufus, it was more than once captured by Earl Hugh of Chester, when "the French reduced all to be Saxons" (*Brut-y-Tywys*, sub an. 1096). Again, in 1098, it was the scene of the exploits of Magnus of Norway, and of the death of Hugh. But it soon got back its liberty, and has retained to this day that intensely Welsh character ("Môn mam Cymru") which makes its name so misleading. It continued the home of the princes of North Wales until the fall of Llewelyn ap Gruffyd annexed the principality to the Crown, and it became one of the three shires into which Gwynedd was then divided. [COUNTIES, WELSH.]

J. E. Lloyd, "History of Wales to the Edwardian Conquest," 2 vols., 1911; O. M. Edwards, "Wales," 1925. [T. F. T.]

Anglesey, PEERAGE OF. In 1628 Sir Francis Annesley, of Newport Pagnell, Bucks, was created Baron Mountnorris in the peerage of Ireland, and Viscount Valentia. It was this nobleman who was arbitrarily tried and condemned to death by Strafford, when lord-deputy in 1635. Arthur, 2nd Viscount Valentia (1614–86), was, in 1645, sent as commissioner to Ulster to oppose Owen Roe O'Neill. After the death of Cromwell, he was president of the council of state, and took a considerable share in bringing about the Restoration. In 1660 he was created Earl of Anglesey in the peerage of England. During the life of Richard, 6th Earl of Anglesey, the title and estates were claimed by James Annesley, who asserted that he was the son of the 4th earl. [For the litigation which ensued on this claim, see ANNESLEY'S CASE.] As a result of this litigation, it was held that the earldom of Anglesey became extinct in 1761, on the death of the 6th earl. In 1815 the title of Marquis of Anglesey was conferred on Henry Paget, Earl of Uxbridge. [ANNESLEY, PAGET.]

Anglesey, ARTHUR ANNESLEY, 5TH EARL OF (*d.* 1737). [ANNESLEY.]

Anglesey, HENRY WILLIAM PAGET, 1ST MARQUIS OF (1768–1854). [PAGET.]

Anglia, EAST. [EAST ANGLIA.]

Anglo-Egyptian Sudan. This region—bounded on the north by Egypt; on the west by the French Congo; on the south by the Belgian Congo and Uganda; and on the east by Abyssinia, Eritrea, and the Red Sea—was annexed to Egypt by Mehemet Ali, 1820–3. In 1881, under the Mahdi (Mohammed Ahmed), it revolted against Egypt, which at that date had passed under Franco-British protection. An Egyptian army under Hicks Pasha, attempting reconquest, was destroyed (November 1883). General Gordon (q.v.), sent by Britain (which in 1882 had assumed the whole burden of protection) to arrange for the evacuation of the Sudan, was killed at Khartoum (January 1885). The Sudan was recovered by Kitchener 1886–98, and placed under Anglo-Egyptian control (1899). The con-dominion was not formally affected by the British recognition of Egyptian independence in 1922. A subsequent demand made by the Egyptian Nationalists—and punctuated by the murder of the governor-general, Sir Lee Stack, on November 20, 1924—for the abolition of Britain's share in the administration of the Sudan, was rejected by the British government under Mr. Ramsay MacDonald.

Sir F. R. Wingate, "Mahdism and the Sudan," 1891; C. Royle, "Egyptian Campaigns, 1882–99," 1900; G. W. Steevens, "With Kitchener to Khartum," 1898 and 1919.

Anglo-Saxon is a word which has been commonly applied to the aggregate of the Teutonic inhabitants of Britain who lived under native institutions, up to the date of the Norman Conquest; to the earliest form of the English language of which memorials survive; and, by a curious modern usage, to the sum total of the men of English speech and origin, to whatever nation they may belong, who are now scattered over the globe. The exact meaning of the word is not obvious. Freeman ruled "Anglo-Saxon" to be a condensation of the phrase "Angles and Saxons," construing both its component parts as nouns; whilst the ablest of his predecessors took the compound to mean "properly Saxons of England, as distinguished from Saxons of the continent," in which case the former half must have the force of an adjective. A scrutiny of the oldest forms of the word, whether English or Latin, would seem to justify the latter con-

clusion rather than the other. These forms are: in English, *Ongol-Saxna* and *Angul-Seaxna*; in Latin, *Angul-Saxones* and *Angli-Saxones*. Now, if *Ongol cyn* and *Angel cyn* be —as they usually are—construed into "English kin," we cannot easily escape the necessity of construing *Ongol-Saxe, Angul-Seaxe,* and *Angul-Saxones* into "English Saxons." And the Latin form seemingly admits of the same construction more readily than it does that of "Angles and Saxons." Camden, therefore, and Kemble would appear to have had some show of reason, the first for naming ("Remains Concerning Britain," pp. 24, 25) the inhabitants of England before the Norman Conquest "English-Saxons," and their tongue "English-Saxon," the second for calling his great work "The *Saxons* in England." On the other hand, Freeman's explanation would unquestionably, if language permitted it, be a far more satisfactory one. An Anglo-Saxon king was certainly a king of Angles and Saxons; the population he reigned over was composed of Angles of the north and east, as well as Saxons of the south and west. It is noteworthy, however, and perhaps significant, that the word was barely recognized by the men of the time to which it is now so often given; neither in the Chronicle, nor in Ethelweard—nor, indeed, in any purely native English historical record—is it once found. So long as these men were distributed into separate states, they looked upon themselves as Saxons or as Angles; when they fell into political unions they became, when contemplated as members of one community, Englishmen. When native writers would contrast West Saxons, East Anglians, and Northumbrians with their insular foes or continental neighbours, they had no other designation for them than "Engle," no other for their speech than "Englisc." This is the first reason that has moved some scholars to drop this and every cognate word altogether in writing, and use "English" as a descriptive epithet of every part of our history and every form of our language. The men whom Edgar and Harold ruled called themselves "English kin"; even Alfred, mere King of West Saxons as he was, is represented in the Chronicle as having been "King of all the English kin except the part that was under the wield of the Danes." It is thought better to call the people as they called themselves. And undoubtedly the name Anglo-Saxon has led to misconceptions. It has misled people into thinking that their forefathers were not their forefathers, that the nation which was (temporarily) overthrown at Senlac was not essentially the same nation (in spite of the subsequent admixture of Danish and Norman blood) that, 750 years later, overthrew Napoleon, into thinking the language of the Chronicle a different tongue from the language of Carlyle. The "unhistorical and conventional term Anglo-Saxon conveys," wrote Palgrave, "a most false idea of our civil history. It disguises the continuity of affairs, and substitutes the appearance of a new formation in place of a progressive evolution." On the other hand, it is urged that as regards the language, at least, the name is necessary. To insist upon calling both the earliest and latest forms of our literary language "English," is to assert identity where there is no identity; to prevent misconception, therefore, we must alter the name either of our own or of Alfred's tongue. To do the second were not easy. But those earlier were the days of Angles and Saxons, if ever Angles and Saxons were; it surely ought to be at least fairly accurate to speak of their written language as the Anglo-Saxon form of English. And as to the people—seeing that during those days the Angles and Saxons, though coalescing, had not yet coalesced into a well-blended national unity—there is perhaps no intolerable error in describing their era as the Anglo-Saxon stage in the history of the English nation.

E. A. Freeman, "Norman Conquest," 1867–71; Sir C. Oman, "England Before the Norman Conquest." [J. R.]

Anglo-Saxon Chronicle is the name given to an historical document of the very first importance for the whole earlier portion of English history. It is in the form of annals, beginning with the Christian era, and terminating at various dates in the various copies, the most prolonged ending with 1154.

The Anglo-Saxon Chronicle is sometimes spoken of in the plural, as the Anglo-Saxon Chronicles; and each form of expression may be justified. The extant copies are so far alike in their contents that they can be regarded as variations of a common original, such hypothetical original being a compilation made in the ninth century. But the divergences are great even within this earlier part, and they tend in the continuations to a separation so wide as to produce in some cases a total independence of one another before the close. No one can really study this document without finding that there is at least equal propriety in the plural designation. [Chronicles.]

Manuscripts: There are six manuscripts, and some fragments of a seventh. These manuscripts have been designated by the letters A, B, C, D, E, F, G. They have each and all been identified (at least proximately) with one or other of the great religious houses of the southern part of the island. The first (A) has been assigned to Winchester; the second (B) was probably compiled at St. Augustine's, Canterbury; the third (C) is manifestly from Abingdon; the fourth (D) appears to have been kept first in some northern monastery—perhaps Ripon, and later to have been sent south to the diocese of Worcester; the fifth (E) is from Peterborough, and is the most distinctly local of the whole series; the sixth (F), in the two languages Latin and Saxon, is from Canterbury. The seventh (G) is little more than a late copy of A. Of this last manuscript only three leaves have escaped the fire of 1731; but this loss is alleviated by the fact that this manuscript has been printed in full, and without admixture, by Wheloc (Cambridge, 1643). The places of deposit of these manuscripts are as follows:—A, in Corpus Christi

College, Cambridge; B, C, D, F, G, in the Cotton Library, British Museum; E, in the Bodleian.

Of all these manuscripts, the Peterborough Chronicle (E) is the one of which the date and occasion of its production have been most satisfactorily made out. There was a great fire at Peterborough in August 1116, which destroyed all the monastery except the chapter-house and the dormitory; most of the town was burnt also. All the books were probably lost. Five years later, in 1121, we find this new Chronicle, which must have taken time to collect and compile, brought down to the date of the current year in one handwriting. A new hand continues the history in 1122. We know from other sources that this was counted an epoch at Peterborough. The Latin "Chronicon Petroburgense" (Camden Society), of which the object was to describe the administration of Abbot Robert, which dates from 1274, begins with 1122.

Division of Contents: The first five hundred years is a literary compilation, made at a comparatively late date, from Latin authorities; then follows a mixed period down to A.D. 735, in which the greatest part is from Bæda, with a few original annals interspersed. These annals are the earliest material proper to the Saxon Chronicle. From this date onwards our Chronicles are the highest source for nearly all the history they contain. As a whole, the Chronicles belong to the south, but there is an important exception to this general character, in a series of annals between A.D. 737 and 806, embodied in the Worcester Chronicle (D), and manifestly derived from Northumbrian and Mercian sources, not otherwise known. The best and strongest writing appears with a natural propriety in the reigns of Ethelred and Alfred, the greatest crisis of the national life. In 1066 we may be struck with the fact that only one Chronicle (D) describes the battle of Hastings. A new and peculiar interest attaches to the later continuations of the Peterborough Chronicle (E). Here we see the language admitting gradual changes, and this goes with other points of internal evidence to link the records very closely with the events.

The earliest Latin historians are in close relation with the Saxon Chronicles. Florence of Worcester, who died in 1118, and whose latest annal is 1117, is for a large part of his work simply a translator of these Chronicles, especially of D. Asser is indebted to A. Henry of Huntingdon made large use of the Saxon Chronicles; and where he deviates from them his credit is deteriorated thereby. In general, it may be asserted that the existence of the Saxon Chronicles tends greatly to increase our confidence in the early Latin annalists. When we see how closely they have for the most part followed these vernacular annals, we are able to feel assured that in instances where vernacular authority fails, it was probably possessed by the Latin historian. This is the case where Simeon of Durham produces material that we have no other trace of, and which is therefore attributed to some lost northern chronicles.

Editions: After Wheloc, the next editor was Gibson (Oxford, 1692), who constructed a text by a collation of several manuscripts. Both Wheloc and Gibson gave Latin translations, and Gibson's is, for the time, excellent. The first translation into English was by Miss Gurney. It was privately and anonymously printed (Norwich, 1819). The next edition was in 1823, by Dr. Ingram, with English parallel to the Saxon. The next edition appeared in the folio "Monumenta Historica Britannica" (1848); and here the plan of a composite text was carried to its extreme perfection. In 1861 appeared the Rolls edition, by Thorpe, where all the texts are printed parallel in vol. i, with a translation in vol. ii. In 1865 came "Two Saxon Chronicles Parallel, with Supplementary Extracts from the Others," ed. J. Earle (Oxford). A later edition is that of C. Plummer (Oxford, 1892). [J. E.]

Anglo-Saxon Kingdoms. Much that specially distinguishes the development of our national history is due to the fact that the English Conquest was carried out, not by a single people or confederation of peoples, but by independently-acting bodies of adventurers who were sprung from a common stock, and had been living for ages under similar institutions. For thus it came about that, when the success of the long series of separate invasions was assured, and at least half of Britain south of the isthmus of Forth and Clyde had received an English population, and passed under the sway of the English system of rule, this newly-subjugated land was necessarily divided among a large number of distinct, almost isolated, kingdoms and states. By the last quarter of the sixth century, all the eastern and southern coast, from Queensferry to Portland Bill, formed an exclusive sea-board for an Anglian, Saxon, Frisian, and Jutish territory, while a traveller might still make his way from Stirling to the shores of West Bay entirely through Celtic land, without having once to cross tidal water save at the point where the Severn broadens into the Bristol Channel. But the line that parted the two races was somewhat irregular, and, owing to incessant warfare between them, continually changing. In the upper reaches of the English side of the island, two kingdoms had established themselves—Bernicia and Deira, stretching, the former from the Forth to the Tees, the latter from the Tees to the Humber. These are both usually reckoned among the states founded by the Angles, though certain inquirers profess to have detected a Frisian element in their population. Below the Humber a cluster of Anglian settlements—Gyrwas, Lindiswaras, Mercians, Middle Angles, and others—covered a broader area of considerable but indefinable length, and would seem to have been already consolidating into the great kingdom of the Marchland, or Mercia. East Anglia, comprising the North-folk and the South-folk, filled the space between the lower half of the Mercian land and the eastern sea, and had the Stour as its southern boundary. Between the Stour and the Thames dwelt the East and the Middle Saxons, already, it would appear, united into a single kingdom. Westward to the lower Severn and the Forest of Selwood, and southward to the English Channel, spread the kingdom of the West Saxons, in which Surrey had probably been already included. The belt of cleared land that ran, thrust in between the huge forest of Anderida and the sea, from Chichester harbour to the Rother, formed the territory of the South Saxons. In these three southern kingdoms, therefore, we may find the Saxon constituent of the English race in Britain. The Kentish kingdom must have had pretty much the same limits as the present county of Kent. It represented, with the Isle of Wight and the part of Hampshire bordering upon Southampton Water, the area of Jutish settlement. It must also be borne in mind that, scattered over the newly-conquered country, there were not a few smaller states, such as the Hwiccas, the Gyrwas, the Meanwaras, either independent or owing an

incomplete allegiance to one or other of the kingdoms; that Deira and Bernicia showed a disposition to combine into one state, had already once combined, and were sure to become soon permanently incorporated into a Northumbrian kingdom, while the co-existence of the two dioceses of Rochester and Canterbury, from the first organization of the Church in England, has led to the belief that there may have been originally two kingdoms in Kent, the earliest dioceses being generally co-extensive with kingdoms. As yet these several kingdoms and states—at any rate, the greater among them—held aloof from one another. Nor had they yet learned—perhaps the resistance of the natives did not allow them the necessary leisure—even to quarrel among themselves. In fact, each, as a rule, went about its business of fighting with the Welsh, of settlement and apportionment of the soil, of general organization, on its own forces only; they had few relations with one another; the conditions that made the first step towards union possible did not exist. It is true that Ella, the first king of the South Saxons, is represented by Bæda as holding a sort of *imperium* over the "provinces" south of the Humber; but this can scarcely be held to imply an actual territorial domination. An imperial king of the South Saxons in the fifth century is inconceivable. It seems more probable that the word "imperium" bears its accepted classical sense, and implies merely some kind of military confederacy among the invaders, under South Saxon leadership. In another century, however (c. 685), a great change had taken place. The southern part of Northumbria now stretched from sea to sea, its western border-line joining the coast at the head of Morecambe Bay. Mercia had grown considerably towards the south and the west; part of the lower Dee and half the Wye flowed within her confines, and her kings had pushed their conquests from Wessex almost to the Bristol Avon and the upper Thames. But Wessex had helped to make up for these losses by extending her western frontier to the mouths of the Parret and Exe, and by taking Wight within her kingdom. East Anglia, Essex, Kent, and Sussex, having no weaker race in their neighbourhood to encroach upon, were substantially unaltered.

Among these kingdoms a state of things had arisen which Milton in his ignorance of the real facts of the case only caricatures when he calls their mutual dealings "the wars of kites or crows, flocking and fighting in the air." Strife and bloodshed were universal; no kingdom escaped them; even Christianity brought a sword; by far the greater number of battles that are henceforward recorded were fought between Englishmen. Indeed, the several peoples seldom came together save as enemies. And in the course of this warfare the vicissitudes of success were many and sudden; the irresistible conqueror of one day was the hunted fugitive or mangled corpse of the next. Ceawlin of Wessex, after years of nearly unbroken success, in which Briton and Jute went down before him, was, in 591, himself beaten down by his own subjects, and driven from his kingdom. Kent then rose to greatness under the guidance of Ethelbert, who won a sort of supremacy that is stated by Bæda to have reached the Humber, at the same time that another restless warrior, Ethelfrith, was making the might of Northumbria terrible to the north and west of that river. But Ethelbert shrank back, and Ethelfrith fell in battle before the growing power of Redwald, King of the East Angles; and for a few years Redwald held the foremost place among the kings that ruled south of the Humber. Then the turn of Northumbria came: in 630 the authority or influence of her king, Edwin, bore undisputed sway from the Forth to the English Channel, save in Kent alone. Then Penda of Mercia vanquished and slew Edwin (633), and seized a part of his supremacy; but was himself vanquished and slain in 655 by a successor of Edwin's, Oswy, under whom Northumbria regained a fair share of her former ascendancy. But with the death in battle of her next king, Egfrid, in 685, the glory and greatness of the northern kingdom passed away for ever. For a hundred and forty years longer she kept her independence, and at times acted with vigour to the north and west; but her part in determining the destiny of England was played out. These were not futile fightings, after all. The kingdoms were merely taking the best way they knew of settling among themselves which was the most worthy to fulfil the trust of making England a nation. To bringing about this end, the newly-founded Church proved an effective ally. Her authority, being an undivided force that proceeded from a single centre, and her organization covering the whole land, gently drew the separate communities together, made the idea of unity familiar, and must have fostered a vague longing for political union. And the practical effacement of all the smaller kingdoms except East Anglia must also have done something to smooth the way towards this consummation. Essex sank, first into a Mercian, then, seemingly, into a West Saxon dependency; in the last quarter of the seventh century Ceadwalla of Wessex and his successor, Ina, reduced Sussex and Kent beneath their dominion; and these states, without as yet losing their separate existence, never again enjoyed a separate political life.

In the rivalry that was thus narrowed to Mercia and Wessex, the tide of success, during the greater part of the eighth century, ran decidedly in favour of the former; one of the Mercian kings, Ethelbald, was

strong enough to fasten his yoke on the neck of Wessex itself. And, though the stubborn land succeeded in shaking off this yoke by a decisive victory at Burford (752), Offa, a later Mercian king, managed in his long reign (757–96) to raise his power to an unexampled height. Wessex was beaten in battle, and driven below the Thames; Essex and Kent had become almost parts of the Mercian kingdom; and in 793 a deed of the foulest treachery gave Offa the command of East Anglia. From the Welsh, too, the masterful king wrested the wide sweep of scrub-land that lay round Pengwern, and on the site of this place built the town of Shrewsbury (*Scrobbesbyrig, Scrub-bury*), and made the dyke that is still called after his name the western limit of his kingdom, thus bringing the area of England almost to its farthest expansion on the side of Wales. But the sceptre was destined for Wessex, notwithstanding. Pressed down from her northern frontier, and forced, as it would appear, to give up Surrey and Sussex also, she never paused in her slow advance towards Cornwall. Somerset was completed, and the making of Devonshire begun; by the end of the century the Exe, from source to sea, was a West Saxon river. With the first years of the next, Ecgbert, a wise and valiant descendant of earlier kings, came from exile in Charlemagne's dominions, to take on himself the rule of the kingdom; and under his direction the West Saxons went steadily forward on the path that led to national greatness. Ecgbert was long content to repel Mercian invasion, and to push his conquests farther into the Cornish peninsula; in his reign Devon reached its final limits, and the men of Cornwall were driven to accept him as their overlord. At length, in 825, on the field of Ellandune, Mercia and Wessex measured their strength for the last time: and there the might of Mercia was broken. Ere the year was over, Sussex and Surrey had rejoined, Kent and Essex been added to, the victorious kingdom; and the East Anglians had successfully revolted from Mercia, and put themselves under the protection of Ecgbert. The crowning year of triumph for Wessex was 829; then a single campaign made her king master of Mercia, and awed Northumbria into submission; from Edinburgh to Land's End he was supreme lord or immediate king. Of the nature and measure of this West Saxon supremacy, no exact knowledge can be gained; doubtless it gave the right to demand help in war, and a commanding voice in the higher concerns of each kingdom. An unlooked-for force created the conditions that converted this supremacy into actual kingship. Northumbria, Mercia, and East Anglia, though bound to Wessex, still remained distinct kingdoms, each with its dependent king. These kingdoms the Danes laid in ruins; and after the narrow escape of Wessex from the same fate, the line of the Lea, the Ouse, and Watling Street divided England into two political systems, Wessex and the Danelagh, that were practically two hostile camps. Between these, after Alfred's death, the battle was fought out to the bitter end; and this end, when it came—as it did in the reign of Edgar (959–75)—made the whole of England a single kingdom. But either in this or in Canute's reign, the country between the Forth and the Tweed—the Lothians, as it is called—fell, or was torn, away from England: under what circumstances there is no record to tell us.

Sir C. Oman, "England Before the Norman Conquest"; R. W. Chambers, "England Before the Norman Conquest," 1926; T. Hodgkin, "Political History of England," vol. i. [J. R.]

Angoulême, or Angoumois, a province in the south of France bounded on the north by Poitou and on the south by Périgord, was united with England by the marriage of Henry II with Eleanor of Aquitaine. In 1220 it passed into the possession of the Count de la Marche, on his marriage with Isabella of Angoulême, widow of King John. In 1303 it escheated to the French crown on the death without issue of Count Hugh XIII. By the Treaty of Brétigny (q.v.) in 1360, it was restored to England, only to be reconquered by the French in 1372.

A. F. Lièvre, "Angoulême," 1885.

Angria was a pirate-chief, who occupied the rock of Gheria, off the Malabar coast of India. His depredations had caused him to be regarded as the scourge of the adjacent seas. Clive, on his return to India, in 1756, and Admiral Watson, with the British fleet, attacked and destroyed his station.

Biographies of Clive.

Anguilla, a dependency of Nevis (q.v.).

Angus (the older name for the counties of Forfar and Kincardine) was the territory of one of the great Pictish tribes or sub-kingdoms, and was governed by a succession of Celtic "mormaers," one of whom, Dufugan, is styled "Comes" in the reign of Alexander I. After him there is a succession of five Celtic earls. Maud, the heiress of the last of these, carried the earldom by marriage first to the family of the Comyns, then to that of the Umfrevilles, lords of Prudhoe and Redesdale in Northumberland. In 1298–9 Gilbert de Umfreville was summoned to parliament as Earl of Angus. It is probable, however, that this was merely a courtesy title, and that the Umfrevilles were in reality summoned in virtue of their English barony. The last of the family to be summoned as Earl of Angus was Gilbert, who died in 1381. In the meantime their Scottish estates had been confiscated by Robert Bruce and bestowed upon the Stuarts of Bonkyl, who are styled earls of Angus from 1329 onwards. In 1377, on the death of Thomas Stuart, the Scottish earldom passed to his daughter and heiress Margaret. She

had by William, 1st Earl of Douglas, an illegitimate son George, in whose favour she resigned her estates in 1389. [DOUGLAS, THE PEERAGE OF.]

G. E. Cokayne, "The Complete Peerage," new edition.

Angus, EARLS OF. [DOUGLAS.]

Angus, MCFERGUS (*d.* 761), obtained the Pictish throne, 731, after defeating the previous king, Alpin, at the junction of the Tay and the Earn, and annihilating the forces of Nectan MacDerili at Loch Inch. In 732 Angus invaded Dalriada, and drove its king to Ireland. In 736 he again laid waste the kingdom of the Scots, taking the capital, Dunad, and throwing Dungal into prison; this devastation was repeated in 741, when Dalriada for some years sank into the position of a Pictish dependency. Shortly afterwards Angus entered into an alliance with Eadbert of Northumbria against the Britons of Strathclyde, who submitted in 756.

Anjou. [ANGEVINS.]

Anjou, MARGARET OF. [MARGARET OF ANJOU.]

Anlaf (or OLAF) **Cuaran** (*d.* 980), was the son of Sihtric, Danish King of York. After his father's death Anlaf went to Dublin, but soon left Ireland for Scotland, where he married the daughter of Constantine, King of Alban. It was this match which probably provoked Athelstan's invasion of Scotland in 933. Anlaf next appears as his father-in-law's ally at Brunanburh (q.v.) in 937. In 942 he was chosen to succeed his cousin Anlaf Guthfrithson as King of York, but his position was contested by Regnald Guthfrithson, his cousin. In 944 Edmund drove both claimants from their kingdom; but Anlaf again appeared in arms in 949, and was received by the people, till in 952 he was driven abroad for the last time by his turbulent subjects. He now ruled in Dublin for several years, and commanded at the great battle of Tara; but his defeat there by the high king of Ireland seems to have wrought a change in the old warrior, for he started the same year on a pilgrimage to Iona, where he died.

"Havelok the Dane," ed. Madden and Skeat, Early English Text Society; "Anglo-Saxon Chronicle"; Florence of Worcester, "Chronicle," sub an. 937, etc.; Skene, "Celtic Scotland," i. 352, etc.; Sir C. Oman, "England Before the Norman Conquest."

Anlaf (or OLAF) **Guthfrithson,** King of Dublin and Northumberland, succeeded his father as King of Dublin in 933. He came with a great force of Irish and Danes to the assistance of his cousin Anlaf Cuaran at the battle of Brunanburh (q.v.), whence he fled, as the English song of triumph tells us, "over the dark water Dublin to seek." On the death of Athelstan (940) he was called by the Northumbrians to rule over them. He roused the Five Boroughs (q.v.) against Edmund and captured Tamworth; but being beset at Leicester made peace with the English king. He died in 942.

Anlaf Haraldson, Anlaf Tryggvason. [OLAF.]

Annates, or FIRST-FRUITS, were the first year's income of newly-appointed archbishops and bishops, which was exacted by the pope before he would confirm the election. Their exaction was unpopular, and a statute of Henry IV's reign had referred to them as "a horrible mischief and damnable custom." It was not, however, until 1532, in the course of the conflict between Henry VIII and the pope, that a bill was brought in declaring, that whereas "annates had risen, grown, and increased by an uncharitable custom, grounded upon no good or just title, and the payment thereof was enforced by the restraint of bulls, against all equity and justice," the payment of such annates should be discontinued, and that any bishop making such payments should forfeit all his lands and goods to the king, whilst any bishops whom the pope refused to consecrate for non-payment of first-fruits, should be consecrated in England, and "should enjoy their spiritualities and temporalities as completely as if they had obtained their bulls from Rome." The operation of this act was, however, suspended for a time, as Henry waited to see whether the threat would suffice to induce the pope to grant him the wished-for divorce from Katharine of Aragon. When no concessions were forthcoming the rupture with Rome took place, and the statute was re-enacted in 1534, whilst a clause was introduced providing that archbishops and bishops should not "be presented to the Bishop of Rome, otherwise called the Pope, for confirmation, or sue out any bulls at his court; but that they should be elected by *congé d'élire.*" In consequence, the payment of episcopal first-fruits to the pope ceased from this time, but they were paid instead to the Crown. In 1704 the profits from this source were appropriated by the queen to the assistance of the poorer clergy. This was the origin of "Queen Anne's Bounty" (q.v.).

"The Catholic Encyclopædia," under *Annate*; J. R. Tanner, "Tudor Constitutional Documents," 1922.

Anne, QUEEN (*b.* February 6, 1665, *s.* March 8, 1702, *d.* August 1, 1714), the last of the Stuart sovereigns, was the second daughter of James II (while Duke of York) and Anne Hyde. She was bred a Protestant by the express command of Charles II, under the care of Dr. Henry Compton, afterwards Bishop of London. While she was still very young, her hand was sought by George Lewis, electoral prince of Hanover, who eventually succeeded her on the English throne; but in 1683 she married George, brother of Christian V, of Denmark. Prince George was a personage completely without talent, capacity, or ambition, so that throughout his life his political

position was altogether insignificant. Already, before her marriage, Anne had conceived what were perhaps the two strongest emotions of her life. The teaching of Compton, a zealous Anglican, who had suffered for the cause of Church and king in the rebellion, had made her a steadfast and devoted adherent of the Church of England. The design of altering the succession to the throne, on condition that Anne would become a Roman Catholic, entertained by the French and English courts, was nullified by the steady attachment of the princess to the Protestant faith; and Anne had already conceived that violent affection for Sarah Jennings (who became in 1678 the wife of John Churchill) (q.v.), which lasted during the greater portion of her life. It was owing chiefly to the Churchill influence that Anne consented to notify to William of Orange her approval of his landing, and that in the crisis of affairs she fled from Westminster to Dorset's house in Epping Forest. In spite of the efforts of her uncle, Clarendon, she made no objection to the accession of William III and Mary. She was herself declared heir to the throne, failing issue to the sovereigns, and an allowance of £50,000 settled on her. Soon after the Revolution she gave birth to William, Duke of Gloucester, the only one of her numerous children who survived infancy (and he died in 1700 at the age of eleven). Anne gradually became completely estranged from the king and queen, and a party, of which the Churchills were the heads, was formed about her in opposition and known as the "Princess Party." One of the points this party constantly pressed forward was an increase in Anne's income. In 1691 Anne's estrangement from the king went so far that she wrote a letter to James II, begging his forgiveness. On the disgrace of Marlborough, in 1692, Anne quarrelled with her sister, the queen; her guard of honour was taken from her, and she was treated with injudicious coldness and disrespect. After the death of Mary, a formal reconciliation was made, through the mediation of Somers, but there was little friendship on either side. Anne resided at St. James's Palace during the remainder of William's reign, with some of the state befitting the heiress to the throne.

With the death of William in 1702, Anne became queen, and reigned over England during a period of twelve years crowded with important events, and singularly distinguished by illustrious men. The earlier portion of the period was that in which the influence of the Marlboroughs prevailed; in the second that of their opponents was predominant. By the year 1702 the Tories, Godolphin, Nottingham, Normanby, and Pembroke, had supplanted the great Whig ministers, who were chiefly responsible for the Revolution Settlement. The war was entered upon with vigour, under the auspices of Marlborough and Godolphin; a commission was appointed to draw up terms of union between England and Scotland; and the union of the two rival East India Companies accomplished. The chief military events of the year were the capture of Venloo, Ruremond, and Liége, and the expedition against Vigo Bay. In 1703 violent opposition was offered in the Scots parliament to the Union scheme. The Methuen Treaty was concluded with Portugal. Queen Anne's Bounty (q.v.), for the augmentation of the livings of the poorer clergy, was instituted. Next year some changes occurred in the ministry. The high Tories, Nottingham, Jersey, and Seymour, who thwarted Marlborough's war policy, were dismissed, and their places supplied by the moderate Tories, Harley and St. John. In July Gibraltar was captured, and Marlborough won the great battle of Blenheim in August. An attempt to tack the Occasional Conformity Act to the Land Tax Bill was defeated in the Commons. The Aylesbury election case (q.v.) threatened a permanent breach between the two bodies of the legislature. In 1705, Peterborough, in Spain, captured Barcelona, and established the authority of Charles II in Catalonia and Valencia. Commissioners were appointed by the Scots parliament to discuss the terms of the Union in London. It was gradually becoming evident that Marlborough would have to rely on a Whig ministry. In 1707 the chief event was the consummation of the Union with Scotland. The royal assent was given in March. Marlborough gained the battle of Ramillies, thereby driving the French from the Netherlands; but in Spain Charles II had to evacuate Madrid. Mrs. Hill now began to supplant the Duchess of Marlborough in the royal favour, and the influence of Harley began to be appreciable. He instituted a series of intrigues in company with St. John, with a view to driving the Whig ministers from office. Meanwhile Louis had made offers for peace, which were rejected. In the following year Harley's intrigues, which took the form of an attack on the naval administration, were discovered, and he was forced to resign. On the failure of a composite ministry, the Whig junto came into power. The military events of the year were unfortunate. In Spain the allies were utterly defeated at Almanza; nor was Eugene's attack on Toulon successful. In 1708 the Pretender made an unsuccessful expedition to Scotland; and Marlborough, in Flanders, gained a great victory at Oudenarde. The queen suffered great grief from the loss of her husband, to whom she was sincerely attached. Meanwhile, it was evident that the Whig ministry was insecure. Once more Louis offered to treat. His terms were rejected; and Marlborough won a bloody victory at Malplaquet. In 1710 important changes took place at home. Mrs. Hill, now Mrs. Masham, had completely supplanted the Duchess of Marlborough in the royal favour.

The nation was weary of the war; and the injudicious prosecution of Dr. Sacheverell by the Whig ministry produced a violent outcry against them. Sunderland and Godolphin were dismissed, and Harley was entrusted with the formation of a Tory ministry. The conference at Gertruydenberg resulted in nothing. In Spain the allies gained victories at Almenara and Saragossa, and Charles was once more established in Madrid; but these results were neutralized by the defeat of Stanhope at Brihuega. It soon became evident that the new ministry had determined on a peace policy, and that some of them, at all events, were willing that the Stuarts should be restored. The chief event at home in 1711 was the formation of the South Sea Company. Harley, now exceedingly popular on account of Guiscard's attempt to stab him, rapidly opened negotiations for peace. Marlborough's campaign in the year was resultless. On his return he was violently attacked in parliament, and deprived of his office. Twelve new peers were created, in order to "swamp" the majority in the House of Lords. In 1712 Ormonde was placed in command of the army, with instructions to attempt nothing. A conference was opened at Utrecht, and the terms of peace were laid before the House. In July Ormonde separated from the allies. Marlborough quitted England in November, and remained abroad until the queen's death. The Treaty of Utrecht (q.v.) was signed in March 1713. Meanwhile, the failing health of the queen threw open the succession question. Harley was evidently unwilling to consent to a return of the Stuarts; but no such scruples restrained St. John, now Viscount Bolingbroke. The remodelling of the army was entrusted to Ormonde, but the scheme failed owing to the neglect of Harley to supply the necessary funds. As a blind, Bolingbroke introduced into the House a proposition that the Protestant succession was in no danger. The design of the Whigs to bring the Electoral Prince over to England was thwarted by the wise caution of George of Hanover, and by the evident dislike of the queen to such a step. Bolingbroke now saw that he must drive Harley from office; he therefore introduced his Schism Bill, which Harley, who was of Low Church principles, could not support. He was accordingly dismissed. Everything was now in Bolingbroke's favour, but his plans were foiled by the fatal illness of the queen. As she lay on her death-bed, she was induced by a deputation of the council to entrust the lord treasurer's staff to Shrewsbury, now firm in his attachment to the house of Hanover. There is considerable reason, nevertheless, to believe that Anne would have consented to her brother's succession to the throne if only he would have changed his religion.

Anne was very popular with the nation, but this, perhaps, was due rather to the fact that she was the last of the dynasty, which, in spite of its faults, retained a strong hold on the sympathies of Englishmen, than to any special merits of her own. She was a woman of somewhat narrow intellect, violent prejudices, and weak judgment. Her strongest political passions were devoted attachment to the Established Church, and dislike to the Whigs, whom she regarded as the enemies of legitimacy and of royalty itself; but, except when her prejudices and her obstinacy were roused, she had little strength of will, and was easily led by her female favourites. While she was under the fascination of the Duchess of Marlborough, she lent herself readily to the great schemes of the duke; when, subsequently, the influence of Abigail Hill was completely established over her, she allowed herself with no less willingness to countenance the projects of Harley. Of taste and wit she had little, and she showed scarcely any conception of the great intellectual movement which has rendered her reign an illustrious period in English literary history. She had, however, some compensating qualities. Her private life was exemplary; she was a good wife and a devoted mother. Her long and much-tried friendship with her haughty favourite was, at any rate, a testimony to the goodness of her heart and the strength of her affections. "Scarce any person," says Lord Stanhope, "ever endured more for a friend, or from a friend." As applied to her private character, at least, the familiar appellation of "good" Queen Anne is, perhaps, not undeserved.

Boyer, "Annals," and Burnet, "History of his Own Times": both valuable, but both to be used with care, as being the works of violent Whig partisans; Macpherson, "Stuart Papers"; Coxe, "Memoirs of Marlborough"; Mrs. Thomson, "Memoirs of the Duchess of Marlborough, and of the Court of Queen Anne," 1839; "Private Correspondence of the Duchess of Marlborough," 1838; Cobbett, "Parliamentary History"; W. Wilson, "Life of Defoe," 1830; Lamberty, "Mémoires"; Tindal's "Rapin's History of England"; Swift's works (esp. "Journal to Stella," "Inquiry into the Conduct of the Last Ministry," and "Thoughts on the State of the Nation"), and "The History of the Last Four Years of Queen Anne," generally ascribed to him, are the ablest expression of the Tory view; see also Torcy, "Mémoires"; and Bolingbroke, "Correspondence." Biographies of Queen Anne, by H. Paul, 1906; P. F. W. Ryan, 1908; W. T. Morgan, "Political Parties in the Reign of Anne," 1920. [L. C. S.]

Anne Boleyn, QUEEN, second wife of Henry VIII (1507–36), was the daughter of Sir Thomas Boleyn, who married the Lady Elizabeth Howard, daughter of the Duke of Norfolk. She was in her youth taken by her father to the French court, but returned in 1522. She is described as a little lively brunette, with long black hair and beautiful eyes. She was the object of much flirtation in the English court, and Henry VIII, beginning from idle gallantry, advanced to an uncontrollable passion for her. Honours and emoluments were showered upon her father. At last, in 1527, Henry VIII resolved to divorce

Katharine that he might marry Anne, whom he lodged magnificently in his palace. The momentous proceedings to obtain a divorce were entrusted to the charge of Wolsey, and when, in 1529, his failure was manifest, his fall rapidly followed. Henry VIII still pursued his efforts to obtain a divorce, and meanwhile went about the country in company with Anne Boleyn. This created much indignation amongst the people, and the mode of life of the king and Anne Boleyn was generally regarded as dishonourable. The vacillation of Pope Clement VII had lasted too long for his firmness to be successful; when, at the end of 1532, he issued a brief, bidding Henry to take back Katharine, and forbidding him to marry Anne Boleyn, Henry VIII had gone too far to retrace his steps. On January 25, 1533, he was privately married, and the new archbishop (Cranmer) pronounced his divorce from Katharine. The marriage with Anne was then avowed, and confirmed by the archbishop, and the new queen was crowned in June. On September 7 she gave birth to a daughter, Elizabeth. But Anne Boleyn had only a brief enjoyment of the position for which she had waited so long. On January 7, 1536, Katharine of Aragon died, and Anne Boleyn could not conceal her delight. Shortly afterwards she brought into the world a dead child, to the king's great disappointment, as he wished for a male heir. He looked on Anne's conduct with suspicion. The lightheartedness and brilliancy which had once attracted him now seemed to be culpable frivolity. On May-day the king abruptly left some games at which he was present with the queen, and on the next day Anne was committed to the Tower on the charge of treason and adultery. Her brother, Lord Rochford, Henry Norris, Smeaton, a musician, and Brereton and Weston, gentlemen of the bedchamber, were apprehended as her accomplices. Smeaton and Norris made some confessions of guilt, but it is hard to estimate how far they were true. That Anne was frivolous, and had behaved with some indecorum, may be admitted; but opinions must continue to differ as to the degree of her guilt. She was arraigned before a commission of twenty-seven peers, presided over by the Duke of Norfolk. The evidence of the confessions was regarded as sufficient for her condemnation. Cranmer was induced to declare her marriage null and void, and on May 19, 1536, she was beheaded.

"Calendar of State Papers of Henry VIII," with J. S. Brewer's Introd. to vol. iv; J. H. Round, "Early Life of Anne Boleyn," 1886; and biography by P. Friedmann, 1884. [M. C.]

Anne, Daughter of Edward IV (1475–1511), was married in 1495 to Lord Thomas Howard, son of the Earl of Surrey, by whom she had one son, who died in infancy.

Anne, Daughter of Richard, Duke of York (*d.* 1475), was married first to Henry Holland, Duke of Exeter (q.v.), from whom she was divorced, and secondly to Sir Thomas St. Leger.

Anne Neville, Queen (1456–85), wife of Richard III, was the younger daughter of Richard Neville, the great Earl of Warwick. In 1470 she was betrothed (though it is doubtful whether she was actually married) to Edward, Prince of Wales, son of Henry VI. After his death at Tewkesbury, in 1471, she was sought in marriage by Richard, then Duke of Gloucester. Clarence, who had married her sister Isabel, strongly opposed the match, and disguised her as a cookmaid; but she was discovered by Richard, married to him in 1473, and bore him a son in 1476. In 1483 she was crowned queen with Richard. In 1484 her young son died, "an unhappy death," according to the Continuator of the "Croyland Chronicle"; and the queen did not long survive him, dying on March 16, 1485.

"Cont. Croyland Chronicle"; the "Chronicles" of Rous, Hall, and Holinshed; Strickland, "Queens of England," ii, 373; J. Gairdner, "Richard III," 1878 and 1898. [M. C.]

Anne of Bohemia, Queen (1366–94), wife of Richard II, daughter of the Emperor Charles IV, was married to Richard in 1382. Her sweet and gentle disposition earned for her the title of "Good Queen Anne," and her influence seems to have had some effect in mitigating the violence and disorder of her husband's reign. It is said that the cruel reprisals taken on the Kentish revolters were discontinued at her intercession; and that the quarrel between the king and the citizens of London, which culminated in the riot of 1392, was healed by her mediation. In one instance only does her influence appear to have been bad. She is reported to have worked for the divorce of the king's favourite, de Vere, Earl of Oxford, from his wife, who was connected with several of the great noble families, in order that he might marry one of her Bohemian ladies. Anne of Bohemia was said to be well versed in the Bible, and to have read it in a Bohemian or German version; but there is little evidence to support the view that she and her attendants, English and Bohemian, actively favoured Wyclif. There is, however, little doubt that the connexion between England and Bohemia, brought about by her marriage, did much to make the writings of Wyclif better known on the continent, and especially in Germany. The proscriptions of the "Merciless" Parliament (q.v.) of 1386 were specially directed against the queen's attendants, and King Richard afterwards declared, at the trial of the Earl of Arundel, that the queen was three hours on her knees before the earl, pleading with tears for the life of Sir Simon Burley, one of her esquires.

H. Wallon, "Richard II," 1864. [S. L.]

Anne of Burgundy (*d.* 1432) was the daughter of John Sans Peur and sister of Philip the Good, Duke of Burgundy. She was married in 1423 to John, Duke of Bedford (q.v.).

Anne of Cleves, Queen (1515–57), fourth wife of Henry VIII, was the daughter of John, 3rd Duke of Cleves, by Marie, daughter of William, Duke of Jülich, Berg, and Ravensberg. Anxious to secure for England the goodwill of the Schmalcaldic League, Thomas Cromwell, after the death of Jane Seymour, proposed to Henry an alliance with the German Protestant princes by means of a marriage with Anne of Cleves; and the king, who was greatly pleased with a portrait he received of his intended bride, willingly lent himself to Cromwell's proposition. Landing at Deal December 27, 1539, Anne proceeded to Rochester, where Henry first saw her. Her person, however, failed altogether to come up to the expectations he had formed from her portrait. He called a council to consider if there was any possibility of getting out of the marriage engagement to her without involving himself in a quarrel with her family. A sort of prior contract between Anne and Francis, son of the Duke of Lorraine, was, however, the only respectable objection to the marriage that could be raised; and this, when named to the Duke of Cleves's ambassadors, was completely disposed of by an offer on their part to produce a formal renunciation of the contract. Henry was therefore obliged to submit to the distasteful marriage, which was celebrated at Greenwich on January 6, 1540. For a time Henry was able to treat his queen with a fair show of respect; but after the execution of Cromwell, the original proposer of the marriage, he sought no longer to conceal his feeling of aversion for her. The marriage was finally annulled, and the decision to that effect duly ratified by parliament, on three grounds, viz., (1) that she had been previously contracted to the Duke of Lorraine; (2) that he, Henry, had not *inwardly* given his consent; (3) that the marriage had never been consummated. As some consolation to Anne for this loss of position, it was arranged that she should be treated as an adopted sister, and that she should enjoy the honours of precedence next to the queen and the king's daughter. These terms, and the further promise of an annual settlement of £3,000, procured Anne's willing assent to the proposed divorce. She passed the remainder of her days in England, where she died at her palace of Chelsea, July 16, 1557. By Queen Mary's orders her funeral was solemnized in Westminster Abbey with regal splendour.

M. Hume, "Wives of Henry VIII," 1927.

[S. L.]

Anne of Denmark, Queen (1574–1619), wife of James VI of Scotland and I of England, was the second daughter of Frederick II, King of Denmark, and was married to James in 1589. She seems to have been at one time a Roman Catholic, and at her coronation as Queen of England she refused to receive the sacrament according to the rites of the English Church. But she took little part in politics, and the Roman Catholic party quickly found it was useless to hope for anything from her. With the exception of some occasional interference in the cause of a favourite, she seems to have contented herself with entertaining the king and his courtiers with balls and masques. She was never on very good terms with her husband, and took great delight in making him jealous and exposing him to ridicule. She is reported to have been on rather intimate terms both with the Earl of Moray, who was assassinated (it is suggested with the king's connivance) by the Earl of Huntly, and with Alexander Ruthven, brother of the Earl of Gowrie, who met with a similar fate. The most pleasant fact that is recorded about her is her intercession for Sir Walter Ralegh's life. Her character has been very differently represented, but perhaps Hume's estimate, that she was "a woman eminent neither for her vices nor her virtues," is on the whole the fairest one.

Annesley, Arthur, 5th Earl of Anglesey (*d.* 1737), held several posts in Ireland in the reign of Queen Anne. In 1711 he hastened from Ireland to take part in the debates on the war, and commented severely on the exhaustion of the country, hinting that Marlborough had averted peace from interested motives. But on a subsequent occasion he attacked the ministry, and publicly apologized for the part he had played in politics. During the last years of Queen Anne he was one of the leaders of the faction of Hanoverian Tories whom Swift calls the "Whimsicals." He was one of the lords justices appointed to administer the kingdom between the death of Anne and the arrival of George I.

Annesley Peerage Case, The (1743), arose out of a disputed claim to the honours and estates of the Anglesey peerage. Soon after the assumption of the title by Richard, 6th earl, James Annesley, who professed to be the son of Lord Altham, elder brother of the earl, laid claim to the title and estates. The claimant, who was popularly known as "the unfortunate young nobleman," stated that he had been kidnapped in infancy by his uncle's orders, and sent to the American colonies. On November 11, 1743, he commenced an action against his uncle in the Irish Court of Exchequer. The result of the trial (which was said to have been the longest known up to that time) was that he gained a verdict, but made no further effort to obtain his title. On the death of Richard, 6th earl, in 1761, the right of his son Arthur to succeed him was disputed. The Irish House of Lords confirmed his title. The English House of Lords, how-

ever, held that the earldom of Anglesey had expired with the father of this nobleman, who, notwithstanding, continued to sit in the Irish parliament as Viscount Valentia, and was subsequently created Earl of Mountnorris.

"State Trials," xvii, 1139, etc.

Annesley's Case (1719) produced an important constitutional dispute between the English and the Irish Houses of Lords. A suit for the possession of certain lands in Kildare, between Hester Sherlock and Maurice Annesley, had been decided in favour of the latter by the Irish Court of Exchequer. On appeal, the Irish House of Lords reversed the decision. This might have been considered final; but Annesley appealed to the English House of Lords, who affirmed the judgment of the Court of Exchequer, and ordered Annesley to be put in possession of the estate. The court made an order accordingly, but the sheriff of Kildare refused to execute it. He was thereupon fined £1,200, and brought his case before the Irish House of Lords. That body resolved, after taking the opinions of the judges, that the final right of appeal from the Irish courts lay with them, and ordered the barons of the exchequer into custody for acting on the decision of the English House. The latter, however, caused a bill to be brought in (which passed by a majority of 63), asserting the inferior position of the Irish House of Lords, and depriving it of all appellate jurisdiction whatsoever. This act was a mere stretch of power, for the Irish Lords had frequently entertained both writs of error and appeals in equity.

Annuities are certain sums of money paid yearly, and are charged upon the person or personal estate of the individual from whom they are due. If an annuity is charged upon real estate it is called a rent charge. Before the reign of Anne the annuities which had been granted by the Crown as a reward for services performed, or for other reasons, had been charged upon the hereditary revenues, and it had been held that the king had power, in law, to bind his successors. On the accession of Queen Anne an act was passed to restrain the alienation of any portion of the hereditary revenues for a longer period than the life of the reigning sovereign; so that it became the practice to re-grant annuities and pensions at the beginning of a fresh reign. On the establishment of a civil list under George III, government annuities were charged on it instead of on the hereditary revenues; and the indiscriminate granting of pensions by the Crown was checked by act of parliament, 1782, the Irish annuities being regulated in 1793, and the Scottish in 1810. In 1837 the right of the Crown to grant pensions was restricted to £1,200 a year, and to "such persons as have just claims on the royal beneficence." The system of granting annuities as a political bribe, which had been much in favour under the Stuarts, was done away with in 1705, when holders of government annuities were declared incapable of sitting in parliament, though the act was occasionally evaded by the granting of secret pensions. The system of raising government loans by means of annuities began in 1692, when the "Million Act" empowered the raising of that sum for the expenses of the French war by means of a tontine annuity, and several similar statutes were passed during the war of Queen Anne's reign. During the Austrian Succession and Seven Years' Wars, government annuities were frequently granted by way of bonus or premium to the subscribers of government loans. In 1773 a measure was passed through the House of Commons, under the auspices of Burke, to enable the working classes to invest their savings in the purchase of deferred annuities, but it was rejected by the Lords. In 1779 the government was authorized to raise £7,000,000 by annuity. "The government of that period," says Mr. Walford, "was driven to great extremities for raising money; nearly every session one or two Annuity Acts were passed, generally accompanied by a lottery." Acts were passed on the subject in 1808, 1817, and 1863; the last named, besides consolidating and amending the law on government annuities, inaugurated the system of granting annuities for small amounts through the medium of savings banks.

Sir T. Erskine May, "Constitutional History," ed. F. Holland, 1912; Walford's "Insurance Cyclopædia" contains an elaborate and exhaustive article, embracing both public and private annuities; Buxton, "Finance and Politics"; Hilton Young, "The System of National Finance"; Scott, "Joint Stock Companies," vol. iii; "Encyclopædia Britannica," *Annuities*. Statutes 4 W. & M., c. 3; 19 Geo. III, c. 18; 48 Geo. III, c. 142; 16 and 17 Vict., c. 45.

[S. L.]

Anselm, St. (1033–1109), Archbishop of Canterbury, was born at or near Aosta. His father, a vassal of Maurienne, was a man of some wealth and position, but of unthrifty habits and violent temper. When only fifteen Anselm ardently desired to enter the monastic life, but his father refused his consent. A severe illness did not soften the old man, and when his mother's death removed the last barrier to the father's tyranny, Anselm crossed the Alps with a single attendant to seek a career and escape his father's oppression. He spent three years in Burgundy, and was thence attracted to Normandy. After a sojourn at Avranches, where Lanfranc had once taught, Anselm removed to Bec, now flourishing under Lanfranc as prior. After a severe course of study and discipline he took the vows, at the age of twenty-seven. Three years later he was elected prior on Lanfranc's removing to Caen. His administration made Bec inferior only to Cluny in general repute and superior to it in learning. Not only did Bec turn out great

scholars, but Anselm infused a high intellectual tone into the whole monastery. He now published his famous "Proslogion" and "Monologion," and in 1078, when Herlwin died, was made abbot. This office led to several visits to England, to look after the estates Bec had obtained from the Conqueror. These visits made him widely known among all classes of Englishmen. He renewed his connexion with Lanfranc, now archbishop, became acquainted with Eadmer of Canterbury, his future biographer, and established cordial relations with Earl Hugh of Chester. He had a good word to say for English saints like Alphege when Lanfranc denied their claims to martyrdom. Lanfranc died in 1089, and everyone recognized in Anselm the one man who could, as at Bec, continue Lanfranc's work and keep William II in check. But William kept the see vacant four years, to secure, with the rich temporalities, freedom from unpleasant advice. In 1092 Anselm again visited England, very unwillingly, lest he should be accused of ambition, but overcome at last by the importunity for spiritual consolation of Earl Hugh, now very ill. Anselm was still in England when a sudden illness stirred Rufus's sluggish conscience, and he resolved to atone for his past crimes by making the Abbot of Bec archbishop. Anselm was almost dragged before the sick king's bed, and after a show of resistance, ludicrous if not sincere, was positively forced to accept the office. But if archbishop he would maintain all the rights of his church. Only on William's promise to resign the temporalities, to listen to Anselm's advice in things spiritual, and to acknowledge Urban II instead of the imperial anti-Pope Clement, did he submit to consecration (December 4, 1093). William soon recovered, relapsed into his old ways, and quarrelled with Anselm. Anselm's present of 500 marks was scornfully rejected as inadequate. His desire for the convocation of a council to check the tide of profligacy and profanity was equally unheeded. At last William's refusal to acknowledge Urban, or to allow Anselm to go to Rome to receive the pallium from that pope, led to a definite rupture. The Great Council of Rockingham (q.v.) failed to make Anselm give way to William; but the king ended the dispute himself by secretly acknowledging Urban, and getting from him Anselm's pallium. The fresh difficulty of Anselm's refusal to accept it from lay hands was got over by his taking it himself from the high altar of his cathedral. But within a year William summoned him before the Curia Regis on a charge of inadequately fulfilling his feudal obligations in the Welsh war. Anselm now appealed to the pope, wrung from Rufus a licence to travel, and left England in October 1097. William at once seized on the estates of his see. At Rome, Anselm soon found that Urban, though very friendly, was too wary to quarrel with the English king. While in Italy he took part in two councils. At Bari he defended the double Procession against the Greeks. At the Lateran he shared in excommunicating all concerned with the sin of lay investiture. Tired of fruitless waiting, Anselm left Italy in the early summer of 1099, and lived chiefly at Lyons, till William's death and Henry's need of friends recalled him from exile. But though Henry had urged Anselm's immediate return, he required him before long to renew his homage, and be again "invested" with his archbishopric. Thus the investiture contest at last crossed over into England, but was conducted in a spirit different from that displayed by Gregory VII and Henry IV. Anselm absolutely refused to yield; Henry insisted on prerogative and precedent; but king and prelate always treated each other with the utmost courtesy. An agreement to refer the matter to the pope led only to Paschal II's strong support of Anselm; and as Henry would not give way, the primate went into exile a second time, in 1103. In 1105 Anselm felt compelled to threaten excommunication, but his ultimatum led to an interview and reconciliation with Henry, when the famous compromise was devised which was confirmed at a gemot held in London in August 1107, and which half a generation later was accepted at Worms by pope and emperor. In 1106 Anselm returned. He gave canonical consecration to the bishops irregularly appointed during the rupture, and efficiently aided Henry against the feudalists. He found time to compose a treatise on the Agreement of Grace and Predestination with Free Will. He died April 21, 1109, aged seventy-six, and was buried next to Lanfranc at Canterbury. Not till the end of the fifteenth century did he receive formal canonization from the worst of popes, Alexander VI; but long before this Dante had placed him in paradise among the greatest saints of Christendom. Anselm's personal character was lofty and pure. But the saint in private life was also a churchman and a politician of high rank, the successful governor of a great abbey and greater see, and the author of the investiture compromise. He represented the highest ideals of mediæval Christendom. His contest with William and Henry was to him a struggle for principle and divine law against mere force and worldliness. That it involved the subordination of budding nationality to dying cosmopolitanism, the subjection of the state to a spiritual tyranny as ruthless as that of William, could not be seen by Anselm.

As the precursor of at least one side of scholastic philosophy, Anselm has an equal claim to fame. Although his unsystematic treatises became unduly neglected when brought into competition with the vast and methodical tractates of the later schoolmen, he, more than anyone else, gave that impulse to justify Scripture and the Church by reason and dialectic, which was the dominant idea of the

most characteristic school of mediæval philosophy. In the "Monologion" he tried to "elicit from the necessity of reason, without the aid of Scripture, the idea of God and the real foundation of it," by recourse to the Platonic theory of "ideas," as expressed by St. Augustine. In the "Proslogion" he pursues the same line still further, and anticipates Descartes's famous principle "that the idea of God in the human mind necessarily involves the reality of that idea." His "Cur Deus Homo" attempts to establish a logical and rational theory of the Incarnation, and has profoundly influenced all subsequent speculation on that subject. His crude realism passed away with the advent of more systematic thinking, but the impulse he gave remained permanent.

Anselm's works are in Migne ("Patrologiæ Cursus Completus"). "Cur Deus Homo" has been translated into English (Oxford, 1858), and the "Monologion" and "Proslogion" into French, with comments, in Bouchitte's "Rationalisme Chrétien" (Paris, 1842). Some of the "Meditations" have been done into English by Dr. Pusey.

Eadmer's "Vita Anselmi" (printed in the Rolls Series) and "Historia Novella" (printed in Migne, "Patrolog., v, 159) are our great sources for the personal and political career of Anselm. After 1093 his history is the history of the time, and much therefore can be got from the general authorities for the period. They are fully and elaborately worked up in E. A. Freeman's "William Rufus." Dean Church's "Saint Anselm" is still the best general account of him in English, better than that in Dean Hook's "Lives of the Archbishops of Canterbury." An elaborate, though not altogether satisfactory, "Life" was published in 1883 by M. Rule; also biographies by J. M. Rigg, 1896, and R. W. Church, 1895. [T. F. T.]

Anson, George, 1st Baron (1697–1762), in 1716 became second lieutenant of H.M.S. *Hampshire*, and during the two following years sailed under Admiral Byng in the Mediterranean. In 1724 he attained the rank of post-captain. He visited South Carolina, and founded the town of Anson (1733). In 1740 he was dispatched with six vessels to sail round Cape Horn and rifle the shores of Peru. Beset by terrible storms, he appointed the island of Juan Fernandez as a rendezvous for his ships. Meanwhile scurvy broke out. The vessels at length arrived at the island, except the *Wager*, which was wrecked. The Spanish fleet sent to attack them was driven back into the Rio de la Plata. Foiled in his attempt to catch the Spanish treasure ship, Anson sailed westward from America with the *Centurion*, his sole remaining ship, and arrived at Spithead in June 1744, after an absence of three years and nine months, during which he had circumnavigated the globe. He was at once appointed rear-admiral of the blue and commissioner of the admiralty. In 1746 he was made vice-admiral. In the following year he commanded the Channel squadron, and defeated De la Jonquière off Cape Finisterre. For this exploit he was raised to the peerage. In 1749 he became vice-admiral of Great Britain, and in 1751 first lord of the admiralty. He commanded at the descent on Cherbourg in 1758. Three years later he was promoted to the high rank of admiral of the fleet. Anson's talents were of a rather mediocre order, and scarcely bore a proportion to the honours and success he attained. He was dull and somewhat unready in business, so that it was said of him after his famous expedition that he had been round the world but never in it. He was, however, a man of great courage, coolness, and determination.

"Anson's Voyage," compiled from his papers soon after his return in 1744, and frequently reprinted; D. L. Purvis, "English Circumnavigators," 1874; biography by W. V. Anson, 1912.

Anstruther, Robert (1768–1809), was quartermaster-general to Sir Ralph Abercromby's army in Egypt, in the campaign of 1800. In 1808 he went to Portugal with the reinforcements for Sir Arthur Wellesley's division, and was present at the battle of Vimeiro, in command of a brigade. In the subsequent campaign of this year he commanded the rearguard of Sir John Moore's army during the retreat. He died of exhaustion and fatigue, brought on by his exertions during the campaign, the second day after the army arrived at Corunna, and was buried in that city by the side of his commander.

Sir C. W. C. Oman, "Peninsular War," 1902–20.

Anti-Corn Law League. [Corn Laws.]

Antigua, with Barbuda (q.v.) and Redonda as dependencies, forms one of the Leeward Island presidencies. Discovered and named by Columbus in 1493 after a church in Seville, it remained unoccupied until settled by the English from St. Kitts in 1632. Included in Willoughby's grant of 1663, it was ravaged by the French in 1666, but recaptured in 1667 and ceded to England by the Treaty of Breda (q.v.). In 1736 a slave revolt was crushed with severity. Moravian missionaries had mitigated the slave system, which was abolished unconditionally at the general emancipation. Crown colony government with a partly elective legislative council was adopted in 1898 (8 out of 16). It is the seat of government of the Leeward Islands Federation, but has a local nominated executive council and a legislative council of eight official and eight unofficial members.

Sir J. Maclean, "Antigua and the Antiguans"; V. L. Oliver, "History of the Island of Antigua," 3 vols., 1894–9. [H. R.]

"Anti-Jacobin," The, was a magazine established in November 1797, and brought out weekly until the following July, under the editorship of William Gifford. The most distinguished of its contributors were John Hookham Frere, George Ellis, and George Canning.

H. W. V. Temperley, "Canning," 1905.

Antilles was the early name for West Indies (q.v.).

Anti-Slavery Association. [Slavery.]

Antrim, Alexander Macdonnell, 3rd Earl of (1615–99). [Macdonnell.]

Antrim, Randal Macdonnell, Marquis of (*d.* 1683). [Macdonnell.]

Antwerp, Expedition against (1809). [Walcheren Expedition.]

Antwerp, The Surrender of (1706), was an important advantage for the allies in the War of the Spanish Succession. The town was the key to the Scheldt fortresses, and in fact commanded the whole of Brabant and West Flanders. Marlborough was so convinced of its importance that he termed his plans against it "the great design." The fortress had previously been occupied by Boufflers, who had driven Opdam from it. After the battle of Ramillies, Cadogan was sent to summon the town. Marlborough awaited the news with anxiety, as a siege would cause great delay. The inhabitants were, however, to a man in favour of their new king, and the French were therefore compelled to give up the town. For the remainder of the war it remained in the hands of the allies.

H. M. A. Parnell, "War of the Spanish Succession," 1905.

Appa Sahib became regent of Nagpur in 1816. He sought assistance from the British, and a subsidiary treaty was concluded May 27, 1816, which provided that a force of 6,000 infantry, and a regiment of cavalry, together with the due proportion of artillery, should be subsidized by the Nagpur state at an expense of 7½ lacs per annum; and that the raja should engage in no foreign negotiation without the concurrence of the British government. On February 1, 1817, Appa Sahib mounted the throne with the title of Madhogi Bhonsla. Anxious to be freed from dependence, he entered into the Mahratta confederacy against the British, while professing the most inviolable attachment to the latter. On hearing of the attack made on Mr. Elphinstone by Baji Rao on November 5, he inveighed against such perfidy in very strong terms, though at the same time he was preparing his resources for a treacherous attack on the British residency. He was twice dethroned, and died a pensioner of Ranjit Singh.

Mill, "History of India" (Wilson's ed.), viii, ch. iv–ix; L. J. Trotter, "History of India," 3rd ed. 1917.

Appeal of Treason. [Treason.]

Appeals to Rome. [Papacy.]

Appellants, or Lords Appellant, was the name given to the nobles who in 1387 "appealed" of treason Richard II's friends, de Vere, Neville, de la Pole, Tressilian, and Bramber. When it was known that the king, with the aid of his supporters in various parts of the country and the citizens of London, was attempting to resume the full exercise of his authority, of which he had been deprived by the commission forced on him the previous year, the Duke of Gloucester, after defeating Vere at Radcot Bridge (q.v.), marched with a large body of troops to London, and compelled Richard (November 17) to receive a petition of complaint against his counsellors. The Appellants exhibited the bill of impeachment in the "Merciless" Parliament (q.v.), which met in February 1388, and, in spite of the protests of the judges, it was carried. Three of the ministers had already escaped from the kingdom; but Tressilian and Bramber were arrested and put to death. The Appellants were five in number—the Duke of Gloucester, and the Earls of Derby, Nottingham, Warwick, and Arundel. [Richard II; Gloucester, Thomas, Duke of.]

Appellate Jurisdiction is "the jurisdiction exercised by a court of justice at the instance of a person complaining of the decision of another court called, in reference to the court of appeal, the court below." Before the Norman Conquest no suit could be carried to a higher tribunal until it had been first heard in the hundred court; thence an appeal lay to the shire-moot, and thence to the witenagemot, which was the final court of appeal. Under the Norman kings, appeals were decided in the Curia Regis; while the appeal from the ordinary law courts under Henry II lay to the sovereign as the source of justice, and to the Concilium Ordinarium. By degrees, however, petitions for redress were addressed to the chancellor rather than the king; and in the reign of Edward III the Court of Chancery was constituted as a court of equity, but not of appeal. The Concilium Ordinarium (and not the Commune Concilium) was for long the only court of appeal; by degrees its appellate jurisdiction passed to the House of Lords, whose power to hear common law appeals has never been questioned. In 1671, however, in the famous case of Shirley v. Fagg (q.v.), the Commons denied that the Lords could hear appeals from equity; but this right, first asserted in the reign of Charles I, has never been attacked since. In 1358 the Court of Exchequer Chamber was created as an intermediate court of appeal between the common law courts and the House of Lords; the powers of this court were extended in 1585, and reconstituted in 1831. Under Henry VIII, appeals from the ecclesiastical courts to Rome were forbidden under the penalty of præmunire, and appeals from the archbishops' courts were declared to lie to the king in Chancery, who was to appoint Lords Delegates of Appeals to hear appeals from the admiralty, ecclesiastical, and baronial courts. In 1833 this appellate jurisdiction was transferred to the Judicial Committee of the Privy Council. By the Supreme Court of Judicature Act (36 & 37 Vict., c. 60) of 1873, the

appellate functions of this committee, and of the Court of Exchequer Chamber, were transferred to the High Court of Appeal constituted by that act, with appellate jurisdiction from all courts of common law and equity, and from the Palatine Courts of Durham and Lancaster. The final appeal was still left to the House of Lords. [CHANCERY ; EXCHEQUER CHAMBER ; LORDS, HOUSE OF.] [F. S. P.]

Apprentices are persons bound by indentures to serve a master for a certain period, receiving in return for their services maintenance and instruction in their master's craft. The system of apprenticeship in England is of very ancient date, and probably was instituted as early as the trade gilds themselves. In mediæval times the principle of combination amongst members of one trade was universally recognized, and in order to practise any craft it was necessary to become free of the company or gild of that craft. This freedom was obtained by serving an apprenticeship of so many years ; and as the number of apprentices which each master was allowed to take was usually limited, a material check was placed upon the numbers of those who were privileged to exercise each trade. Although the system of apprenticeship existed in England from about the twelfth century, and is occasionally referred to in acts of parliament (e.g., 12 Rich. II, c. 3), it was not until 1563 that the famous Statute of Apprentices (5 Eliz., c. 4) was passed. By this act no person was allowed to exercise a trade unless he had previously served a seven years' apprenticeship to it ; though the restriction was later construed as not affecting trades which were established in England after the passing of the statute. Manufacturers accordingly disregarded its restrictions. This act was thus found very burdensome, and although it was judicially interpreted to apply only to towns, it was suspended for the cloth trade in 1803, and altogether repealed in 1814 on the recommendation of a committee of the House of Commons ; some reservations were, however, made " in favour of the customs and by-laws of the city of London and of other cities, and of corporations and companies lawfully constituted." The Statute of Apprentices, notable for the evidence it exhibits of growing national unity at the time of its passing, had been at best an attempt to stereotype conditions which the rise of industrial and commercial (as against agricultural) interests was already rendering obsolete. Apprenticeship served also as a device for finding work for the destitute. In 1601 it was enacted that the overseers of a parish might bind pauper boys as apprentices until their twenty-fourth year, and girls until the age of twenty-one, or marriage. In 1728 the age for boys was reduced to twenty-one. In 1845 an act was passed which regulated the binding of boys apprenticed on board vessels, such boys to be between the ages of twelve and seventeen. The terms of apprenticeship in Ireland and Scotland were much less than in England, varying from five to three years, and in Scotland, says Adam Smith, " the corporation laws are less oppressive than in any part of Europe." Apprenticeship, though not now necessary, except in a few cases (as that of solicitors and the like), is frequently entered into by contract. The apprentices of the Elizabethan and Stuart periods were usually the sons of yeomen and tradesmen, and, being forbidden to wear the genteel rapier, carried a stout bat or club. Hence the cry when an uproar commenced—" 'Prentices ! clubs ! " From the time of the Tudors the apprentices of London were the special " champions of mercantile jealousy arrayed against aristocratic arrogance ; and are to be found in almost every London riot, until they were finally the conquerors at Marston Moor and Naseby." By 1833 the practice of wholesale apprenticeship of pauper children to capitalist manufacturers had practically ceased ; while the system of voluntary apprenticeship by contract, which lived on, was becoming a troublesome and unsatisfactory means of poor relief.

Dunlop and Denman, " Child Labour and Apprenticeship " ; G. Unwin, " Industrial Organization in the 16th and 17th Centuries," 1904 ; S. and B. Webb, " English Local Government," vol. vii, 1927.

Appropriation of Supplies. The successive maxims, the enforcement of which finally secured to the Commons the complete control of taxation, were : (1) that the parliament alone could grant supplies, and the Commons alone originate such grants ; (2) that their petitions for redress must be answered before supplies should be granted ; (3) that the right to grant includes the right to decide the appropriation of the grant for definite purposes, and to demand the audit of its expenditure. The parliament of the sixteenth century saw the two former of these claims constantly evaded by the arbitrary or underhand action of the Crown. They began also to see that the way to counteract this, and to counteract at the same time the extravagance or dishonesty of the minister of the Crown, was by putting in force the third claim. This had been suggested in the early struggles of the thirteenth century ; as in 1237, when the Crown offered to allow a committee of the great council to supervise the expenditure of the grant then asked for. The plan comes forward again in 1262 and in 1266 ; its importance, however, was not yet realized. No doubt under Edward I it was felt to be enough that parliament alone should make grants, while under Edward III, parliament advanced to the principle of redress before supply ; yet the principle of appropriation was, even in these reigns, plainly exhibited in the custom of explaining to the country in the writ of summons to parliament what the specific purpose was of the grant about to be

demanded, whether for a French, a Welsh, or a Scottish war, or for defence of the seas, or for protection against invasion. Indeed, under Edward III the grant was commonly stated to be made for this particular purpose; while in 1377 the grant for defence of the seas is put by the Commons into the hands of the London citizens, Walworth and Philpot, to expend; and in 1390 is clearly displayed the distinction between the ordinary and the war expenditure, ten shillings and thirty shillings respectively being allotted to each, out of the forty shillings tax on every sack of wool. The principle thus established was fully accepted in the Lancastrian reigns. Tunnage and poundage (q.v.), for instance, became the recognized appropriation for defence of the seas, as the household expenses were supposed to be provided out of the Crown lands; and Fortescue wished the principle carried farther, so that the Crown lands should be redeemed, and inalienably set apart for such extraordinary expenses as embassies, pensions, protection against invasion, etc. It was, in fact, the increasing poverty of the Crown that directed attention to the distinction of the various heads of expenditure, and the need of a strict system of appropriation; and it was natural, therefore, that when the Crown, in Yorkist and Tudor hands, became wealthy as well as despotic, these distinctions, and the appropriations among them, should be lost sight of. Parliament met but rarely; tunnage and poundage were granted for the king's life; benevolences filled up the royal coffers, already enriched by forfeitures; and not till the reign of Charles II is the control resumed by the old means—the first case being in 1665, when a grant was made for purposes of the war alone. After the Revolution, ministers brought in annual estimates of the sums required under different heads; and Fox's resolution in 1781 would have effected this still more completely, by making it illegal to issue any moneys not appropriated by parliament. This has now become a constitutional rule, and in the annual estimates the sums asked of parliament are specifically appropriated for their several purposes, and the budget voted item by item. The principle has been completed by the reforms originated by Burke, which have reduced the civil list (q.v.) to an amount fixed to meet the actual personal and royal expenses of the sovereign, and relieved him of many payments for national objects, so that parliament no longer has schedules of Crown debts to pay off at intervals, and its strict rights of appropriation now extend over Crown expenses as over all other heads of public expenditure.

Sir W. Anson, "Law and Custom of the Constitution"; Redlich, "Procedure of the House of Commons"; A. F. Pollard, "Evolution of Parliament," 1920. [A. L. S.]

Aquablanca (Aigueblanche), Peter of (*d.* 1268), was a Savoyard who came to England in the train of Eleanor of Provence, queen of Henry III. He was made Bishop of Hereford c. 1240, and by his financial exactions became one of the most obnoxious of the foreign advisers of the king. He was driven from his see by the barons in 1263, and his goods were sequestrated.

K. Norgate, "Minority of Henry III," 1912.

Aquitaine, The Duchy of, in the south of France, which comprised Guienne, Périgueux, Limoges, Auvergne, Saintonge, La Marche, Poitou and Gascony, besides smaller territories, was first brought into connexion with England by the marriage of Henry II with Eleanor, heiress of the last Duke of Aquitaine. John lost Poitou, and under Henry III the English dominions steadily dwindled until by 1247 they comprised little more than the towns of Bordeaux and Bapaume and their environs. In 1259, however, the Treaty of Abbeville or Paris (q.v.), conferred Gascony to the English king, to be held as a fief of the French crown, and even enlarged its frontiers. For a short while in Edward I's reign, Gascony was occupied by the French; and one of the chief causes of the war with France in the reign of Edward III was the attempt of Philip VI to regain possession of the duchy. In 1360 the Treaty of Brétigny (q.v.) once more secured Aquitaine to the English king, with the addition of Poitou, but not including Auvergne. But the renewal of the war brought defeats and losses on the English, with the result that in 1374 there once more remained to them nothing of Aquitaine save some small pieces of territory round Bayonne and Bordeaux. Henry V won back part of the province, only for his son to lose everything; and the final result of the Hundred Years' War was the incorporation of Aquitaine into the French kingdom.

E. C. Lodge, "Gascony Under English Rule," 1926.

Arabella Stuart, Lady (1575–1615). [Stuart.]

Aragon. [Spain, Relations with.]

Aragon, Katharine of. [Katharine.]

Arakan is a division of British Burma, lying along the eastern coast of the Bay of Bengal, extending from Chittagong to Cape Negrais. The district at one time belonged to the Moguls, and was subsequently partly in the hands of the Portuguese. In 1783 it was conquered by the Burmese, by whom it was ceded to the British as a result of the first Burmese War in 1826.

W. F. B. Laurie, "Our Burmese Wars," 1880.

Arbitration, International, is the reference of their differences by two nations to an independent person or body for judgment. It differs from civil arbitration in that the international award has no legal sanction by which it can be enforced. Between 1820 and 1900 there were 172 cases of international

arbitration; and Great Britain was a party in more of these than was any other government. The best-known awards are those of the Alabama Case in 1872 [GENEVA AWARD], the Bering Sea dispute (1893), the British Guiana boundary question (1899), the Alaska boundary dispute (1903), the Newfoundland Fisheries dispute (1904). The Hague Tribunal was set up in 1900 to take cognizance of such cases between nations, and the Venezuela dispute (1903) among others was referred to it. A new era for arbitration began with the establishment of the League of Nations, all members of the League undertaking to submit to arbitration or to the League Council all disputes likely to lead to war. This principle was endorsed by Lord Balfour on July 6, 1925. An attempt to elaborate it, made in the Geneva Protocol of October 1924 (q.v.), was repudiated by the British government, which was largely instrumental in substituting for it the Locarno Pact of October 1925 (q.v.).

Bryce, "International Relations," 1922; P. J. N. Baker, "The Geneva Protocol," 1925.

[A. C. F. B.]

Arbuthnot, JOHN, M.D. (1667–1735), author, wit, and physician, was the son of a Scottish Episcopal clergyman. About 1704 accident threw him in the way of Prince George of Denmark, Queen Anne's husband, and he became the queen's physician, and the intimate friend of the foremost political writers of the Tory party. In 1712 he wrote a political allegory, "The History of John Bull," which Macaulay calls the most humorous political satire in our language. Its object was to throw ridicule on the War of the Spanish Succession. In 1714 he joined Swift, Pope, and other Tory men of letters, in founding the Scriblerus Club, the object of which was to chastise literary quacks. The first book of their uncompleted work, "The Memoirs of Martinus Scriblerus" (1741), was undoubtedly by his pen.

Arbuthnot, "Miscellaneous Works," 1770.

Archæology. So far as Britain is concerned, archæology, i.e., the science of human antiquities, throws invaluable light on three obscure periods, viz., (1) the Prehistoric; (2) the Romano-British, and (3) the Anglo-Saxon.

I. PREHISTORIC. For the incalculably extensive ages of this unrecorded period archæology furnishes the sole source of positive information. Five cultural periods can be distinguished, viz., (1) *Eolithic*, marked by exceedingly rude flint implements found in the tertiary plateau gravels of Kent and elsewhere. The human origin of these was long questioned, but recent opinion seems to tend decisively towards their recognition; (2) *Palæolithic*, distinguished by artifacts left in (*a*) the gravel deposits of ancient rivers, and (*b*) the cave-dwellings of primitive man, such as Kent's Cavern near Torquay. With these must be classed such human remains as the Piltdown skull discovered near Lewes in Sussex in 1912; (3) *Neolithic*, which includes not only flint and bone implements of a highly finished type, but also burial-mounds, hill-fortresses, and stone-circles (such as Stonehenge, the date of which is estimated at c. 1680 B.C.), as well as a number of lake-dwellings (e.g., Glastonbury); (4) *Bronze*, not sharply distinguished chronologically from the Neolithic Age, probably inaugurated in Britain c. 1800 B.C. by the advent of invaders of the so-called "Aryan" or "Celtic" type. (5) *Iron*, into which the Bronze Age was merged three or four centuries before the Christian era. For details concerning these Prehistoric periods see Sir John Evans, "Stone Implements of Great Britain," and "Bronze Implements of Great Britain"; Boyd Dawkins, "Cave Hunting and Early Man in Britain"; H. F. Osborn, "Men of the Old Stone Age"; J. M. Tyler, "The New Stone Age in Europe"; D. A. Mackenzie, "Ancient Man in Britain."

II. ROMANO-BRITISH. Archæology has considerably modified the views of historians concerning the condition of the British peoples at the time of the Roman conquest. Coins, implements, ornaments, relics of dwellings and traces of models of cultivation reveal a civilization much more highly advanced than would be gathered from the descriptions left by Cæsar (see Hodgkin, "Political History of England," vol. i, chap. iii). As to the period of the Roman occupation the rich results of excavations at Silchester, Corstopitum, Wroxeter, and elsewhere; the careful investigation of the remains of villas in many parts of the country, combined with casual discoveries of inscriptions, coins, pottery, and implements of all sorts on innumerable sites, have filled in with detailed information our otherwise scanty knowledge of the Romano-British civilization of the first four centuries of the Christian era (see F. Haverfield, "The Romanization of Roman Britain"; B. C. A. Windle, "The Romans in Britain").

III. ANGLO-SAXON. The archæological remains of the Early English period are much scarcer than those of the Romano-British era. Anglo-Saxon buildings were less durable than the Roman; coinage poorer and scantier; implements more ephemeral. Traces, however, of the open-field system of cultivation were sufficient at the close of the nineteenth century to enable Mr. F. Seebohm to reconstruct the story of the agricultural economy of the pre-Norman period. Discoveries in various Jutish burial grounds in Kent, Sussex, Hampshire, and the Isle of Wight have not only thrown new light on Jutish civilization, but have led to the conclusion that the Jutish settlement in Southern Britain was both earlier and more extensive than the Chronicles would cause us to suppose. Investigations in the Thames Valley, moreover, have pointed to the necessity of a radical revision of the common view respecting the method of the West-Saxon conquest of Hampshire; archæological evidence suggests a descent from the Thames

Valley rather than an ascent from Southampton Water.

Thurlow Leeds, "The Archæology of the Anglo-Saxon Settlements"; articles in the "Victoria County History," especially of Hampshire; F. Seebohm, "English Village Community"; P. Vinogradoff, "Growth of the Manor."

Archbishops. The territorial extent of an archbishop's authority is called a province, from the name of an administrative division of the Roman Empire. Archbishops do not form an order apart from bishops. An archbishop in England has a bishop's authority within his own diocese and is also chief of the clergy, and has power to correct the faults of bishops throughout his province. The design of Gregory the Great, who dispatched the mission under Augustine in 597, was that there should be two metropolitan sees in England—at London and York—following the twofold division of the Roman province. Augustine, however, dwelt at Canterbury, which thus became the seat of the southern metropolitan. England was not wholly converted from Kent. Different missions succeeded at various dates in the kingdoms into which the land was divided, and in consequence a danger arose from lack of unity in the Church. From this she was saved by Archbishop Theodore (q.v.) (669–90). His plan was to unite the whole Church under the supremacy of Canterbury, and he gathered all the bishops together in one synod at Hertford (673). After his death his scheme perished. Pope Gregory's plan was revived as more in accordance with local sentiment, and in 734 the see of York was made an archbishopric. Offa, King of Mercia, attempted to give expression to the brief period of Mercian supremacy by setting up a third archbishopric at Lichfield, but his experiment lasted only from 787 to 803. In 1143 Henry of Blois, Bishop of Winchester and papal legate, applied to Pope Innocent II to convert his see into an archbishopric and rid him of the authority of Canterbury, but did not attain his object. [Gregory's intention had been that the primacy should be enjoyed in turn by the two metropolitans, but his plan was never executed, and before the Norman Conquest York was always inferior in dignity to Canterbury. After 1066, however, the question of the relation of the two provinces became acute. In 1070 Lanfranc, who realized that the supremacy of Canterbury was vital to both the religious and the secular interests of England, demanded from Thomas of Bayeux a formal profession of obedience, as a preliminary to his consecration as Archbishop of York. Thomas refused to accede to his request, and a conflict ensued which ended at length in 1072 in the submission of the northern metropolitan. But the settlement was not definite.] In 1093 Thomas of York objected to the application to the Archbishop of Canterbury of the title "Metropolitan of All Britain," on the ground that it infringed the metropolitan rights of his own see. His objection was allowed and the expression "Primate of All Britain" was substituted. As late as 1119 Thurstan of York defeated an attempt to exact from him a formal profession of obedience to the archbishop. The Welsh bishops owned the authority of Canterbury. An unsuccessful attempt was made in 1199 to restore to St. Davids the archiepiscopal dignity which it had in the time of the British Church. Until 1152 the Irish bishops received consecration from the Archbishop of Canterbury; and in the twelfth century his authority in Scotland was disputed by the Archbishop of York, until in 1188 the Scottish Church was made immediately dependent upon Rome. The Archbishop of Canterbury had, therefore, a kind of patriarchal authority. Lanfranc has been described as "Patriarch of the West," and Anselm was greeted by Pope Urban II as the pope and patriarch of a second world. The position of the primate in the state was one of great importance, and he has always stood next after the sovereign, whom it is his duty to crown. The right of electing the archbishops pertained, as in the case of bishops, to the chapters of their churches. The dignity of the see of Canterbury caused frequent interference with the right of the monastic chapter of Christ Church. A voice in the election was claimed by the suffragan bishops, but their claim was disallowed by Innocent III. The Crown interfered oftener and more directly in the appointment of one who was its constitutional adviser than in the case of other elections. The pope managed in many instances to secure the election of his nominee. His influence was ensured (1) because it was held necessary that the archbishops should receive from him the *pall*, an ecclesiastical vestment, without which an archbishop did not consecrate bishops; (2) and because (in later times) the pope also granted to the archbishop the authority of a *legate*. The right of the Archbishop of Canterbury to the legatine commission was asserted by Archbishop Anselm, and finally gained by Archbishop Langton in 1291. This right did not preclude the visits of special legates *a latere*, but it was an infringement of it to grant a permanent legatine commission for England to anyone else, as in the case of Henry Beaufort, Bishop of Winchester, since the Archbishop of Canterbury was *legatus natus*. The Archbishop of York also had the pall, and from about 1350 the legatine commission. The provincial jurisdiction of the archbishops was exercised in their *Provincial Courts*. The judge of the Provincial Court of Canterbury was the *Official Principal*. In the *Court of Arches*, so called because held in St. Mary le Bow (de Arcubus), the *Dean of Arches* exercised the archbishop's jurisdiction over certain peculiars, or parishes exempt from the ordinary episcopal jurisdiction. As the offices of Official Principal and Dean of Arches were usually vested in the same person, the Court and Dean of Arches came to be inexactly

spoken of as if they signified the court and judge of the archbishop's provincial jurisdiction. The final appeal from this court lay, after the breach with Rome, to a body called the *High Court of Delegates* (25 Henry VIII, c. 19). By 3 and 4 Wm. IV, c. 41, the appellate jurisdiction of this court was conferred on the *Judicial Committee of the Privy Council.* The office of Official Principal, both of Canterbury and York, is now, by the Public Worship Regulation Act (37 and 38 Vict., c. 85), merged in that of a judge appointed by the archbishops, subject to the approval of the sovereign. This judge exercises the provincial jurisdiction of both archbishops as the Official Principal of the Arches Court of Canterbury and the Chancery Court of York. The archbishops summon and preside over the provincial synods or *Convocations* (q.v.). The Archbishop of Canterbury, or in his absence the Archbishop of York, presides over meetings of the Church Assembly under the constitution of 1919, and acts as chairman of the House of Bishops. [CHURCH OF ENGLAND.] [For Archbishops of Dublin, St. Andrews, etc., see CHURCH OF IRELAND; CHURCH OF SCOTLAND.] [In 1920, following upon the disendowment and disestablishment of the Welsh Church, an Archbishop of Wales was created, the Bishop of St. Asaph being elected to the new office.]

Haddan and Stubbs, "Councils and Ecclesiastical Documents," 1869–71; Bæda, "Hist. Eccles."; Eadmer, "Hist. Nov. and Vita Anselm."; T. Stubbs, "Eborac. Archiepisc."; "Report of the Royal Commission on Ecclesiastical Courts," 1883; F. Makower, "Constitutional History of the Church of England," 1896; Stephens and Hunt, "History of the English Church," 1899–1904. [W. H.]

ARCHBISHOPS OF CANTERBURY.

597.—St. Augustine.
604.—Lawrence.
619.—Mellitus.
624.—Justus.
627.—Honorius.
654 or 5.—Deusdedit.
668.—Theodore of Tarsus.
692.—Berthwald.
731.—Tatwine.
736.—Nothelm.
741.—Cuthbert.
759.—Bregowin.
763.—Lambert or Jaenbert.
790.—Ethelard.
803.—Wulfred.
832.—Feologild.
833.—Ceolnoth.
870.—Ethelred.
890.—Plegmund.
914(?).—Ethelm.
923.—Wulfhelm.
942.—Odo.
959.—Elfsige.
960.—St. Dunstan.
988.—Ethelgar.
990.—Siric or Sigeric
995.—Elfric.
1006.—Ælpheah or St. Alphege.
1013.—Lyfing.
1020.—Ethelnoth.
1038.—Eadsige.
1051.—Robert of Jumièges.
1052.—Stigand.
1070.—Lanfranc.
1093.—Anselm.
1114.—Ralph d'Escures.
1123.—William de Corbeil.
1139.—Theobald.
1162.—St. Thomas Becket.
1174.—Richard.
1185.—Baldwin.
1191.—Reginald Fitzjocelin.
1193.—Hubert Walter.
1207.—Stephen Langton.
1229.—Richard of Wethershed (le Grand).
1234.—St. Edmund Rich.
1245.—Boniface of Savoy.
1273.—Robert Kilwardby.
1279.—John Peckham.
1294.—Robert Winchelsey.
1313.—Walter Reynolds.
1328.—Simon Mepeham.
1333.—John Stratford.
1349, July 19.—Thomas Bradwardine.
1349, Dec. 20.—Simon Islip.
1366.—Simon Langham.
1368.—Wm. Whittlesey.
1375.—Simon Sudbury.
1381.—William Courtenay.
1397.—Thomas Fitzalan or Arundel.
1398.—Roger Walden.
1399.—Thomas Arundel.
1414.—Henry Chichele.
1443.—John Stafford.
1452.—John Kemp.
1454.—Thomas Bourchier.
1486.—John Morton (Cardinal).
1501.—Henry Deane.
1504.—William Warham.
1533.—Thomas Cranmer.
1556.—Reginald Pole (Cardinal).
1559.—Matthew Parker.
1576.—Edmund Grindal.
1583.—John Whitgift.
1604.—Richard Bancroft.
1611.—George Abbot.
1633.—William Laud.
1645–1660. See vacant.
1660.—William Juxon.
1663.—Gilbert Sheldon.
1678.—William Sancroft.
1691.—John Tillotson.
1695.—Thomas Tenison.
1716.—William Wake.
1737.—John Potter.
1747.—Thomas Herring.
1757.—Matthew Hutton.
1758.—Thomas Secker.
1768.—The Hon. Fred. Cornwallis.
1783.—John Moore.
1805.—Charles Manners-Sutton.
1828.—William Howley.
1848.—John Bird Sumner.
1862.—Charles Thomas Longley.
1868.—Archibald Campbell Tait.
1882.—Edward White Benson.
1896.—Frederick Temple.
1903.—Randall Thomas Davidson.

ARCHBISHOPS OF YORK.

625.—Paulinus.
664.—Ceadda (Chad).
669.—Wilfrid (dep. 678: restored 686–692).
678.—Bosa.
705.—John of Beverley.
718.—Wilfrid II.
734.—Ecgbert.
767.—Ethelbert (or Cœna).
780.—Eanbald I.
796.—Eanbald II.
808(?).—Wulfsi (Wulfius).
837(?).—Wigmund.
854.—Wulfhere.
900.—Ethelbald.
921.—Redevald.
931.—Wulfstan.
958(?).—Oskytel.
972.—Ethelwold.
972.—Oswald.
995(?)—Aldulf.
1003(?).—Wulfstan.
1023.—Alfric.
1051.—Kinsige.
1061.—Ealdred.
1070.—Thomas.
1101.—Gerard.
1109.—Thomas.
1119.—Thurstan.
1143.—William Fitz-Herbert.
1147.—Henry Mordac.
1154.—Roger de Pont l'Evêque.
1191.—Geoffrey Plantagenet.
1215.—Walter de Grey.
1256.—Sewall de Bovill.
1258.—Geoffrey Ludham.
1265.—Walter Giffard.
1279.—William Wickwan.
1286.—John Romain.
1298.—Henry Newark.
1300.—Thomas Corbridge.
1306.—William Greenfield.
1317.—William Melton.
1342.—William de la Zouche.
1352.—John Thoresby.
1374.—Alexander Neville.
1388.—Thomas Arundel.
1397.—Robert Waldby.
1398.—Richard Scrope.
1407.—Henry Bowet.
1426.—John Kemp.
1452.—William Booth.
1464.—George Neville.
1476.—Laurence Booth.
1480.—Thomas Rotherham.
1501.—Thomas Savage.
1508.—Christopher Bainbridge.
1514.—Thomas Wolsey.
1531.—Edward Lee.
1545.—Robert Holgate.
1555.—Nicholas Heath.
1561.—Thomas Young.
1570.—Edmund Grindal.
1577.—Edwin Sandys.
1588.—John Piers.
1595.—Matthew Hutton.
1606.—Tobias Matthew.
1628.—George Monteigne.
1628.—Samuel Harsnett.
1632.—Richard Neile.
1641.—John Williams.
1660.—Accepted Frewen.
1664.—Richard Sterne.
1683.—John Dolben.
1688.—Thomas Lamplugh.
1691.—John Sharp.
1714.—Sir William Dawes.
1724.—Lancelot Blackburn.
1743.—Thomas Herring.
1747.—Matthew Hutton.
1757.—John Gilbert.
1761.—Robert Drummond.
1777.—William Markham.
1808.—Edward Harcourt.
1847.—Thomas Musgrave.
1860.—Charles Thomas Longley.
1862.—William Thomson.
1891.—William Connor Magee.
1891.—William Dalrymple Maclagan.
1908.—Cosmo Gordon Lang.

Stubbs, "Registrum Sacrum Anglicanum," 2nd edn.; Le Neve, "Fasti Ecclesiæ Anglicanæ."

Architecture. In England there are many remains—chiefly of a sepulchral character—of the people who dwelt in the land before the coming of the Romans. These prehistoric relics may be roughly classified as (1) monoliths, single stones standing upright; (2) cromlechs, or table-stones, consisting of one large stone supported by others, as at Kit's Coity House, Aylesford, Kent; (3) stone circles, as at Stonehenge, Avebury,

and Long Meg and her Daughters, near Penrith; (4) barrows, oblong or round, which consist of mounds of earth containing sepulchral chambers. These barrows are scattered over the country, but are generally found on moorland. Besides these, there are traces of lake dwellings—houses built on wooden platforms supported by piles driven into the bottom of lakes, accessible by planks from the mainland. There are also traces of sculptured ornaments on boulders of stone, which are especially frequent in Northumberland. There are, again, earthworks of camps and the foundations of fortified villages to be found in many places amongst the hills.

When the Romans came to Britain they brought with them the art of building in stone. They built towns and houses, which, however, were all destroyed, though the sites of Roman villas, their mosaic pavements, the hypocausts, or cellars with flues to warm the house, may be still traced in many places. But the greatest memorials of Roman building are their military works, especially the great wall extending from the Tyne to the Solway, whose course may still be traced, with its military stations and remains of buildings outside. The station of Housesteads, near Hexham, has been called "the English Pompeii." After the departure of the Romans the English conquest drove the Britons from the cities, which fell into decay. The English themselves lived in villages, in houses built of clay, or wood, or wattles. After their conversion to Christianity they began to build churches, of oaken planks, sometimes covered with lead. Benedict Biscop, a Northumbrian thegn, went over to Gaul and brought back workmen, who, at the end of the seventh century, built a stone church, or basilica, for the monastery of Wearmouth. Wilfrid followed, and built churches at York and Hexham, remains of which may still be seen. Still, before the Norman Conquest architecture did not make much advance in England. Stone towers were built with wooden naves, and the remains of what is called Saxon architecture are few. The tower of Earls Barton Church, in Northamptonshire, is one of the most important examples.

The Norman Conquest gave the signal for a great age of ecclesiastical architecture in England. Vast cathedrals were built in the massive, round-arched style which had gradually developed from the Roman constructions, and which is known as Romanesque or Norman. Of this style, very striking specimens are the cathedrals of Norwich, Peterborough, and Ely, and Malmesbury Abbey. The cathedral of Durham shows an attempt at emancipation from the traditions of the Norman builders. The introduction of the pointed arch, which was probably first employed in rebuilding the east end of Canterbury Cathedral after the fire in 1174, made a great change in architectural construction. The activity in the way of church building in the north, as shown in the Yorkshire abbeys, still further developed an English style of architecture, which first made itself manifest in Lincoln Cathedral (1200), and Salisbury (1220–58). This style, which is known as the Early English, is remarkable for its lancet windows, which are either single or grouped in graceful designs. The increase of the use of painted glass as a necessary part of church decoration led to an adoption of French principles and the introduction of geometrical tracery, which marked the architecture of the reigns of Edward I and Edward II. The Angel Choir at Lincoln, the abbeys of Tintern and Gainsborough, and the chapel of Merton College, Oxford, may be given as examples of the progress of this geometrical style. It lasted, however, but a short time; the restlessness which marked the reign of Edward III was expressed in the desire for new inventions, and geometrical tracery gave way to flowing or curvilinear tracery of the style that is called Decorated, specimens of which may be seen in Carlisle Cathedral. It would seem that the vagaries of the Decorated style awakened a reaction. In the flowing tracery strength and construction were alike lost sight of, till the Perpendicular style was hailed with delight as being sounder. This style was first made popular by William of Wykeham, in his buildings at Winchester and at Oxford, and prevailed for above a century, during the fourteenth and first half of the fifteenth centuries. Its characteristics were a stern regard to the needs of construction. Straight lines ran from the bottom to the top of the window, which was regarded as merely a frame for painted glass. Regularity and proportion were everywhere insisted upon, and fancy was no longer allowed a place. The chapel of King's College, Cambridge, is a good example of the Perpendicular style, but there are many instances to be found in every locality of a style which was so long in use.

The development of ecclesiastical architecture was the chief feature of this period. England produced no great municipal buildings. The towns did not rise to the same independent position as that which fostered the development of municipal architecture on the continent. The dwellings of the barons were military fortresses, and were at first reproductions of the castles of Normandy. Castle-building, however, soon became an eminently English art. The massive keeps of the Norman castles were surrounded by curtain walls connecting one tower with another, and weaving the whole pile into a strong and picturesque mass of buildings. In the reigns of the Edwards these castles assumed their largest proportions, and their remains are to be seen most clearly on the Welsh and Scottish Marches. Some may be traced in ruins, others have been altered into modern dwellings, but still

retain many of their ancient features. The castles of Alnwick, Berkeley, Chepstow, Kenilworth, Warwick, Rochester, and Windsor are amongst the most striking examples. Another class of mediæval buildings peculiar to England is found in the colleges of Oxford and Cambridge, and the schools of Eton and Winchester. Taking as their model monastic buildings, the architects adapted them to the conditions of secular life, and built quadrangles round the chapel and common hall. The great hall was, moreover, a feature of the castle, and received the greatest architectural care, particularly in the construction of the roof. The halls of the royal palaces of Westminster (Richard II) and Eltham (Henry IV) still remain as examples of the constructive ingenuity of their builders.

The Tudor reigns saw a great increase in the material prosperity of England and in its internal quiet. The suppression of the monasteries removed one of the principal supports of ecclesiastical architecture. The comforts of domestic life increased. The castles and fortified manor-houses of the troubled times of the Middle Ages were either abandoned or were converted into dwelling-houses more suitable for peaceful times. At first this was done in accordance with the principles of Gothic architecture. But the movement of the Renaissance towards a revival of the classical style had begun in Italy, and spread over France. It was long in taking possession of England, but it affected it unconsciously in details. The style known as Jacobean was Gothic in feeling, but adopted with some timidity classical ornamentation. It corresponded to the change through which England was passing in religion and literature alike. The memorials of this style are chiefly to be found in dwelling-houses. Churches were not required, as the number already existing was more than ample for the population. The University of Cambridge, which was at that period very flourishing, has some excellent examples in Caius and Clare Colleges, and in Neville's Court in Trinity. The great houses that were now built served for some time as models for English houses. They differed from the designs in vogue on the continent, and showed an adaptation to the needs of English climate. They were built round court-yards, after the old fashion; but the entrance was on the outside, and the windows of the main rooms looked outwards to the country, not into the court-yard. Knole may be taken as an example of the Gothic style of dwelling-house. Longleat, Temple Newsam, Longford Castle, Hardwicke Hall, and Hatfield House are examples of various forms of classical adaptations. All of them are picturesque, graceful in proportions, and comfortable in their arrangements, though their ornamentation shows learning misunderstood and improperly applied. The most conspicuous instance of this is the gateway of the Bodleian Library at Oxford, where the five orders of classical architecture are piled one upon another, and the whole is crowned by Gothic pinnacles.

In the reign of Charles I the architectural style of the Italian Renaissance found its full development in England under the influence of Inigo Jones, an architect of great ability, who studied in Italy under the last great Italian architect Palladio. On his return to England, Inigo Jones designed a mighty palace for the king at Whitehall. The Banqueting House was executed from his designs, but the troubles of Charles I prevented the plan from being carried out. Jones's scheme was conceived on a gigantic scale; had it been executed, the Palace of Whitehall would have been the most splendid in Europe. Jones showed the possibility of dignified simplicity in a Protestant church, by the building of St. Paul's, Covent Garden, the first ecclesiastical building of any importance since the Reformation. The Restoration found its architect in a man of real learning and cultivation, Sir Christopher Wren, whose earliest work is the Sheldonian Theatre at Oxford. The Great Fire of London, in 1666, gave Wren an opportunity, such as few architects have enjoyed, of modelling the architectural aspect of a great city. He prepared a plan for the rebuilding of London, which unfortunately was not carried out. However, he was asked to rebuild St. Paul's Cathedral and nearly fifty other churches. In St. Paul's Cathedral Wren built the largest and most splendid church, after St. Peter's in Rome, that had been attempted in the classical style. Besides this, he studded the city with graceful steeples, that lent dignity to the proportions of St. Paul's dome, which towered above them. The chief of these are the spires of Bow Church; St. Bride's, Fleet Street; St. Michael's, Cornhill; St. Stephen's, Walbrook; and St. Dunstan's-in-the-East. In all his buildings Wren showed great constructive ingenuity and a delight in solving difficult problems, though at times he has allowed this to overcome his artistic taste. Few cities bear so clearly the impress of one man's architectural genius as does London that of Wren.

The successors of Wren in the beginning of the eighteenth century were Hawksmoor, who built the church of St. George's, Bloomsbury, and Sir John Vanbrugh. Vanbrugh, a Dutchman by descent, was happy in the opportunity of having entrusted to him a monumental work of national importance. He was commissioned to build Blenheim Palace as a gift of the nation to the Duke of Marlborough. His plan is vast and grand. He certainly aimed at giving enduring stability to his work. But though the general design was dignified, there is a clumsiness and a lack of proportion in the adaptation of details that leave an impression of heaviness and gloom. In the building of Castle Howard Vanbrugh

shows the same attempt at grandeur, but with more sobriety. An architect whose work shows more artistic feeling is James Gibbs, whose most important buildings are the church of St. Martin-in-the-Fields and the Radcliffe Library at Oxford.

The middle of the eighteenth century saw a development of the study of classical archæology, which immediately reacted on architecture. Especially Stuart's work on "The Architecture of Athens," commenced in 1762, affected popular taste. The architecture of the Italian Renaissance, which had hitherto been pursued in England, was classical in sentiment, and used classical details while freely adapting them to its own purposes. The end of the eighteenth century saw a learned revival of pure classical architecture, freed from its Italian adaptations. This absolute copying of classical antiquity became a fashion. Churches were built like Grecian temples, as, for instance, the church of St. Pancras, with its caryatid porticoes and model of a small temple erected by way of a spire on a larger one. No large building was erected except in the severest classical style, with portico, whether needful or not. The British Museum is one of the least successful of the buildings of this school; St. George's Hall at Liverpool is one of the most happy. But this classical revival in architecture was soon met by a Gothic revival, which may be said to date from Horace Walpole, but took a great hold on popular taste after Beckford's revival of Fonthill Abbey in the shape of a gentleman's house. Its architect, Wyatt, was entrusted with the restoration of several of our cathedrals. Houses were built in the form of Gothic castles or abbeys. The rage for strictly classical imitations was succeeded by a rage for exact reproduction of Gothic designs. The writings of Britton, Rickman, Pugin, and many others lent the resources of careful archæology to this revival, which corresponded also with the Tractarian movement within the English Church. In obedience to the desire of restoring the assumed reverence and faith of the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries, churches throughout England have been "restored," or brought back, to what some ingenious archæologist guesses to have been their original aspect. Innumerable churches have been built in imitation of Gothic models; and in secular buildings, the Houses of Parliament, and more recently the Law Courts, were erected in Gothic style, and have taxed the ingenuity of their architects to find the accommodation necessary for modern purposes in buildings constructed in the style of an age when such purposes were unknown.

Rickman, "Attempt to discriminate Styles of English Architecture"; Pugin, "Principles of Pointed Architecture"; Billings, "Cathedrals"; Turner and Parker, "Domestic Architecture in England"; J. Fergusson, "History of Architecture"; P. L. Dickinson, "Architecture in the British Isles," 1926.

[M. C.]

Arcot, Defence of (1751). The victories of the confederation formed by Dupleix against the English were checked by the expedition to Arcot under Clive. Chanda Sahib was obliged to detach a large force, thereby relieving the pressure on the British garrison cooped up in Trichinopoly. The fort of Arcot was defended only by a low and lightly-built parapet; several of the towers were decayed, and the ditch was partly choked up. From the day of its occupation, August 31, 1751, Clive had been incessantly employed in repairing the defences, but the place seemed little capable of standing a siege. The troops fit for duty had been reduced by casualties and disease, and it was with a small body that Clive sustained for seven weeks the incessant assault of 10,000 native troops and 150 Europeans. On the last day of the siege the enemy endeavoured to storm the fort, but they were repulsed on every point, and next morning retired from the town.

Biographies of Clive.

Arcot, State of. [Carnatic.]

Ardanesbi, Battle of (719), was a naval engagement fought between the two branches of the Scots of Dalriada—the Cinel Gabran and the Cinel Loarn, who were rivals for supremacy, Dunchadt, King of Kintyre, was chief of the Cinel Gabran, and Selvach, at the head of the Cinel Loarn, the latter being defeated. Ardanesbi, according to Skene, is "probably the point of Ardminish, on the island of Gigha."

Chronicles: "Picts and Scots," ed. Skene, cxxx, 74.

Arden, Edward (*d.* 1583), was implicated in a project for the assassination of Elizabeth, by the confession of his son-in-law, the conspirator John Somerville. He had incurred the enmity of the Earl of Leicester, and, after an unfair trial, was executed at Tyburn, December 1583. His guilt, however, is very doubtful, and he probably fell a victim to the enmity of Leicester.

Ardwulf (Eardwulf), King of Northumbria (796(?)–810), was placed on the throne after the murder of Ethelred. He found anarchy throughout the kingdom, but eventually succeeded in restoring something like order by making a treaty with Cenwulf of Mercia, whose kingdom had been the refuge of all Northumbrian conspirators. In 808 he seems to have been driven from the throne by a rival claimant. He fled to Europe, where he visited the courts of the Emperor Charles the Great and Pope Leo III; and by their mediation he was restored to the throne in 809.

"Anglo-Saxon Chronicle."

Argaum, Battle of (November 29, 1803), was fought during the Mahratta War, between General Wellesley and the Raja of Berar. The raja, who had been long pursued by Wellesley, attempted to raise the siege of Gawilghur, a strong fortress in the Berar territory, and was caught by Welles-

ley on the plain of Argaum. Though late in the day, Wellesley resolved to engage, but his troops had no sooner come within range of the enemy's guns, than two battalions, who had behaved with distinguished gallantry on the field of Assye under a far hotter fire, broke their ranks and fled. Fortunately the general succeeded in rallying them, or the battle would have been lost. They returned to the field, and after some hours of severe fighting, the Berar troops were compelled to retreat. The raja abandoned all his cannon and ammunition; and few of his troops would have escaped, if there had been an hour of daylight left.

Wellesley, "Dispatches"; J. W. Fortescue, "History of the British Army," vol. v, 1910.

Argyll, Earls and Dukes of. [Campbell.].

Argyll, Peerage of. In 1445 Sir Duncan Campbell of Lochow, the head of the great Argyllshire family of the Campbells, was raised to the peerage as Lord Campbell, by James II of Scotland. His grandson, Colin, was created Earl of Argyll in 1457. He married Isabel Stewart, daughter of the Lord of Lorne, and added to his titles that of Lord Lorne. Archibald, the 8th earl, who was subsequently executed for treason in 1661, was created a marquis in 1641. His son Archibald, 9th earl (who was restored to the family estates and the earldom), was attainted for treason in 1685. The attainder was reversed at the Revolution of 1688, and Archibald, the son of the last-named earl, was advanced to the dignity of Duke of Argyll. His son John, 2nd duke, received an English peerage as Duke of Greenwich in 1719. He left no male issue, and his English honours ceased; but his daughter Caroline was created in her own right Baroness of Greenwich. His Scottish honours devolved on his brother Archibald, 3rd duke, from whom they passed to his nephew Archibald, the ancestor of the present holder of the title. John, the 5th duke, was created a peer of England as Baron Sundridge in 1766. [Campbell.]

Arikera, Battle of (May 13, 1791). After the capture of Bangalore, during Lord Cornwallis's campaign in Mysore, Tippoo was encamped between Cornwallis and Seringapatam, with his right resting on the Cauvery. Lord Cornwallis hoped by a night march to turn the enemy's left before daylight, and cut off his retreat; but a terrific storm arose, and delayed the march. In the morning Lord Cornwallis gained a hill commanding the left of the enemy. The attack became general along the front, and was assisted by Maxwell's flank attack along the hill, and Tippoo's army was already wavering when Colonel Floyd and the cavalry charged his rear-guard and nearly destroyed it.

L. B. Bowring, "Haidar Ali and Tipu Sultan," 1893.

Arkinholm, Battle of (May 1, 1454), was fought in the valley of the Esk between the supporters of James II of Scotland and James, Earl of Douglas, and his brothers. The rebels were defeated. Archibald Douglas, Earl of Moray, fell in the combat; Hugh Douglas, Earl of Ormond, was captured and beheaded; and James Douglas was forced to take refuge in England. [Douglas.]

P. Hume Brown, "History of Scotland," 1911.

Arklow, The Battle of (1798), was fought during the Irish rebellion. The town was defended by General Needham with 120 Ancient Britons, 800 Irish militia, 300 Durham Fencibles, and some yeomanry, against Father John Murphy, who led some 27,000 rebels with a few guns to the attack. During the action, Father Michael Murphy, who had joined the rebels under Father John Murphy, was shot. In spite of the determined fury with which they came on, the rebels were beaten back with great loss, and had to give up the idea of marching on Dublin.

P. J. Kavanagh, "The Rebellion of 1798," 1913.

Arlington, Henry Bennet, Earl of (1618–85). [Bennet.]

Armada, The Spanish, is the name usually applied to the great military and naval expedition dispatched by Philip II of Spain against England in 1588. The equipping of his great fleet was protracted by his incorrigible habits of delay and hesitation, but it is probable that it was ready to sail in 1587. It might in any case have been kept waiting one year more till the Prince of Parma had his army ready in Flanders, but, however that may be, it was delayed by Drake's vigorous action on the coasts of Portugal and Andalusia. Early in 1588 the damage he had done was repaired and the Invincible Armada sailed from Lisbon in the latter days of May. It was commanded by Don Alonso de Guzman, Duke of Medina Sidonia, who succeeded to the command on the death of Don Alvaro de Bazan, the Marquis of Santa Cruz. It consisted of 132 vessels, manned by 8,066 sailors, and 2,088 galley-slaves. It carried 21,621 soliders, and 2,680 pieces of artillery. The provisions of food and ammunition were abundant, but the ships were ill-fitted for the navigation of the Channel, of which the Spanish sailors knew nothing. From the beginning it met with losses and misfortunes. It was scattered by a gale immediately after leaving Lisbon, during which one galley went down, and two were seized by the slaves, who revolted and overpowered the soldiers. It was not till Friday, July 22 (N.S.), that Medina Sidonia could rally his ships, and sail from Corunna. On Thursday, July 28, the fleet was off the Lizard, and had its first sight of the English fleet on Saturday the 30th. The English lord high admiral, Lord Howard of Effingham, had thirty ships of the Royal Navy, and a large number of

volunteer ships, with him, and was assisted by Drake, Hawkins, Frobisher, Winter, Ralegh, and other seamen. The Armada was steered for Calais Road. On Sunday, July 31, some fighting took place, in which the unwieldy Spanish ships were completely outmanœuvred. They were built so extremely high, and drew so few feet of water in proportion, that they could not carry enough sail. The handy English vessels closed and drew off as they pleased. Our seamen, acting on the principle which has always been followed in the English navy, trusted to their rapid and accurate artillery fire, and refused all temptations to board the enemy, whose vessels were crowded with soldiers. The first encounter proved the wisdom of this system of tactics. The flagship of the Andalusian squadron was disabled, and fell into the hands of Drake after a long fight. The Armada, arranged in the half-moon formation which had been adopted at Lepanto, continued its way through the Channel, keeping indifferent order. On August 2 there was another indecisive cannonade off Portland, in which the English seamen followed their usual system of attack; and though they did not do the Spaniards any considerable damage, they further proved their superiority in seamanship, and convinced the enemy that he could only hope to fight them on their own terms. By Saturday the 6th, the Armada had reached Calais, and waited for the Prince of Parma, who was to join it from Flanders. But the prince, by one of the extraordinary oversights which ruined all Philip's plans, had no armed ships, and was closely blockaded by the Dutch. On Sunday night (August 7) the English admirals sent fire-ships among the Spaniards, who cut their cables and stood to sea in a panic. On Monday they were fiercely attacked, and soon became utterly disorganized. On Tuesday, August 9, the Armada, greatly diminished by loss of vessels, which had been sunk or compelled to strike, or driven on shore, was drifting helplessly on the coast of Zeeland. A sudden change of wind saved it for the moment, but the crews had no more stomach for the fight. By the next day they had quite lost heart and begun to fly to the north. They were followed for some distance by a few English vessels, but there was no effectual pursuit. Elizabeth's fleet had been ill-provided with powder and shot, and still worse with food. They had put to sea in a hurry, and they had moreover been now engaged almost incessantly for days. It is not to be wondered at, therefore, that after three general engagements and numerous skirmishes the ships were out of ammunition. The shortage of provisions is less excusable. It appears, however, that the volunteer vessels were almost as badly found as the queen's, and that what is often called Elizabeth's parsimony was in fact lack of experience in equipping a large force. The brunt of the fighting fell on the vessels of the Royal Navy; the volunteers, though they proved the spirit of the nation, and helped to make a moral impression on the Spaniards, did comparatively little of the real work. The preparations on shore were probably distinguished more by spirit than efficiency, but they were never tested, and it is impossible to know what they would have done. It must not be forgotten that, though the Prince of Parma had a veteran force in Flanders, the majority of the soldiers on board the Armada were as raw as the English militia. The Spaniards straggled home round the north of Scotland, through continual storms, in which the greater part of their vessels went down or were driven on shore. Only fifty-three ships reached Spain, and the loss of life was so terrible, that it was said that every family in the country lost a member.

The standard historians of Elizabeth's reign, and Camden, Fuller, or Hakluyt, need scarcely be mentioned, and the same may be said of Froude and Motley. There is a very good account of the Armada in Southey's "Life of Lord Howard of Effingham." Several accounts by eye-witnesses are to be found in the "Documentos Ineditos" (Spanish State Papers), particularly in vols. xiv and xlviii.

Later works:—J. A. Froude, "The Spanish Story of the Armada," 1895, and "English Seamen in the 16th Century"; M. A. S. Hume, "The Year after the Armada"; J. K. Laughton (ed.), "State Papers relating to Defeat of the Armada" (Navy Records Society, 2 vols., 1894). [D. H.]

Armagh, The School (or University) of, was the centre of early Irish monastic civilization and learning. It was from here that the scholars who made Ireland famous throughout Christendom came. The best known among the Irish scholars said to have been trained at Armagh is John Scotus Erigena, whose death may be placed in the year 875. Even the capture of Armagh by Olaf's Danes was not sufficient to destroy entirely its school and its fame for learning. The continuance of the existence of a school there is vouched for by the proceedings of the Synod of Clare (1162), which decided that no one was to be a lector or reader in any monastic church in Ireland who was not an *alumnus* of Armagh. The presence of foreign students can be traced at least as far as the eleventh century. The existence of a learned body in Armagh is all the more remarkable as the see was, during the eleventh century, almost always in the hands of laymen.

Armagh, The Synod of, was held in 1170, when the Irish prelates, alarmed at the English invasion, which they regarded as a divine visitation, determined that all English slaves should be set free.

Armed Neutrality. In 1780 a coalition known as the *First Armed Neutrality* was entered into by the northern powers, who resented the right of search which was claimed by Great Britain in respect of all neutral vessels. In the treaty then made between Russia,

Sweden, and Denmark, the principle was proclaimed that "free ships make free goods," that the flag covers the merchandise, and that a port is to be considered blockaded only when a sufficient force for its blockade is in front of it. There was some ground for the contention that the rights of neutrals on the sea should be the same as on land. At this time Great Britain was in the midst of the war with the American colonies; France and Holland were also at war with her; and the right of search was indispensable, if she was to make any use of her naval superiority. Nevertheless, pressed as she was, it was impossible for her to take any active steps in opposition to the treaty, though she continued to exercise her right, which had been admitted by the several powers in former treaties. The armed neutrality was abandoned in 1781; in 1793 Russia entered into a treaty with Great Britain, which expressly recognized the right of search on neutral vessels; and in the same year America made a similar treaty with Great Britain. But in 1799 Napoleon, by a remarkable exercise of diplomatic skill, induced the Americans to adopt a maritime code on the basis of the Armed Neutrality of 1780; and at the same time the other powers saw an opening for a profitable trade with France, if the right of search were abolished. The principles of the Armed Neutrality were accordingly revived, and the determined persistence of the British government, combined with the skilful diplomacy of Napoleon, induced the northern powers again to enter into a coalition, known as the *Second Armed Neutrality* (1800), to enforce its principles. The British government acted with decisive energy. A fleet was dispatched to the Baltic; and the bombardment of Copenhagen, followed by the death of Tsar Paul, effectually broke up the northern coalition. On June 17, 1801, the Maritime Convention of St. Petersburg was opened; and finally a series of treaties was made between Great Britain and the northern powers by which the Armed Neutrality was abandoned, but the right of search was strictly defined, and it was agreed that blockades must be efficient to be valid. [Neutrality.]

"The Armed Neutralities," ed. J. B. Scott (Carnegie Endowment for International Peace), 1918; Sir F. T. Piggott and G. W. T. Omond, "Documentary History of the Armed Neutralities," 1919.

Arminians was the name sometimes given to the High Church party in the reign of Charles I. Strictly speaking, the Arminians were those Dutch Protestants who followed Arminius (Hermanss), in opposition to the more rigid followers of Calvin. The party was the fruit of the reaction which had arisen in the beginning of the seventeenth century in the minds of many men against what seemed the bigotry of extreme Protestantism, and which made them inquire whether the Reformers, in their desire to get rid of the evils of popery, had not also destroyed much that was vital in Catholic Christianity. In the Netherlands the controversy between the Arminians and "Gomarists" led, early in the seventeenth century, to violent commotions. To disputes of dogma were added those concerning the rights of the Church with reference to the authority of the civil government in ecclesiastical affairs. The Arminians, with their leanings to the doctrines of Zwingli, maintained the right of the state to conduct the government of the Church, in conformity with the model of Scripture, and urged that, by the independence claimed by spiritual authority in the Reformed Church, a new popedom was being set up. The Gomarists, on the other hand, strictly adhering to the principles of Calvin, demanded the complete autonomy of the Church. This schism spread to the political world, and after being silenced in Holland by the decrees of the Synod of Dort in 1619, Arminianism took firm root in England, and was welcomed by many who shared in the reaction against Puritanism. A violent controversy began between Calvinists and Arminians. James I attempted to silence it (1622); but, in fact, in his later years, the king, who had been a Calvinist all his life, and had even written a book against Vorstius, the successor of Arminius, leaned towards Arminianism. For the Synod of Dort, by ascribing equal authority to all ministers of God's Word, no matter what their position, indirectly condemned the English Church. The Puritans and Presbyterians regarded the spread of Arminianism with great dislike, and on March 2, 1629, the Commons resolved that "whosoever shall bring in innovation in religion, or by favour seek to introduce Popery or Arminianism, shall be reputed a capital enemy to the kingdom and commonwealth." But Arminianism continued to gain influence among the High Churchmen, and the term came to be applied generally to all those who objected both to the Roman and Calvinist doctrines and theory of Church government (though they considered the Roman Catholic Church as corrupt and unsound), and who wished that the English Church should occupy a middle position between Rome and Geneva. Charles I and Laud were claimed by this party as its champions. They were supposed to be equally averse to Romanism and Puritanism, and they were regarded by the English Arminians as the great defenders of the Church from the dangers which threatened her on both sides. After the Restoration the name "Arminian" fell into disuse. [Laud.]

Stephens and Hunt, "History of the Church of England," vols. v and vi, 1899–1904; biographies of Laud.

Arms and Armour. In the Anglo-Saxon period body armour consisted of the "byrnie" or coat of leather, reinforced in the case of wealthy or important persons by rings of iron or brass, or by scales or disks of metal or horn. Chain mail seems also to have been in

use before the Norman Conquest. The helmet was fashioned of leather or metal, or sometimes of a combination of both, and was generally conical in shape, being in the eleventh century often furnished with a nasal to protect the face from injury. The shield was circular and was generally made of linden-wood, covered with leather, painted or ornamented with metal studs, and finished in the centre with a projecting boss or "umbo." The chief weapons of offence were the iron sword, the lance or spear, the javelin, dagger, and axe. No essential differences distinguished the equipment of the Danes from that of the Anglo-Saxons, save for a tendency to greater elaboration of design, and the use of crude leg-defences of "cuir-bouilli." The Bayeux tapestry supplies us with valuable evidence as to the arms and armour of the Norman conquerors of England, and for about a century after 1066 these remained essentially unchanged. The typical equipment of the knight of both the Norman and the early Angevin periods consisted of the "hauberk" or mail shirt, furnished later with sleeves, fitting closely to the wrist, and with a coif covering both head and neck, and the conical iron helmet fitted with a nasal and sometimes with a neck-guard. Leg-coverings designed to protect the outer part of the limb when the wearer was in the saddle were occasionally but by no means generally worn. A kite-shaped shield, painted at first with some simple design, but later with the armorial bearings of the owner, was carried; and the characteristic weapons of offence were the lance, which appears also to have fulfilled the functions of a javelin, the axe, sword, mace, and bow. The Normans were essentially horsemen, but in the eleventh and early twelfth centuries no protection of any kind would seem to have been provided for the animal as distinct from its rider. From the time of Richard I onwards, however, the elaboration of the defences of both horse and knight proceeded apace. The surcoat of linen or silk which came into general use in John's reign was the most conspicuous feature of knightly costume for the next two centuries, but its military significance was negligible. Of greater importance was the universal adoption of the "gambeson"—a padded or quilted garment worn in conjunction with the "lorica" or coat of mail; the evolution from the very imperfect leg-guards of the Norman period of complete mail hose; the extension of the sleeves of the hauberk to form first mittens and later gloves for the protection of the hands of the combatants, and the substitution for the light Norman headpiece of the heavy and cumbrous pot-helm, which outlasted the thirteenth century. Finally, in the later years of Henry III the transition from chain to plate began with the application to such exposed parts of the body as the elbows, knees, and shins of plates of metal strapped on above the mail. Simultaneously with these developments came the introduction of horse-armour. The light, flowing "trapper" or "couverture" of linen or silk which figures so prominently in contemporary pictorial representations of warfare stands to the defence of the horse in much the same relation as that in which the surcoat stands to the armour of the knight—its purpose, that is, was ornamental rather than strictly utilitarian. More effective protection was afforded by the housings of mail or of gamboised and quilted textiles, which came into fashion in the second half of the thirteenth century, and were gradually supplemented by "chamfrons" or body-plates of "cuir-bouilli" or metal, in much the same way as the mail of the knight was supplemented by "coudes," "genouillères," and "jambes" of solid iron. The evolution in the Edwardian period of a new type of body armour was in no small measure a response to the contemporary development of new and efficient weapons of offence, among which were conspicuous the cross-bow and the long-bow. In order to afford protection to the knight and man-at-arms against the hail of arrows which by the beginning of the Hundred Years' War was becoming the chief peril of the battle-field, the use of plate was steadily extended until, by the end of the fourteenth century, mail had been reduced to the position of a mere auxiliary to the main defences of both horse and rider. During the following century and a half plate reached its highest development, and for sheer grace of outline and beauty of workmanship, the body armour of the fifteenth century—the "Gothic" period—has seldom been equalled. For a time, in fact, the progress of defensive equipment was more rapid than that of offensive appliances. The knight in full panoply of plate was virtually immune from injury by such traditional weapons as the lance, sword, or arrow. He had become a kind of mobile fortress or redoubt. To unhorse him was practicable, but his dispatch was a matter of greater difficulty. This explains the growing popularity in the later Middle Ages of weapons of percussion such as the pole-axe, mace, and flail, and of staff-weapons of the type of the halberd, partisan, glaive or bill, the curved blades and pointed spurs of which were devised to penetrate the interstices of the plate. With the evolution of fire-arms the science of offence gradually gained ground once more at the expense of that of defence; but their introduction cannot be regarded as the sole or even as the main cause of the ultimate disappearance of body armour in the seventeenth century. Of more importance was the fact that defensive armour was beginning to defeat the ends for which it had been devised. The intolerable weight of the full knightly panoply hampered the wearer and destroyed his mobility. James I said of it that it was "an admirable invention; for while it protected the wearer from being hurt, it effectually prevented, by its weight, his causing injury to others." Hence the use of full armour was gradually discontinued in

actual warfare, although it was still employed in the mock warfare of the tournament. The Civil Wars of 1642–53 mark an important stage in the process of decline, which by the end of the century was virtually complete.

Sir C. W. C. Oman, "The Art of War in the Middle Ages," 2 vols., 1924; C. ffoulkes, "Armour and Weapons," 1909, and "The Armourer and his Craft," 1912; J. Hewitt, "Ancient Armour and Weapons in Europe," 3 vols., 1855–60; Sir J. F. Laking, "Record of European Arms and Armour," 5 vols., 1920–2.

[H. M. C.]

Arms, Assize of. [Assize.]

Armstrong, Sir John, of Gilnockie (*d.* 1528), the famous freebooter and hero of a stirring ballad, was the head of a powerful family which held practically independent power on the borders of England and Scotland and the "debatable land." The Scots government, however, regarded the Armstrongs as robbers, and James V determined to suppress them. In 1528 the king entered the border country at the head of a powerful force. Sir John Armstrong came to meet the king in great state, and attended by a train of gentlemen. He was immediately seized and hanged.

Armstrong, "History of Liddesdale."

Army. [Military System.]

Army Plot (1641) was an attempt to use the English army, which had not been disbanded after the Scottish War, to coerce the parliament. There were two distinct plots for this purpose: (1) Percy Wilmot and other officers and members of parliament proposed to induce the officers of the army to sign a declaration that they would stand by the king: (*a*) if parliamentary pressure were put upon him, either to compel him to assent to the exclusion of the bishops from the House of Lords, or to force him to disband the Irish army before the Scots were disbanded; (*b*) or if the full revenue he had enjoyed for so many years were not placed in his hands. At the same time, a plot somewhat similar, but contemplating the direct employment of force, was being contrived by Sir John Suckling and Henry Jermyn with the approval of the queen. They intended to commence operations by placing the command of the army in the hands of the Earl of Newcastle and George Goring (q.v.). Charles at first endeavoured to get the two parties to work together, and finding this impossible, decided against Suckling's plan. Goring, seeing no prospect of becoming lieutenant-general, betrayed the plot to the Earl of Newport, through whom it reached Pym (April 1). Meanwhile, Suckling had by no means abandoned his scheme, and he was also arranging an attempt to rescue Strafford from the Tower. Pym made use of his knowledge of this double plot to secure the agreement of the two Houses, and the support of the people. On May 3 the Protestation was drawn up, on the next day it was taken by the Lords, on the 5th it was agreed that a bill should be brought in to provide against the dissolution of the parliament, on the 8th that bill and the Attainder Bill both passed their first reading in the Lords. The king, left without any support, gave his assent to both bills on the 10th. Percy, Jermyn, Suckling and others fled to France, but were declared guilty of high treason. Thus the first attempt to use the army against the parliament gave fresh strength to the popular party. (2) At the end of May or the beginning of June, Daniel O'Neill was sent by the king to sound the officers of the army as to the feasibility of bringing up the troops to London if the neutrality of the Scots could be secured. At the same time one of the officers was entrusted by the king with a petition, to which he was to obtain signatures in the army. The petition protested against the unreasonable demands of the popular leaders, the diminution of the king's "just regalities," and the tumultuous assemblies round the Houses of Parliament. It concluded with a promise to defend king, church, parliament, and laws. The leaders of the army repudiated the petition, and O'Neill was obliged to fly, but the king still persisted in his intrigues for this purpose both during his journey to Scotland and his stay in that country. The knowledge of this new plot made Pym, on the outbreak of the Irish Rebellion, demand that the king should employ only such ministers as parliament should approve; otherwise the Commons would be obliged to provide for Ireland without the king. He followed this by bringing the evidence before the Commons, who passed a resolution affirming that there was "a second design to bring up the army against the parliament, and an intention to make the Scottish army stand as neutral." This event did much to secure the passing of the "Grand Remonstrance" (q.v.).

C. H. Firth, "Life of Cromwell," 1890.

[C. H. F.]

Arnee, Battle of (June 7, 1782), took place in the Mysore War between the British, under Sir Eyre Coote, and the troops of Hyder Ali, commanded by the Sultan in person. After an indecisive action, Hyder retreated.

H. C. Wylly, "Sir Eyre Coote," 1922.

Arrah, Defence of (1857). On July 25 three native regiments plundered the town and station of Arrah, and, headed by Koor Singh, a zemindar, who had rebelled, attacked a house where sixteen Englishmen and sixty Sikh police had taken refuge and fortified themselves. Mr. Boyle, an engineer, was the life of the defence, until Major Vincent Eyre, of the artillery, formed a small field force, with which he released the garrison on August 3.

Sir J. Kaye, "History of the Sepoy War," vol. iii, 1849 and 1890; "Annual Register," 1857; "Statistical Account of Bengal," xii, 204.

Arran, Earls of. [Hamilton.]

Arran, James Stuart, Earl of (*d.* 1596). [Stuart.]

Arran, Peerage of. 1. Scottish.—In 1467 Sir R. Boyd was created Earl of Arran. His widow married James, Lord Hamilton, and the earldom passed into that family. [Hamilton.] 2. Irish.—In 1693 Charles Butler, warden of the Cinque Ports, and master of the ordnance in Ireland, second son of Thomas, Earl of Ossory, the son of James, Duke of Ormonde, was created Earl of Arran. The peerage, however, became extinct with him. The present peerage was conferred on Sir Arthur Gore in 1758. He was the descendant of Sir Paul Gore, captain of a troop of horse in Elizabeth's reign, who arrived in Ireland and obtained large grants of land in County Mayo. [Stuart.]

Arras, The Battle of (April 1917), one of the leading battles of the Great War, originated in the strategical positions produced by the battles of the Aisne (1914) and the Somme (1916, q.v.), on the western front. The allied attack, preparations for which had been begun as early as October 1916, was directed towards crossing the river Scarpe and turning the newly-constructed Hindenburg Line by an advance on Cambrai. The attack opened on April 9 and closed on May 5 without having achieved its objective. Although the German front line and part of the second line succumbed to the opening onslaught, the strength of the German reserves, combined with the allies' lack of adequate artillery support and the exhaustion of the French after the Somme campaign, spelt failure. The British casualties numbered 132,000.

Arras, The Congress of (1435), was assembled for the purpose of making peace between England, Burgundy, and France. Ambassadors came from England, France, Burgundy, the pope, the Council of Basle, Castile, Aragon, Naples, Portugal, Sicily, Cyprus, Navarre, Poland, Denmark, Milan, and Brittany. The French offered to cede Normandy and Guienne to the English, but this was indignantly refused, and the Treaty of Troyes was insisted upon, certain territories south of the Loire being offered to Charles of France. This being rejected, the English representatives withdrew, and a treaty of peace and alliance was signed between France and Burgundy, by which the latter power agreed not to treat with the English without the sanction of the King of France.

M. R. James, "Henry VI," 1919.

Array, Commissions of, were first issued under Edward I—though their germs may be discerned at a much earlier date. They authorized certain individuals—usually men of military experience—to press for service in the king's army a number of men in their district, or sometimes all men capable of bearing arms and undertaking military duties. Under Edward I the forces thus raised were paid by the king, but under Edward II and Edward III the cost usually fell on the townships which furnished the men. The commissions were extremely unpopular, and Edward III had to promise in 1327 that all troops levied by this means should in future be paid by the king—a promise, however, which was not kept. In 1352 and 1402 it was provided that no commission of array should issue without "the common assent and grant of parliament," and the statute of Henry IV further provided that, except in case of invasion, none should be constrained to go out of their own counties, and that men chosen to go on the king's service out of England should be at the king's wages from the day they left their own counties. As thus defined, commissions were issued probably in the later Lancastrian, and certainly in the Yorkist and Tudor reigns. In the latter period, however, the commissioner of array became gradually merged in the lieutenant of the county, who eventually became the lord-lieutenant of modern times. [Military System.]

Arrest, Freedom from, is the special privilege of members of both Houses of Parliament, and is enjoyed by them during the session, and for forty days before and after, except in cases of treason, felony, or breach of the peace. The earliest mention of an analogous privilege is in a law of Ethelbert in the sixth century, which provides that "If the king call his people to him, and any one there do them injury, let him compensate with a twofold 'bot,' and fifty shillings to the king." In 1290 this privilege was confirmed by Edward I, who, in reply to a petition from the master of the Temple that he might distrain for the rent of a house held of him by the Bishop of St. Davids, replied that, "It does not seem fit that the king should grant that they who are of his council should be distrained in time of parliament." So too in the Prior of Malton's case, in 1315. The first recognition of the privilege by act of parliament was in 1433, when it was enacted that any assault on a member on his way to parliament was to be punishable by a double fine; though in 1404 Henry IV had replied to a petition that a threefold fine might be inflicted for such an offence, that though he admitted the privilege, the existing remedy was sufficient. The existence of the privilege was thus, by usage and by statute, clearly established; but frequent violations occurred under the Angevin and Lancastrian kings. In 1301 Henry Keighley was imprisoned by Edward I after the Parliament of Lincoln. In 1376 Peter de la Mare, the Speaker of the Good Parliament, was imprisoned at the instance of John of Gaunt; whilst in 1453 occurred the famous case of Speaker Thorpe (q.v.), who was imprisoned during the prorogation of parliament at the suit

of the Duke of York. The Commons tried to obtain his release "for the dispatch of the business of parliament," but failed, though the judges held that "if a member were arrested for any less cause than treason, felony, breach of the peace, and sentence of parliament, he should make his attorney and be released to attend in parliament." Thorpe, however, was not released, owing to the influence of the Duke of York. In 1460 Walter Clerk, member for Chippenham, was arrested "for a fine to the king, and damages to two private suitors," whereupon the Commons demanded and obtained his release. In 1477 John Atwyll, member for Exeter, was imprisoned for debt, but was released on the petition of the House. Up to the reign of Henry VIII arrested members had obtained their release either by special act of parliament if they were imprisoned in execution after judgment, or by a writ of privilege issued by the chancellor if confined on mesne process (i.e., after the commencement of a suit before judgment); but, in 1543, in the case of George Ferrers (q.v.), who had been arrested as surety for a debt, the House demanded his release by virtue of its own authority, and on the refusal of the sheriffs to liberate him committed them to prison for contempt, their proceedings being confirmed by the king. From this time members were usually released by the serjeant by warrant of the mace, not by writ (as in Smalley's case, 1575). In 1603 occurred the case of Sir Thomas Shirley, whom the warder of the Fleet refused to release for fear of becoming personally liable for his debt. This led to an act discharging from all liability the officer from whose custody a person having the privilege of parliament has been delivered, and enabling the creditor to sue out a new writ on the expiration of the period of privilege. The privilege of freedom from arrest for some time belonged not only to members of parliament but also to their servants (as in Smalley's case, 1575, and Johnson's case, 1621), but in 1770 a statute (based on earlier statutes of William III and Anne) confined the privilege to the persons of members, owing to the frequent abuse of the privilege, which was used as a means of escape from debt. [Imprisonment for debt was abolished in 1869.] As lately as 1880 it was decided on precedents that the duration of the privilege is forty days before and after the meeting of parliament; on the ground that the time must be clearly defined. The House of Commons has always maintained its powers of imprisoning its own members for contempt, as in the case of John Stone in 1547, and Arthur Hall in 1581. The right of a member of parliament to claim freedom from arrest has never been allowed to extend to criminal offences; and though in 1572 Lord Cromwell obtained his release after committal for contempt of court, in more recent times members committed by courts of law for open contempt have failed in obtaining release by virtue of privilege, "though," observes Sir Erskine May, "each case is still open to consideration when it arises." [PARLIAMENT.]

Sir E. May, "Parliamentary Practice"; C. Wittke, "History of English Parliamentary Privilege," 1921.

[F. S. P.]

Arthur, KING, the famous British and Christian hero of romance, had already become the centre of much Celtic legend, especially in Brittany, when Geoffrey of Monmouth published, in 1130, his "Historia Britonum." This work, though it poisoned the very fountains of history, acquired, in spite of protest (e.g., by William of Malmesbury), wide popularity, and became the source of that elaborate legend of Arthur and his Round Table which has inspired so much that is best in literature. Geoffrey's fictions were largely regarded as history, until, by an inevitable reaction, Milton and most of the eighteenth-century writers were led to disbelieve that any Arthur had really lived. Gildas, nearly a contemporary, makes no mention of him. The earliest really historical notices of Arthur are found in Nennius and the Welsh tenth-century chronicle called "Annales Cambriæ" (MS. A). Nennius says ("Mon. Hist. Britan.," 73–4), "Artur pugnabat contra illos [videlicet Saxones] cum regibus Britonum; sed ipse dux erat bellorum, et in omnibus bellis victor exstitit." He then gives a list of Arthur's twelve victories, ending with the battle "in monte Badonis." This the "Annales Cambriæ" place in A.D. 516, and make Arthur a Christian hero. The same authority places his death at the battle of Camlan, in 537. Will this evidence compensate for the silence of Gildas? All really depends on our estimate of Nennius. Many, like Milton, repudiate Nennius as a "very trivial author"; but others, including such great nineteenth-century authorities as Guest and Skene, have fully accepted his authority, though recognizing the fragmentary and unequal character of the series of treatises that collectively go by his name. Skene ("Four Ancient Books of Wales," "Celtic Scotland") claimed that Arthur was the leader of the Northern Cymry of Strathclyde and Cumbria against the Saxons; and identified places in those regions as the scenes of the twelve battles—Mons Badonis being Bouden Hill, near Linlithgow. Arthur, according to this view, was not a king, but a temporary general, the "Gwledig," who led the combined hosts of the princes of the Northern Britons to unwonted victories. He was the successor of the Roman generals of the legions encamped along the Pictish wall. His victories led to the restriction of the Saxons to the country east of the Pennine range, and so created the Cumbrian kingdom. He died defeated by a revolt of the heathen British, perhaps in alliance with the Saxons. Guest placed the scene of Arthur's victories in the western

border-land of the growing state of the West Saxons (e.g., Mons Badonis he locates at Badbury, in Dorsetshire). Elton ("Origins of British History") doubtfully followed Skene; while Professor Rhys ("Celtic Britain") regarded Arthur simply as the "ideal champion of the Brythonic race," whether in Wales, Cumbria, Cornwall, or Brittany. The consensus of recent opinion seems, however, to be definitely in favour of the historicity of Arthur.

Arthur of Brittany (1187–1203)—the son of Geoffrey Plantagenet—had, as third son of Henry II, a better hereditary claim to the English throne than his uncle John, Henry's fourth son. His mother, Constance of Brittany (q.v.), had, however, prejudiced his chances of the succession partly by her championship of the independence of her duchy and partly by her alienation of the old queen Eleanor. When, therefore, Richard I died, in 1199, England and Aquitaine declared for John; and Arthur, who could only rely upon the support of the barons of Anjou, Maine, and Touraine, was forced to seek the alliance of Philip Augustus of France. War broke out between Philip and John, but the former was more eager for his own interests than for Arthur, and very soon a peace was concluded, by which Philip's eldest son Louis was to marry Blanche of Castile, John's niece, John giving her the county of Evreux as a marriage portion. Arthur, who was betrothed to one of Philip's daughters, was forced to do homage to John for Brittany in 1200. Two years later, however, Philip accepted the appeal of John's malcontent Lusignan barons, and cited the English king to Paris. On John's refusal to obey the summons, Philip declared war and once more espoused the cause of Arthur, whom he invested with Brittany, Anjou, Maine, Touraine, and Poitou. Arthur commenced operations by attacking his grandmother Eleanor at Mirabel; but he was captured by John, who imprisoned him, first at Falaise, and afterwards at Rouen, where he died. The manner of Arthur's death is unknown, nor is it ever likely to be determined with certainty. The generally received account of his death, which has been consecrated by tradition and poetry, was that he was murdered by his uncle's own hand, and his body thrown into the Seine. The peers of France found John guilty of the murder, but it is doubtful how far this can be accepted as confirmatory of the accusation.

The "Chronicles" of Hoveden, Ralph de Coggeshall, and Matthew Paris (Rolls Series); K. Norgate, "John Lackland," 1902.

Arthur, Prince (1486–1502), was the eldest son of Henry VII. His marriage with Katharine of Aragon was first agreed upon between the Kings of Spain and England in March 1489, when he was not yet three years old, and he was little more than fifteen when the actual wedding ceremony was celebrated at St. Paul's, November 14, 1501. Bacon describes the young prince as a studious youth, and learned beyond his years. His name of Arthur was a graceful acknowledgment on Henry's part of his own British descent through Sir Owen Tudor.

Bacon, "History of Henry VII"; Gladys Temperly, "Henry VII," 1917.

Articles, The Lords of the, possibly first appointed in the reign of James I (1406–37), became gradually a recognized part of the legislative machinery of Scotland. The "Lords" consisted of a committee chosen equally from each estate to prepare the various measures, which, when completed, were laid before the estates for final adoption or rejection. An earlier form of delegation is found under David II, when, in 1367, the three estates transferred their authority to a general commission, so that they might be free to return home to gather in the harvest. William III endeavoured to remodel the system in 1689. He ordered that the Lords should consist of twenty-four persons, eight being chosen from each estate, and took away their power of rejecting absolutely any motion laid before them. The estates, however, voted that a permanent committee was objectionable, and in 1690, after several further suggestions had broken down, William gave his assent to a measure abolishing the Lords of the Articles, and providing for temporary committees, to be elected as occasion might arise. [Estates.]

P. Hume Brown, "History of Scotland," 1911.

Articles of Grievances, voted April 1689 by the Scots Estates, protested against sundry laws which were held to be burdensome and dangerous, and were intended to show William III in what cases reforms were needed. The estates complained chiefly of the laws passed in the parliament of 1685; of the reference of legislative proceedings to permanent committees to the injury of free parliamentary discussion; and of the act of 1669 which made the sovereign head of the Church. The Articles of Grievances differed from the Claim of Right in that the former laid down fundamental rules of the constitution which had been violated by James II; the latter merely petitioned for certain necessary reforms.

P. Hume Brown, "History of Scotland," 1911.

Articles of Religion. In England, as in other European countries, the Reformation period was marked by several attempts to codify or embody in an authoritative form the articles of religious belief. With a view to putting an end to discussion, Henry VIII, with the aid of his theological advisers, compiled a "Book of Articles," which was laid before convocation in 1536, and subscribed by all its members. These Articles established the Bible, the three creeds, and the first four councils as the basis of belief; limited the Sacraments to three, baptism, penance, and

the Eucharist; declared that, though the use of images, the worship of saints, and the ritual of the church services had not in themselves power to remit sins, yet they were useful to lift up men's minds unto God; accepted purgatory, but denounced pardons, and masses for the dead. These Articles pleased neither the Reformers nor the Romanists, and were accepted merely at the king's command. In 1539 Henry VIII's policy led him to check the growth of the reforming doctrines, and parliament passed the bill of the *Six Articles* (q.v.), which affirmed transubstantiation, the reception of the communion under one kind, the celibacy of the clergy, the binding power of vows of chastity, private masses, and auricular confession. Soon after the death of Henry VIII, in the parliament of 1547 the Statute of the Six Articles was repealed. In 1551 an order of the council was issued to Archbishop Cranmer bidding him frame Articles of Religion. This task the archbishop discharged with caution and deliberation. He consulted with others, circulated a rough draft, and laid it before the council. After many revisions it was handed for final consideration and emendation to five of the royal chaplains, and to John Knox, the Scottish reformer. Though it was thus discussed and revised, the draft was in the main the work of Cranmer and his friend Bishop Ridley, who is said to have supplied the greater share of learning. There is some doubt whether or not these Articles were submitted to convocation; but the evidence seems to show that they were. Finally, they w er issued in 1553, with the royal mandate to all the bishops ordering them to call on all clergy, schoolmasters, and churchwardens, to subscribe. These Articles of Edward VI, from their number, are sometimes known as the *Forty-two Articles*. They show that Cranmer in framing them used the Lutheran Confessions of Faith, especially the Confession of Augsburg, though he did not merely copy them. The accession of Queen Mary within two months of the publication of the Forty-two Articles did not give them much time to sink into the minds of the clergy. On the accession of Elizabeth, Archbishop Parker was called on to provide for the troubled condition of ecclesiastical matters. In 1559 *Eleven Articles* were issued by authority, to be held by all clergy. They were limited to the definition of fundamental truths, and the points in which the Church of England held the Roman practice to be superstitious. These were meant to be temporary only, while Parker reconsidered the Forty-two Articles of Edward VI. He revised them, and laid the results of his revision before convocation in 1562. As Cranmer had used the Confession of Augsburg, Parker made further use of the Confession of Wurtemberg. In his revision he omitted four of the original Forty-two Articles —the tenth, "Of Grace"; the sixteenth, "Of Blasphemy against the Holy Ghost"; the nineteenth, "All men are bound to keep the Moral Commandments of the Law" (the first part of which was added to the seventh); and the forty-first, against "Heretics called Millenarii." He added four others—the fifth, twelfth, nineteenth, and thirtieth of the present edition. Besides these greater changes, the phraseology was altered in many points. The convocation made further alterations, and several important omissions. It struck out the end of the third Article, concerning the preaching of Christ to the spirits in prison, and entirely discarded three Articles—"The souls of them that depart this life do neither die with the bodies, nor sleep idly"; "The resurrection of the dead is not yet brought to pass"; "All men shall not be saved at the length." The Articles, now reduced in number to thirty-nine, were submitted to the queen, who further struck out the present twenty-ninth Article, "Of the wicked which eat not the Body of Christ in the use of the Lord's Supper." She further added to the twentieth Article the clause, "The Church hath power to decree rites or ceremonies, and authority in controversies of faith." The Articles were originally in Latin; but an English translation was soon issued of the *Thirty-eight Articles* as they passed the revision of the queen and council. In 1571 the Articles were committed by convocation to Bishop Jewel for editorship. They were then put into their present form, and were issued both in Latin and English—both versions being authoritative and official. The twenty-ninth Article was restored, and the other alteration of the queen, on the authority of the Church to determine rites and ceremonies, was retained in the English Articles, but omitted in the Latin. The *Thirty-nine Articles* were then approved by parliament, and a statute was passed requiring subscription from all candidates for holy orders. From this time forward they have been the standard of the opinions of the Church of England. Accordingly, the "Constitutions and Canons Ecclesiastical" passed by convocation in 1603, and confirmed by royal authority, enacted excommunication as the penalty to anyone who "declared the Thirty-nine Articles to be erroneous, superstitious, or such as he may not with a good conscience subscribe unto." But these canons, not having been passed by parliament, are binding only as ecclesiastical law on the clergy, not on the laity. As regards the legal aspect of the Thirty-nine Articles, the act of 1571 enacted that no one should be admitted to a benefice till he had subscribed the Articles in the presence of the ordinary, and publicly read them in the parish church, with a declaration of his unfeigned assent. The canons of 1603 further enacted that no one should teach, either in a school or in a private house, unless he subscribed the Thirty-nine Articles and obtained a licence from a bishop. The

Act of Uniformity, passed in 1662, embodied this provision. The Toleration Act of 1689 exempted from the penalties of existing statutes against conventicles such dissenting ministers and teachers as should subscribe the Thirty-nine Articles, omitting the thirty-fourth, thirty-fifth, thirty-sixth, and the words of the twentieth which declare that the Church has power to decree rites and ceremonies. Those who had scruples about infant baptism were exempted from subscription to part of the twenty-seventh Article. This act was the beginning of a period of indulgence and security from persecution to Dissenters, which went on till in 1779 was passed the Dissenting Ministers Act, enabling Dissenters to preach and act as schoolmasters without any subscription to the Articles. From this time forward subscription to the Articles ceased to be a test for the exclusion of Dissenters, except in the universities. At Oxford, the Earl of Leicester as chancellor had, in 1581, imposed subscription to the Articles before matriculation. At Cambridge, subscription, since 1616, was required of all who took a degree. Thus, Dissenters could not enter the University of Oxford; they might be educated at Cambridge, but were not admitted to any of the endowments. These disabilities were not removed till the passing of the University Tests Act in 1871, which exempted laymen from any religious test. Thus the Articles have ceased to be used as a standard of orthodoxy for any save the clergy of the Church of England. Even in their case it was felt that subscription to a body of doctrinal statements was an excessive obligation, if it was meant to imply literal agreement with every sentence contained in them. To avoid further ambiguities, and to relieve scrupulous consciences on this point, the Clerical Subscription Act of 1866 did away with subscription in the case of the clergy, and substituted a declaration of assent to the Thirty-nine Articles and the Prayer Book.

Cardwell, "Synodalia"; Hardwick, "History of the Articles." [M. C.]

Articles of War are framed by the Crown for the better government of the army and navy. Those which are in force for the army were first authorized in 1714, and are confirmed annually in the Mutiny Act, the Articles of War for the navy being based on a bill passed in 1749 (repealed 1860). The Articles of War, "which are to be obeyed as being the commands of a superior officer," are divided into sections, some of which correspond to clauses in the Mutiny Act; others, however, though they relate to subjects in the latter, are occupied with definitions of the crime and the punishment appropriate to it. There are some Articles, moreover, which have no counterpart in the act. It is to be observed that the legality of the Articles of War, as of other orders, may itself become the subject of examination and controversy in a court-martial; but the Mutiny Act, being part of the statute law, must be obeyed without question. In 1879 the Army Discipline Act consolidated the provisions of the Mutiny Act and the Articles of War. This was amended by the Army Act of 1881, which provided a fairly complete code of military law. [Military System.]

Articuli Super Cartas were certain articles, twenty in number, supplementing the Great Charter and the Charter of the Forests, which were accepted by Edward I in the parliament which met in March 1300. The most important clauses are those which appoint commissioners to investigate all cases in which the charters had been infringed; those which reform and regulate the jury system; those which remedy the abuses of purveyance and of the jurisdiction of the royal officers; and those which order that no common pleas shall be held in the Exchequer contrary to the form of Magna Carta, and forbid the issue of common law writs under the privy seal. One article, which has been called "a curious relic of the ideas of 1258," allows the office of sheriff to be elective in counties where the office is not of fee or heritable. There were also articles regulating administration of the forests, and limiting the royal jurisdiction over them.

"Statutes of the Realm," i, 136; Stubbs, "Select Charters," ed. H. W. C. Davis, 1913, for text.

Arundel, Earls of. [Fitz-Alan: Howard.]

Arundel, Peerage of. Roger de Montgomery, one of the most trusted followers of William the Conqueror, received, besides grants of land in Shropshire, vast estates in Sussex, including the castle and honour of Arundel. In 1102, upon the forfeiture of Roger's son, Robert de Bellême, the honour of Arundel passed to the Crown, and was settled by Henry I on his second wife, Adelais of Louvain (q.v.), who, after the king's death, conveyed it to her second husband, William de Albini, afterwards Earl of Sussex. William de Albini, the son of this marriage, received, like his father, a grant of the third penny of the county of Sussex; and is styled Earl of Sussex, as well as Earl of Arundel. In 1243 Hugh de Albini, Earl of Sussex and Arundel, died without issue, and part of his estates, including the honour of Arundel, passed to his nephew, John Fitz-Alan, Lord of Clun and Oswestry. He and his sons are styled Lords of Arundel only; Richard Fitz-Alan (*d.* 1302) being the first to resume the title of earl. His son Edmund was beheaded in 1326, and his honours forfeited. They were, however, restored to Richard, his son and heir, in 1331. In 1580 Henry Fitz-Alan, 25th earl, died without male heirs, and the earldom and estates passed by the marriage of his daughter Mary to Philip, son of Thomas, 4th Duke of Norfolk. Philip

was summoned to parliament as Earl of Arundel. The earldom has since continued in the line of the Fitz-Alan Howards, Dukes of Norfolk. The peerage of ARUNDEL OF WARDOUR was conferred in 1605 on Sir Thomas Arundel, a distinguished soldier, who had fought in the wars against the Turks, and had been created a Count of the Holy Roman Empire by Rudolph II. [FITZ-ALAN : HOWARD.]

G. E. Cokayne, "Complete Peerage," new edn.; J. P. Yeatman, "Early Genealogical History of the House of Arundel," 1882.

Arundel, THOMAS (1353–1414), was the third son of Richard Fitz-Alan, Earl of Arundel, and was made Bishop of Ely in 1374. He joined Gloucester in his opposition to de la Pole and other ministers of Richard II, and in 1386 was appointed chancellor. On the banishment of Neville he received the archbishopric of York, and retired from the chancellorship in 1389. He was chancellor again from 1391, till his appointment to the archbishopric of Canterbury in 1396. Next year he was accused with Gloucester, his brother the Earl of Arundel, and Warwick, of treason, and at the king's request was translated by the pope to the see of St. Andrews. He was banished from the realm, and concerted with Bolingbroke plans for regaining power in England. He accompanied Henry on his expedition to England in 1399, and on the deposition of Richard received once more the archbishopric and the chancellorship. He strenuously supported the rights of the Church during the remainder of his life, and was instrumental in getting the statute *De Hæretico Comburendo* passed. He held the chancellorship again from 1407 to 1409, and from 1412 to 1413.

Hook, "Archbishops of Canterbury"; Foss, "Judges of England"; H. Wallon, "Richard II," 1864; Wylie, "Henry IV."

Arundell, SIR THOMAS OF LANHERNE (*d.* 1552), was educated in Wolsey's household and enjoyed the favour of Henry VIII, who appointed him in 1535 a commissioner for the suppression of the monasteries. He married Margaret, the sister of Queen Catherine Howard. He was a partisan of the Protector Somerset, in whose fall he was involved. He was executed on a charge of treason, February 1552.

Asaf-ud-Dowlah (*d.* 1797) succeeded his father, Shuja-ud-Dowlah, as Vizir of Oudh, in 1775, and was ultimately recognized by the emperor. A treaty was concluded with the British, by which the vizir agreed to surrender Benares and certain other districts. This vizir misgoverned, as his father had done, and by 1781 was in a state of the greatest pecuniary embarrassment. Hastings therefore concluded an arrangement with him, one main object of which was to relieve him from burdens which he professed himself totally unable to bear. His reign was a mixture of oppression, sensuality, and poverty. [HASTINGS.]

Biographies of Cornwallis and Warren Hastings.

Ascalon (mod. ASKALAN), a town on the coast of Syria, about twelve miles north of Gaza, was a place of great strength and importance in the earlier Crusades. It was to this town that Richard I led the crusading army after the fall of Acre in the early part of 1192. On the way his troops were intercepted by a great Saracen army, under the command of Saladin, said to number over 300,000 men. The two wings of the Christian army were broken; but the centre, commanded by Richard himself, held firm, and at last drove back the enemy in great disorder. The Saracens are said to have suffered heavy losses. The victory threw the town of Ascalon into the hands of the Crusaders.

K. Norgate, "Richard Cœur de Lion," 1924.

Ascension Island, situated in the South Atlantic, was discovered by the Portuguese on Ascension Day, 1501. It was never colonized until it was seized by the British in 1815, during the captivity of Napoleon in the neighbouring island of St. Helena.

Ascham, ANTONY (*d.* 1650), an author "of much reputation," was sent by the Commonwealth, in 1650, as ambassador to Madrid. A few days after his arrival there, he was assassinated by some refugee Royalists. The murderers, with the exception of one who was executed, were allowed to escape, public opinion in the Spanish capital being entirely in their favour.

Ascham, ROGER (1515–68), one of the earliest of English Greek scholars, and at one time public orator at Cambridge, became Latin secretary successively to Edward VI, Queen Mary, and Elizabeth, and was also tutor to the last-named princess in 1548, being charged with her instruction in the learned languages. In 1550 he accompanied Sir Richard Morysin, ambassador to the court of Charles V, in the capacity of secretary. On the accession of Queen Elizabeth, Ascham was, in 1559, made a canon of York. As a writer of English prose Ascham deserves high praise. His style, though somewhat rugged, is pithy and vigorous. His work on education, entitled "The Scholemaster," is interesting and valuable. He also wrote "Toxophilus," a treatise on archery, and "A Report of the Affairs and State of Germany," which is of some historical value.

Ascham's "Works," ed. Giles, 1856; "The Scholemaster," edited with notes by J. E. B. Mayor, 1884.

Ashanti. [WEST AFRICA, BRITISH DOMINIONS IN.]

Ashanti, WARS IN. Ashanti first came into conflict with Britain in 1807, and again in 1816, when its ruler defeated the British in two encounters. When war was renewed in 1823 Sir C. MacCarthy, governor of Cape Coast Castle, was defeated and killed. His death was avenged at Dudowah in 1826. A British punitive expedition sent out in 1863 was

smitten with fever and withdrew, but in 1873 a force under Sir Garnet Wolseley defeated the Ashantis on November 5 and took Kumasi (q.v.) on February 5, 1874. By the Treaty of Fommanah, signed a week later, King Koffee Kalkali agreed to allow free trade and to discontinue human sacrifices. After an unsuccessful revolt in 1900 Ashanti was finally annexed by Great Britain (1901) and placed under the Governor of the Gold Coast.

Brackenbury, "Narrative of the Ashanti War"; H. M. Stanley, "Coomassie and Magdala," 1874 and 1896; H. Biss, "Relief of Kumasi," 1901.

Ashburnham, Sir John (*d.* 1671), a descendant of an old Sussex family, sat in the Long Parliament, and took a prominent part on the Royalist side, and at the outbreak of the Civil War joined the king, and was appointed treasurer and paymaster to the army. He attended Charles I when he gave himself up to the Scots, and immediately afterwards fled to France. In 1647 he returned, and became one of the king's personal attendants, and was the chief contriver of Charles's escape from Hampton Court. The business was mismanaged, and Ashburnham was accused of treachery by the Royalists; for which, however, there seems to be little ground. He remained in England after the king's death, and compounded for his estate, but being detected in sending money to Charles II, he was in 1654 imprisoned in the Tower, where he remained till Cromwell's death. At the Restoration he received large grants of land, and was made groom of the bedchamber to the king.

Ashburnham's "Narrative of his Attendance on King Charles the First" was published by his descendant, Lord Ashburnham, in 1830.

Ashburton, John Dunning, 1st Baron (1731–83). [Dunning.]

Ashburton Treaty, The (1842), was concluded between Great Britain and the United States for settling the frontiers of the two countries. It defined them to run along the forty-ninth parallel of north latitude from the great lakes to the middle of the channel which separates the continent from Vancouver Island, and thence southwards through the middle of that channel to the Pacific. It neglected, however, to define the middle of the channel, and in consequence a dispute, which was settled in 1872 by arbitration, in favour of the United States, arose as to the ownership of the little island of San Juan.

R. B. Mowat, "Diplomatic Relations of Great Britain and the United States," 1925.

Ashby, Sir John (1642–93), a distinguished naval officer, was appointed captain of the *Defiance*, and took part in the engagement with the French fleet in Bantry Bay and in the battle of Beachy Head (q.v.). In 1692 he fought in the battle of La Hogue, and, together with Delaval, was entrusted with the pursuit of the French ships. Nottingham afterwards accused him in parliament, together with Admiral Russell, of negligence in the latter part of the engagements; and though triumphantly acquitted, Ashby seems never to have taken active service again. [La Hogue.]

Ashby *v.* White. [Aylesbury Election Case.]

Ashdown (Æscdun). The name of the ridge of chalk hills running east and west between the valleys of the Ock and the Kennet, where was fought, in 871, a great battle between the West Saxons, led by Ethelred and Alfred, and the Danish host, which had spread over East Anglia and invaded Wessex this year. The Danes had seized Reading, and before this town the Saxons were badly beaten. A few days later they again attacked their foes at Ashdown. A desperate battle was fought, lasting all day, and ending in the flight of the Danes. One of their kings and five of their "jarls" fell in the battle. The victory was in great part due to the vigour and promptitude of Alfred, who led one of the two divisions of the Wessex army. [Alfred.]

Biographies of Alfred the Great.

Ashe, Simeon (*d.* 1662), was one of those clergymen who were ejected from their livings by Laud for refusing to read the declaration concerning the "Book of Sports" (q.v.). He became chaplain to the Earl of Manchester, and had considerable influence with Presbyterian leaders in the war. He was, however, a strong opponent of the Commonwealth, and was one of those who went to Breda to congratulate Charles II on his restoration.

Ashe was present at the battle of Marston Moor, and wrote an interesting and valuable account of the campaign, "A True Relation of the moste chiefe Occurrences at and since the late Battell at Newbery . . . to vindicate the Earle of Manchester" (London, 1644).

Ashta, The Battle of (1818), was fought between the British troops under General Sir Lionel Smith and Baji Rao. The Peshwa, heaping reproaches on his brave general, Gokla, for having allowed himself to be surprised, fled at once. Gokla, stung by the insult, placed himself at the head of 300 horse, but was defeated and slain by a British cavalry charge (February 20).

Asiento, The (1713), or the "contract" for supplying the Spanish colonies in the Western world with negro slaves, was at first an arrangement between France and Spain. After the merchandise had been carried on by Genoa and Portugal, it had been undertaken in 1702 by a French company. By one of the stipulations of the Treaty of Utrecht, this right was surrendered to Great Britain, and confirmed by a special treaty of forty-two clauses. After France had resigned the Asiento, Spain was to convey it to Great Britain for thirty years, at the end of which period, and a further term of three years, the traffic was to be wound up. Great Britain was to furnish 4,800 negroes annually. With the Asiento Great Britain was to have the right of sending

two ships a year, each of five hundred tons burden, to America with negroes. A contest for this profitable monopoly soon arose between the African and the South Sea Company; the latter were successful, and obtained the fourth part reserved for the queen by the terms of the treaty. On the outbreak of war with Spain, Great Britain lost the Asiento, but it was once more renewed in 1725, and was again restored to her by the Peace of Aix-la-Chapelle (1748), for the remaining four years which it had to run.

Malachy Postlethwayt, "Universal Dictionary of Trade and Commerce," 1751.

Aske, Robert (*d.* 1537), was a gentleman of Yorkshire, and the chief organizer of the famous rebellion of Henry VIII's reign known as the Pilgrimage of Grace (q.v.). His sympathies with the prevalent discontent seem to have been excited originally by his accidental sojourn at Lincoln during the disturbances there in September 1536. While the various leaders of the movement were executed, Robert Aske had the distinction of being hanged in chains on one of the towers of York. Aske's talents for organization and command, and his moderation and integrity, make him a very remarkable character.

M. H. and R. Dodds, "The Pilgrimage of Grace," 1915.

Askew (Ascue, or Ayscough), Anne (*d.* 1546), daughter of Sir William Askew, of Kelsey, in Lincolnshire, was arrested as a heretic for denying the doctrine of the Real Presence in the Sacrament. From her intimacy with Catherine Parr, Anne Askew's prosecution for heresy is memorable, as it revealed, among other things, the hostility of Bishop Gardiner and Lord Chancellor Wriothesley to the queen; for before being handed over to the executioner for the punishment of burning, Anne, in spite of her sex, was made to undergo in the Tower the torture of the rack, with a view of extorting from her in her agony some avowal implicating other court ladies, and possibly the queen.

Asquith, Herbert Henry, Earl of Oxford and Asquith (1852–1928), was educated at the City of London School and at Balliol College, Oxford. He was called to the bar in 1876, and took silk in 1890. He entered the House of Commons as member for East Fife in 1886, was one of Parnell's counsel before the Commission, and first took office as home secretary under Gladstone in 1892. After the fall of the ministry in 1895 he returned to the bar. From 1903–5 he vigorously opposed Joseph Chamberlain's fiscal policy. In 1905 he became chancellor of the exchequer in the Liberal ministry. On the resignation of Sir Henry Campbell-Bannerman he was summoned by the king (April 5, 1908), and formed a new cabinet, himself becoming prime minister and first lord of the treasury, retaining this position till 1916, when a coalition government was formed with Mr. Lloyd George as premier. In 1918 Mr. Asquith lost his seat as member for East Fife, but was returned for Paisley in 1920 and resumed his position as leader of the Liberal party. He was created Earl of Oxford and Asquith in 1925, and retired from the leadership of his party in 1926. His book, "Fifty Years of Parliament," appeared in 1926.

Assam. A province of British India lying along the upper valleys of the Brahmaputra, and extending from the frontiers of Bengal to Northern Burma. The country was conquered in the early Middle Ages by tribes from Burma, who, however, gradually assimilated in language and religion with the Hindus. The Mohammedans never succeeded in conquering the country, though they frequently attempted it. In the early part of the nineteenth century the Assamese became closely connected with Burma, and their hostile attitude to the East India Company brought about the First Burmese War, the result of which was the annexation of Assam in 1826. It was placed under the lieutenant-governor of Bengal; in 1874 it was made a separate chief-commissionership, and in 1905 was with Eastern Bengal constituted a lieutenant-governorship. [Burmese Wars.]

Sir E. Gait, "History of Assam," 1927.

Assandun, The Battle of (1016), was the last of the battles between Edmund Ironside and Canute. Owing, it is said, to the treachery of Edric, the English were defeated, and concluded with Canute the treaty of Olney. Assandun is probably to be identified with Ashingdon, near Rochford, in Essex.

L. M. Larson, "Canute," 1912.

Assassination Plot, The (1696), was an attempt on the life of William III, first designed in 1695, but postponed by William's departure for Flanders. It grew up side by side with Berwick's plot for the invasion of England by a French army. It was entrusted by the court of St. Germains to Sir George Barclay. Ranke thinks that "all direct evidence" is against the complicity of Louis XIV and James II; though "both of them would have been very ready to pluck the fruit." Certainly Barclay was given a commission by James himself authorizing him to "do such acts of hostility against the Prince of Orange as should most conduce to the service of the king." Barclay landed in England in January 1696, and in conjunction with Charnock and Parkyns hatched the conspiracy. He was joined by a number of James's body-guard, whom he called his Janissaries. It remained to gain twenty more adherents, and but little care was taken in their selection. It was determined to attempt the life of the king on Turnham Green, on his way back to Kensington after hunting in Richmond Park, on February 15. But the hearts of some of the conspirators failed them, and information was conveyed

to the Duke of Portland. William thereupon postponed his hunting. Still the conspirators imagined they were undetected; but they were speedily undeceived by the arrest of some of their number, and the issue of warrants against others. A joint address was voted by both Houses of Parliament, acknowledging the Divine goodness which had preserved the king to the people. [Fenwick; Association in Favour of William III.]

"Commons' Journals"; Burnet, "History of His Own Time," ed. O. Airy, 1897–1900; Stanley Weyman, "Shrewsbury."

Assaye. [Assye.]

Assessment. The assessment of taxation first begins to be really important when direct taxation itself assumes importance with the Norman reigns. The Danegeld (q.v.) of the Anglo-Saxon period was assessed upon the hide. The levy was continued by the Norman kings, and the main purpose of the Domesday Inquest was to ascertain the value of the land for purposes of taxation. A township was rated in Domesday at such and such a number of hides, and paid its Danegeld or hidage accordingly. The towns arranged with the sheriff or the itinerant justices what sums they should pay. After the introduction of knight-service by the Conqueror a new unit of assessment appeared in the knight's fee, and periodical inquests were held to ascertain the liabilities of the military tenants in chief of the Crown. The first of these of which we have record was the great inquest of 1166, the returns to which (the "laitæ" of the barons) are preserved in the Red and Black Books of the Exchequer. Later compilations were the Book of Fees ("Testa de Nevill") and the various returns relating to the assessment of the feudal aids in the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries. But Domesday itself was a return sent in to royal commissioners by each hundred and township, a joint work of the royal and popular powers. When, after the Saladin tithe of 1188 (q.v.) upon movables as well as rents, taxation began to fall more and more on personal property, and to advance towards the subsidy of the fourteenth and succeeding centuries, then more than ever the assessment of a tax required the free co-operation of each locality. Only from a jury of neighbours could a due estimate be reached of a man's property. The assessment of taxation was committed to representatives in each district, and taxation itself was rapidly becoming a function for the united representatives of the whole nation. When this latter point is reached in the parliamentary system of Edward I, the matter of assessment loses its main constitutional importance, having already done its work. The knights of the shire, who in 1220, for instance, assess the average on their neighbours, in 1295, assembled in one body, grant the tax, and in the Good Parliament of 1376 demand the right to settle its appropriation. And indeed, as early as 1334, assessment becomes little more than mechanical when the rating of the fifteenth, made in that year and recorded in the exchequer, was thereafter taken as a standard. Henceforth the only question which remains to give trouble is concerned with the assessment of the clergy. When, from the date above given (1188), their "spiritualities," i.e., revenues from fees, etc., came under contribution, the assessment was carried out by the same method of juries of neighbours, until, in 1256, the Norwich taxation made by order of Pope Alexander IV, and in 1291 the valuation superseding it, which was made by order of Nicholas IV, and which covered both "temporalities" and "spiritualities," gave the clergy a permanent independent rate-book, which was acted on till the Reformation. But it left an opening for constant disputes in the next two centuries as to the mode and rate of assessment to be applied; first, to lands acquired by the Church since the valuation of 1291, and secondly as to the large class of chantry priests and private chaplains whom that valuation had left out of account. This clerical valuation and the lay assessment of Domesday, as well as the rating to subsidies of the fourteenth, fifteenth, and sixteenth centuries, were probably far below the real value. Not only were exemptions wide and numerous, but the rating itself was evidently at a nominal valuation. The Domesday hide, for example, omitted unproductive ground; and the later subsidies did not fall on a knight's equipment or a peasant's implements. The lightness of the assessment must, in fact, be set against the burdensomeness of early taxation due to its uncertainty, its wasteful modes of collection, and its suicidally short-sighted principles. When the methods of assessment ceased in the fourteenth century to have a formative effect on the constitution, their chief importance passed. But here, too, the Tudor and Stuart kings, going back for precedents to an age before the national liberties were set on a firm constitutional basis, revived on several occasions more arbitrary methods, and disregarded the valuations which had been accepted for two centuries. Thus the commissioners under Wolsey's great scheme of taxation in 1522, and again in 1525, were to assess each man, clerk or lay, to the value of his chattels. In 1621 the assessors were to disregard old rates, and to rate every man according to their own knowledge, not even accepting his own declaration, and such was the precedent followed in the raising of ship-money. The whole practice, too, of benevolences and of forced loans levied according to official estimates of the individual's property, was an application of arbitrary assessment. Again, in the seventeenth century, with the establishment of the excise arose a question of some practical moment, how this was assessed. Similar points of social interest are connected

with the injurious effects of certain taxes, assessed on a false principle, as the window-tax; or the introduction of the income tax, in which recourse has to be made to a rude method of joint assessment by the payer himself and by an official commissioner. But these methods are, as a matter of fact, guaranteed against unjustly operating, by the right of appeal to a higher body or a court of law.

Madox, "History of the Exchequer"; Stubbs, "Constitutional History" and "Select Charters," ed. H. W. C. Davis, 1913; G. K. Mitchell, "Taxation Under John and Henry III"; Sir James Ramsay, "The Revenues of the Kings of England," 1925; J. Willard, "Taxation Returns." [A. L. S.]

Assize (assisa, assisia) is a word of doubtful etymology; probably at least two words have converged to create the ideas underlying the various senses of the term; viz., (*a*) *assido* or *assideo*, to sit down—i.e., a session or a settlement, the notions perhaps common to most meanings of assize; (*b*) *accido*, to tax (cf. excise and *assisus redditus*). Besides these (*c*) there must be some connexion with the Anglo-Saxon *asetniss*, a law (cf. établissement de S. Louis); and (*d*) Ducange's editors can explain assisia only by reference to Arabic.

Meanings—(1) *Session*, and, specially, *Judicial Session*.—This meaning, which is found so early as in the Pipe Roll 2, Henry II, may possibly be the original one; cf. Watsius, "De Jure Vet. Munic. Norm.," i, 56; "assize est une assemblée de plusieurs sages hommes en laquelle ce qui y sera jugié doit avoir produrable fermeté." From this come the "Grandes" and "Petites Assises" of France, and the Courts of *Criminal* Jurisdiction, called "Cours d'Assises," in the Code Napoléon. The modern English use to denote the court of the justices on circuit is, perhaps by an accident, an example of this use of the word. A specialized case is the old use of assize for—

(2) *The Select Body Engaged in Administering the Trial*—e.g., Provisions of Oxford, in the "provisum est quod nullus miles non ponatur in juratis vel assisis"—i.e., all knights are liable to be *jurymen*. The words are clearly synonymous, though the old law books make a distinction. The "sworn men" are also the "men settled" to try a case.

(3) *A Law or Ordinance*—i.e., the "lex assisa," the settled edict of the king. In reality a law, the "Assize" in this sense professed to be rather an occasional enactment, valid during pleasure, an executive, not a legislative, act. Thus, the mediæval reverence for the "written law," which sprang from the solemn sense assigned to "lex" in the Bible and Roman Law, was respected, and real legislative changes produced by a legal fiction—cf. the Prætor's Edict, the Capitularies of the Carolingians, the Provisions of Henry III, the "Establishments" of St. Louis, all of which had the same object. Instances of such assizes are the "Assises de Jérusalem," a code for the Frank kingdom of Palestine, drawn up by Godfrey of Bouillon and his barons (1099), Henry II's Assizes, of Clarendon, Northampton, Woodstock, Arms, Essoines, etc. ("novas leges quas assisas vocavit"), for which see below; the Assizes of Antioch, Sicily, Rumania, and in Brittany the Assizes of Count Geoffrey in 1185, and the Assize of Count John (against the Jews) in 1239. Wherever Norman or Frank influence went, twelfth-century law assumed the form of assizes.

(4) *State Regulations of the Price, Quality, etc., of various Commodities*.—A sense kindred to previous paragraph. These were the "assisæ rerum venalium" of old English and French law. Richard I aimed—not very successfully—at uniform weights and measures (Assize of Measures in Hoveden, iv, 33). John "fecit generaliter acclamari ut legalis assisa panis inviolabiter observaretur" (Matthew Paris, A.D. 1201). This points to pre-existing custom. There were also assizes of wine, ale, salt, boards, timber, wood, coal, butter, and cheese. These restrictions on trade and on adulteration were kept up quite late—e.g., there were three editions of the assize printed in 1528, 1530, and 1580. In 6 and 7 Wm. IV, acts regulating the assize of bread were formally repealed. They were carried into New England and long kept up there.

(5) *A Mode of Trial prescribed by an Assize* (in sense of law)—e.g., the Grand Assize of Henry II and the other "real actions," the assizes of Mort d'Ancestor, Novel Disseisin, and Darrein Presentment (see p. 80). Spelman calls them "brevia regia et litigandi formulæ." Assize here means (*a*) the law; (*b*) the rule instituted by it.

(6) *The Trial itself*—e.g., in the assize of Northampton the royal direction to the justices to try robbers (ut faciant assisam de latronibus); cf. "cum brevibus assisarum et placitorum" in royal writ of 1231.

(7) *Assessment*—i.e., the settlement of the incidence of a tax—e.g., "Dialogus De Scaccario," i, 8. "Fiunt per comitatas communes *assisæ* a justiciis errantibus—quæ ideo dicuntur communes quia cognita summa quæ de comitatu requiruntur," etc.

(8) *A Tax*—e.g., "Liber Niger Scacarii," cap. "De Danegeldo," "ex constitutis duobus solidis summa una quæ communis *assisa* nuncupatur excrescit"; cf. "levare assisam," to levy a tax.

(9) *Fines*.—Fixed by courts of justice—e.g., in Brittany, "le seigneur peut demander pour son betail l'essise ou le dedommage a san choix."

(10) *Assisus Redditus*.—The fixed rent which customary tenants paid to the lord of the manor, beyond which they were free. This is analogous to the preceding.

The various law glossaries, such as Spelman and the modern works based on him, collect the chief uses of assize; cf. Ducange's "Glossarium Mediæ et Infimæ Latinitatis," and the old law books, Britton, Bracton, etc. [T. F. T.]

Assize, Justices of, were originally the persons commissioned to try the petty or possessory assizes. [Assize (5).] At first a special commission of assize was issued on each individual application, but in the later thirteenth century general commissions began to be issued, and in 1272 an ordinance established regular circuits for the justices of assize. Simultaneously the powers of the justices began to be extended in various directions. The commissions of *oyer and terminer*, and *jail delivery*, of *nisi prius*, and of the peace, were added to those above mentioned. In the fourteenth century, therefore, the judges (who were now invariably laymen and professional lawyers) acted on circuit under five separate commissions, but they continued to be known as Justices of Assize, although, properly speaking, the trying of the petty assizes was only one of their functions. By 3 and 4 Wm. IV, the possessory assizes were abolished, so that the present commission is only fourfold, but the name has survived the fact, and the courts of the judges in circuit are still generally called the "assizes," and the town of their meeting the assize town. [Justice.]

Assize, The Grand, was a form of inquest by sworn recognitors which was employed in suits to determine the ownership of a freehold. It was established by Henry II as an alternative to wager of battle, which, since the Conquest, had been the ordinary method of trying such cases. The date of its promulgation is uncertain. The year 1179 has been suggested; but recent opinion favours the view that the Grand Assize was of earlier origin than the petty or possessory assizes, and that it was instituted in or about 1160. The procedure was as follows. On the motion of the *de facto* tenant of the property the Curia Regis stopped proceedings in the local courts pending the inquest. On the application of the plaintiff four knights of the county were selected and summoned through the sheriff to Westminster. There they elected twelve lawful knights of the neighbourhood in which the lands were situate, who, in the presence of the king's justices, were to declare upon oath to which suitor the tenement belonged. If the jury knew the facts they had only to declare their verdict. If not, those ignorant were replaced by better-informed witnesses, until twelve were found who could agree. Their decision was final. The new procedure rapidly superseded the "duellum," which was not, however, finally abolished until 1819. In the meantime the Grand Assize had itself become obsolete; but it only disappeared, with the rest of the "real actions," as a result of the act of 3 and 4 William IV, c. 27. The latest case was that of Davies v. Lownes in 1835–8. The text of Henry's ordinance has not been preserved, but a detailed account of its operation is given by Glanvil, who extols its equity and its superiority to the old procedure.

Assize of Arms, The, was an ordinance issued by Henry II in 1181. It revived and organized the old national militia, based on the obligation of all freemen to serve in the fyrd. By this assize all freemen were required to provide arms suited to their rank and means. A knight, or possessor of over sixteen marks yearly, provided a coat of mail, helmet, shield, and lance: the freeholder of ten marks, a hauberk, iron cap, and lance; and all burgesses and "tota communa liberorum hominum" a gambeson, iron cap, and lance. Doubtful cases were decided by a jury. Elaborate provisions were annexed for the enforcement of the law. Paralleled in most other European countries, this assize was renewed by Henry III's system of watch and ward, and by Edward I's Statute of Winchester (q.v.).

Stubbs, "Select Charters," ed. H. W. C. Davis, 1913.

Assize of Clarendon, The (1166), Henry II's first great measure of judicial reform, is remarkable as formally instituting and giving legislative recognition to the employment of a jury in criminal trials, and as establishing a regular connexion between the central and the local tribunals. It represents the first effort of the Crown to constitute a great administrative system. The practice of sending royal commissioners through the country on the king's business was as old as the Norman Conquest. They had been employed by the Conqueror in the collection of the evidence from which Domesday Book was compiled, and by Henry I in the transaction of financial business. Under Stephen we hear of justices travelling over the country from time to time to hear the pleas of the Crown. It remained, however, for Henry II to regularize and stabilize the procedure. The Assize of Clarendon provided that a commission should be sent round to each shire, before whom, in conjunction with the sheriff, juries consisting of twelve men from every hundred and four from every township should present persons accused or suspected of robbery, theft, or murder, or of harbouring evil-doers. All such were to be arrested and brought before the nearest justice, there to submit to the ordeal by water. The adoption of presentment and ordeal had the effect of abolishing in the shire courts the practice of compurgation (q.v.). Other clauses of the Assize limited the power of the feudal courts by directing that all qualified persons should attend the County Court to serve on the juries of presentment, and that no franchise should debar the sheriff from the exercise of his duty in arresting criminals and enforcing the frankpledges. As a further check upon lawlessness, provision was made for the erection of jails in every shire and for the compilation by the sheriffs of lists of fugitive criminals. No unknown wayfarer was to stay more than one night in any borough; new-comers to a county had to find sureties for their appearance before the

justices; and no religious house was henceforth to receive into its fraternity any man of humble origin, without inquiry into his antecedents.

Stubbs, "Select Charters," ed. H. W. C. Davis, 1913, 167–73.

Assize of Darrein Presentment, The, was one of the petty or possessory assizes and was devised as a remedy in cases concerning the possession as distinct from the ownership of an advowson. When a dispute arose over the patronage of a vacant benefice, the right of presentation was held to belong—pending the settlement of the question of title—to the man in possession; and the purpose of the assize was to determine who was the possessor by deciding which of the claimants had presented when the last vacancy occurred. The verdict was given before the king's justices itinerant by a jury of twelve local men empanelled for the purpose by the sheriff. The procedure was instituted by Henry II, but the date of its institution is uncertain. It is alluded to in Glanvil. According to the Charter of 1215 (art. 18), the assize of Darrein Presentment was to be held along with the assizes of Mort d'Ancestor and Novel Disseisin four times a year in the counties, before two of the king's justices; but in the reissue of 1217 (art. 15) it was reserved to the justices of the bench. The process early became obsolete, since the writ "quare impedit" gave an easier means of prosecuting claims to advowson; but it was only abolished with the other "real actions" by the act of 3 and 4 William IV, c. 27.

Assize of Mort d'Ancestor, The, was one of the petty or possessory assizes. If the heir to an estate were deprived by his lord or by a rival claimant of the tenement which had been in the possession of his predecessor at the time of the latter's decease, he could apply for a writ "de morte antecessoris." Clause IV of the Assize of Northampton (1176) refers to this procedure and perhaps marks its inauguration. Glanvil describes the process of the inquest. The sheriff empanelled a jury of twelve lawful men of the neighbourhood, and the suit was determined by their testimony. If their verdict went in favour of the heir, he took possession of the lands temporarily, leaving the question of ownership, as distinct from possession, to be determined—if challenged—by the more cumbrous machinery of the Grand Assize (q.v.). According to the Charter of 1215 inquests of mort d'ancestor were to be held by the justices in the shire four times a year; but the reissue of 1217 directed that they should be held only once. In 1285, by the second Statute of Westminster, it was enacted that they might be held three times a year, but not oftener. Any case which was found to involve questions of special difficulty might be reserved for the decision of the bench. The procedure became obsolete in post-mediæval times, and was abolished by the act of 3 and 4 William IV.

Assize of Northampton, The, (1176) was a reissue and expansion of the Assize of Clarendon, in the form of instructions to the committees of justices who were to visit the six circuits into which the country was now mapped out. It is marked by the increased severity of the punishments, the lessened trust reposed in the sheriff; and the gradual discrediting of the ordeal as a means of determining the guilt or innocence of the accused. A man presented by the jury for a minor offence was obliged, even if he acquitted himself by the ordeal, to find pledges for his future good behaviour; while, if he were accused of felony or murder, he was compelled to abjure the realm. Confessions of guilt made before the jury were not to be revoked before the justices. By this assize forgery and arson were added to the pleas of the Crown about which inquiry was to be made. The justices were given cognizance of all suits concerning the king down to the value of half a knight's fee "or less," except in cases of special difficulty or importance. The fifth article empowered them to try actions under the Assize of Novel Disseisin (q.v.), while the new procedure under the Assize of Mort d'Ancestor (q.v.), which was perhaps instituted by article 4, also came within their province. Administrative duties of many kinds fell to their lot. They were to make returns of all escheats, churches, and heiresses in the king's gift; to receive the oaths of fealty which, as a result of the rebellion of 1173, were required of all classes of the community, including even the villeins; to supervise the destruction of the castles which had been held against the king and inquire into the custody of the rest; and to register the names of all fugitives and outlaws. The assize was wider in its scope than any other of Henry's reign, and is of political as well as of constitutional interest.

Stubbs, "Select Charters," ed. H. W. C. Davis, 1913, 178–81.

Assize of Novel Disseisin, The, was one of the petty or possessory assizes instituted by Henry II, and provided a summary remedy in cases of the unjust eviction of a tenant from his free tenement. Such cases had become frequent during the anarchy of Stephen's reign. The assize is called by Bracton "summaria cognitio absque magna juris solennitate," and by the Statute of Westminster II "festinium remedium." It is referred to in the fifth section of the Assize of Northampton (1176), but is mentioned in the Pipe Roll as early as 1166, and may have been promulgated at the Council of Clarendon in that year. The procedure was that on an allegation of unlawful dispossession a writ was issued to the sheriff to empanel a jury of twelve lawful men of the neighbourhood. These declared on oath before the king's justices in eyre whether there had been a disseisin or not. If they found that an eviction had occurred the complainant was at once reinstated,

thereby securing the valued option of determining whether proof of ownership should be by the "duellum" or by the Grand Assize. The history of the Assize of Novel Disseisin is parallel to that of the assizes of Mort d'Ancestor and Darrein Presentment. It gradually fell out of use in the sixteenth century, and was abolished in 1833 by 3 and 4 William IV, c. 27. Analogous to it was the *Assize of Fresh Force*, so-called because the plaint was to be within sixty days of the injury. It was a writ that lay by custom of a town when a man was disseised within the borough. Similar also was the *Assize of Nuisance*.

Assize Utrum, The, was originally devised to determine whether land was held by spiritual or by lay tenure. This was an important question in the twelfth century, since all cases concerning land held in frankalmoin were regarded as belonging to the courts christian. The ninth clause of the Constitutions of Clarendon, which provided that disputes between clerics and laymen as to whether a fief was held by ecclesiastical or by lay tenure should be settled by the recognition of twelve lawful men in the presence of the king's justices, perhaps introduced the procedure. In the course of the thirteenth century, however, the nature of the assize was completely transformed. The king's courts gradually obtained a jurisdiction over land held in frankalmoin as exclusive as that assumed by them over land held by any other free tenure, and the sphere of the Church courts was limited to consecrated land and buildings—the actual sites of churches and monasteries and their churchyards. In Bracton's day the ordinary tenant in frankalmoin had the ordinary freeholder's remedies possessory and proprietary; and was denied any others. To this rule, however, the rectors of parish churches afforded an exception. The land belonging to a parish church was regarded as a gift to the church and not to the rector and his successors. The rector was merely the guardian of the church; and though he might have a possessory remedy, he had no proprietary remedy. In the thirteenth century this want was supplied by the Assize Utrum (or Action Juris Utrum) which ceased to be a preliminary pre-judicial procedure deciding the competence of courts, and became an ordinary proprietary action in the king's court—"the parson's writ of right." It retained this character until 1571, when by the restraining act of 13 Elizabeth, c. 10, it was virtually extinguished.

Assize of Woodstock, or the **Assize of the Forest,** drawn up by Henry II in 1184, was the first code of any elaborateness for the government of the forests, which, from the time of the Conquest at least, were regarded as specially subject to the uncontrolled jurisdiction of the monarch. The forest jurisdiction is arranged on exactly the same lines as the county jurisdiction, just as the manor organization was based on that of the free township. The punishments are said to be milder than those in vogue under Henry I, but the whole assize is full of vexatious clauses, which must have been very irksome to dwellers in the forest. No one can possess a dog or a bow and arrows without a royal licence. Elaborate regulations have reference to the woods and clearings within the forest that belonged to private individuals. All men, from archbishop and earl down to the simple freeholder, are required to attend the forest courts on the summons of the master forester (this was repealed by Magna Carta). All persons over twelve years old dwelling within the forest are to swear to keep the peace of the forest. Hounds are to have their foreclaws cut off, and no tanners or bleachers of hides are to dwell therein, beyond the limits of a borough. [Forests.]

Stubbs, "Select Charters," ed. H. W. C. Davis, 1913; W. S. Holdsworth, "History of English Law," 1922. [T. F. T.]

Assizes, The Black. A name often given to the assizes at Oxford in 1577, when "a pestilent savour" rose either from the noisome smell of the prisoners, or the damp of the ground, owing to which all present were seized, within forty hours, of fever, and many died (some accounts say, with probable exaggeration, 300), including the chief baron, the sheriff, and a large number of the Oxfordshire gentry.

Assizes, The Bloody. A term often applied to the summer assizes of 1685, held in the Western Circuit after Monmouth's rebellion; when Chief Justice Jeffreys sentenced more than 300 rebels to death for treason after the barest mockery of a trial.

J. Bent, "The Bloody Assizes," 1890.

Associated Counties was the name given to the counties of Essex, Cambridge, Norfolk, Suffolk, and Hertford, to which were subsequently added Huntingdon and Lincoln. These counties formed an association in 1642 to keep the war out of their own districts and raise an army for the Parliament. The Association was first commanded by Lord Grey of Wark, and subsequently by the Earl of Manchester and Cromwell. Other counties formed similar associations, "but," says Carlyle, "the 'Eastern Association' is alone worth naming. All the other associations, no men of emphasis being in the midst of them, fell in a few months to pieces; only this of Cromwell's subsisted, enlarged itself, grew famous; and, indeed, kept its own borders clear of invasion during the whole course of the war."

C. H. Firth, "Cromwell," 1890.

Association in favour of William III, (1) (1688), was devised by Sir Edward Seymour after the prince had landed

in England, in order to bind his supporters by some mutual obligation. It was signed first at Exeter and then in all the western counties. (2) The more famous association, that of 1696, was formed on the discovery of the Assassination Plot. The idea was proposed by Sir Rowland Gwyn, and eagerly adopted by Montagu. The members of the House of Commons, each for himself, solemnly recognized William as rightful and lawful king, and bound themselves to stand by him; and they vowed that, if his life should be shortened by violence, they would avenge his murder, and support the order of succession settled by the Bill of Rights. The measure was opposed by the Tories in the Lower House, headed by Musgrave, on the ground that the formula implied an abjuration, and that William could not be properly described as "rightful and lawful king." Leeds, in order to conciliate opposition in the Upper House, proposed the verbal alteration that it should be declared that William had a right by law to the British crown, and that no other person had any right whatever to that crown. This quibble satisfied nearly all the Tory peers. The country in general was seized with great enthusiasm. The municipal corporations all over the country appended their signatures to similar documents. Everywhere orange ribbons were worn, on which were written in letters of gold the words "National Association for King William."

Burnet, "History of His Own Time," ed. O. Airy, 1897–1900; and supplement by H. C. Foxcroft, 1902.

Association Project (1582) was the name given to the proposal, emanating from France, for associating James VI and his mother, the Queen of Scots, together in the government of Scotland.

Association to Protect Queen Elizabeth, Bond of, 1584, was an attempt to organize all English Protestants into "a universal vigilance committee" (Froude), to defend the queen against the plots of the papists. In November 1584 Burghley and Walsingham framed an instrument declaring that the signers of it bound themselves together on oath to withstand any attempt against the queen's person, and if any such attempt should be made and should be successful, to pursue to the death the person or persons who had been concerned in it. The association was primarily directed against Mary, Queen of Scots, and was meant to show her partisans that her own death would follow closely on the assassination of Elizabeth. The oath of association was taken with enthusiasm by the nobility, privy councillors, judges, the clergy, and all who held office under the Crown, and a large number of private persons throughout the country. Many of the Roman Catholic nobility and gentry were among those who signed the Bond.

"State Trials," vol. i; "Calendar of State Papers, Domestic Series," 1581–90.

Associations (Ireland) Bill (1825), 6 George IV, c. 4, was directed chiefly against the Catholic Associations. It forbade periodical sittings of political associations, the appointment of committees for more than fourteen days, the levying of money to redress grievances, the administering of oaths, the exclusion of men on account of their religion, and the affiliation of societies. It lasted for three years, but failed to crush O'Connell's agitation.

Assumption Island is an alternative name for Tobago (q.v.).

Assured Lords, The, consisted chiefly of Scottish nobles taken prisoners at the battle of Solway Moss, November 25, 1542, who, from a long sojourn at the English court, had become to a certain extent identified with English interests. On their return to Scotland after the death of James V, they undertook to serve Henry VIII at the Scottish court, giving hostages to the English king for their fidelity. Henry, however, soon found that their good faith was doubtful, and in 1544 they openly joined the national party. The assured lords consisted of the Earls of Cassilis and Glencairn, Lords Fleming, Somerville, Maxwell, and Oliphant, taken at Solway Moss; together with the Earl of Angus and his brother, Sir George Douglas, who had long been refugees at the English court.

P. Hume Brown, "History of Scotland," 1911.

Assye, The Battle of (September 23, 1803), during the Mahratta War, was fought between an army of 7,000, commanded by General Wellesley, and the great army of Dowlat Rao Sindhia and the Raja of Berar; which, after the capture of Jalnapur on the 2nd, was retreating towards the Ajanta Pass, while the British, in two divisions, under Wellesley and Colonel Stevenson, were attempting to intercept them. The Mahrattas were strongly entrenched, with their left resting on Assye, when Wellesley came up with them, and, without waiting for Colonel Stevenson, resolved to attack them. Wellesley had given the most positive injunctions to the officer commanding the pickets to avoid the cannon planted in the village, but in spite of this he led his troops directly up to the muzzles of the guns, which poured an incessant shower upon the assailants. The indomitable courage and energy of the British troops, however, bore down all resistance, and Sindhia's infantry gave way. The British cavalry then charged, and forced them off the field. The victory was complete; but it was dearly gained by the loss of one-third of the army.

Wellington, "Dispatches," 1840; J. C. Grant Duff, "History of the Mahrattas," 1826 and 1921; J. W. Fortescue, "History of the British Army," vol. v, 1910.

Astley, Jacob, Lord (*d.* 1651), had served in many foreign countries, and had distinguished himself in Germany under Gustavus Adolphus. He joined the army of Charles I,

and, having taken part in the battles of Edgehill, Gloucester, and Newbury, was raised to the peerage. At the battle of Naseby Astley commanded the infantry, and in 1646 he made a last stand at Stow-on-the-Wold against the Parliament. Here he was defeated by Brereton and taken prisoner. He compounded for his estate, gave his parole not to serve any more against Parliament, and spent the rest of his life in retirement.

Aston, Sir Arthur (*d.* September 12, 1649), was a distinguished soldier who had acquired military experience abroad. He was governor of Oxford at the beginning of the Civil War, but was soon after disabled by an injury. At a later period he was governor of Reading. In 1649 Ormonde made him governor of Drogheda, hoping that he would be able to hold out till the rains. This he was unable to do, and on the taking of the place he was literally hacked to pieces by the Puritan soldiers.

R. Bagwell, "Ireland Under the Stuarts," 1909–16.

Astor, Nancy Witcher, Viscountess (*b.* 1879), was elected Conservative M.P. for Plymouth in 1919; the first woman to sit in the British House of Commons.

Atheling (Ætheling) was a title of honour among the Anglo-Saxons, meaning one who is of noble (*æthel*) blood. In the earlier period the terms *Eorlas* and *Æthel* are used to designate the class spoken of by Bæda as *nobiles*, in all probability "the descendants of the primitive nobles of the first settlement, who, on the institution of royalty, sank one step in dignity from the ancient state of rude independence" (Stubbs). As the nobility of blood became superseded by the nobility of service, the title of *Ætheling* was gradually confined to the princes of the blood royal, and in the ninth and tenth centuries is used exclusively for the sons or brothers of the reigning king. Though he seems to have held no official position in right of his birth, the atheling was superior in dignity to all men but the king and the great functionaries of the Church, as shown by his "wer-gild." In the "north people's law" of the tenth century the gild of the atheling and the archbishop (and in this case of the "eorl" who corresponds no doubt to the Danish "jarl"), is 15,000 thrymsas, while that of the bishop or ealdorman is 8,000. So too in the laws of Athelstan of Wessex. The atheling attended the witenagemot as one of the magnates of the kingdom, and was one of those who were least frequently absent from it. The name was kept up after the Norman Conquest, and is applied not only to the descendants of Edmund Ironside, but also to princes of the Norman house, such as William, the son of Henry I and Matilda, and possibly to Henry himself.

E. A. Freeman, "Norman Conquest," 1867–71, vol. iv, appendix EE.

Atheling, Edgar. [Edgar Atheling.]

Athelney (Aethelinga eigge), the Isle of Princes, is situated about seven miles from Taunton. Hither, in 878, Alfred the Great repaired after his defeat by the Danes, and here he remained concealed for nearly a year, when, sallying forth, he defeated the invaders and compelled them to make peace. At that time Athelney was a veritable island in the midst of fens and marshes, but it has since been drained and cultivated.

Biographies of Alfred the Great.

Athelstan (Æthelstan) (*b.* 895, *s.* 925, *d.* 939) was the son of Edward the Elder and grandson of Alfred. According to William of Malmesbury his mother, Ecgwyn, was of humble origin, and it has been suggested that he was illegitimate. This is, however, improbable. On the death of Edward, the Mercians and West Saxons chose Athelstan as their king, and he was crowned at Kingston-on-Thames. There appears to have been some opposition to his accession, but it was quickly suppressed, and Athelstan soon attained to a position of greater power and dignity than that of any of the preceding West-Saxon sovereigns. One of his sisters married Sihtric, the Danish King of Northumbria, and on his death Athelstan invaded the territories of his successor Guthfrith, repelled him, and annexed his realm. Subsequently he received the homage of Eugenius of Strathclyde, Constantine, King of Scots, and several of the Welsh princes, at Dacre on the Cumbrian border. His success was, however, premature. In 937 a formidable league was formed against the power of Wessex, between the Danes, Scots, and Britons. Constantine, King of Scots, Anlaf Guthfrithson, the Danish King of Dublin, and Anlaf Quaran his cousin, together with Eugenius of Strathclyde and other British chieftains, united their forces. A great battle was fought at Brunanburh (q.v.) on the Solway Firth, in which the league was at length completely defeated with terrible loss. Athelstan's subsequent years were peaceful and uneventful. He signalized his supremacy in Britain by styling himself "Rex totius Britanniæ" and "basileus," while, by his foreign alliances, he won for Wessex a position of importance in Western Europe. Of his sisters, Eadgifu married Charles the Simple of France; Eadhild, Hugh Count of Paris, father of Hugh Capet; Eadgyth, Otto the Great, Duke of the Saxons (afterwards Emperor); while a second Eadgifu was betrothed to Louis the blind ruler of Provence. Athelstan took a considerable share in the politics of northern France, and it was chiefly by his efforts that Louis d'Outremer, son of Eadgifu and Charles the Simple, was restored to his throne. Athelstan is greatly praised by the chroniclers, and he appears to have been a wise and vigorous ruler. Such of his laws as remain show that his wars and foreign policy were far from absorbing his whole atten-

tion. His ordinances were more particularly directed to the enforcement of that system of mutual assurance and association which held so great a place in Anglo-Saxon jurisprudence. One of the most important of his acts was that in which it was laid down that every landless man should have a lord; and the "Judicia Civitatis Lundoniæ," attributed to him, are highly valuable for the history of gilds and civic associations. The chief imputation on Athelstan's character is his alleged murder, by drowning, of his half-brother Edwin, but the story is not well authenticated.

"Anglo-Saxon Chronicle"; William of Malmesbury; Henry of Huntingdon; Simeon of Durham. For Athelstan's laws see Attenborough, "Laws of the Earliest English Kings," 1922.

Athenry, The Battle of (1316), was fought between Felim, King of Connaught, and the English, under William de Burgh and Richard de Bermingham. The losses of the O'Connors were appallingly heavy, and the hope of restoring a Gaelic kingdom was destroyed. The O'Connors were ostensibly fighting in the interest of Edward Bruce.

Atherton Moor, or Adwalton, The Battle of (June 30, 1643), was a skirmish fought between the Royalists, under the Earl of Newcastle, and the Parliamentarians, under Fairfax. The latter were completely routed, and the capture of Bradford (from which Atherton Moor is some four miles distant) by the Royalists was the immediate result.

Athlone, Godert de Ginkel, Earl of (1630–1703). [Ginkel.]

Athlone, The Capture of (June 19–30, 1691), was Ginkel's first important success over the Irish followers of James II under the French general, St. Ruth. The town was surrounded by ramparts of earth, and lay partly in Leinster and partly in Connaught. The Shannon, which is the boundary of the two provinces, rushed through Athlone in a deep and rapid stream, and turned two large mills which rose on the arches of a stone bridge. Above the bridge, on the Connaught side, a castle towered to the height of seventy feet. Fifty or sixty yards below the bridge was a narrow ford. On June 20 Ginkel assaulted the English quarter and mastered it with trifling loss. On the 22nd he opened fire on the castle. On the 30th he resolved to try the ford. With Mackay, Talmash, Prince George of Darmstadt, and the Duke of Wurtemberg at their head, the soldiers dashed into the water. The Irish offered but feeble resistance, and the town was taken.

Atholl, Alan Durward, Earl of (*d.* 1268).

Atholl, John Stewart, 23rd Earl of (*d.* 1579). [Stewart.]

Atholl, The Earldom of, was, with Goury, one of the seven original mormaerships of Scotland. The style of "earl" seems first to have been borne by Madach, a son of Donald Bane, in the time of Alexander I. From his descendants the title passed by marriage to the Strathbogie family, one of whom, David, 11th Earl of Atholl, in the reign of Edward II, married the heiress of the great families of Comyn and Valence, and became possessed of vast estates in England. His Scots peerage was, however, forfeited in 1314 for his connexion with the Baliol party. These Scots estates were granted to Sir Neil Campbell, brother-in-law to Robert Bruce, whose son, Sir John Campbell, was created Earl of Atholl. He was killed at Halidon Hill in 1333, and left no issue, and the earldom was conferred on Sir William Douglas, from whom it passed to Robert Stuart, high steward of Scotland, and thus became vested in the royal family. In 1457(?) Sir John Stewart, of Balveny, was created Earl of Atholl. The peerage became extinct in 1626, but in 1629 was revived and granted to John Murray, Earl of Tullibardine, who was descended by his mother from the Stewart earls. In 1671 the earldom was raised to a marquisate, and in 1703 John, the 2nd marquis, was created Duke of Atholl and Marquis of Tullibardine in the peerage of Scotland. His third son and successor claimed and established his right to the barony of Strange in the peerage of England. [Stewart.]

Attacotti, The, seem to have been one of the Brythonic tribes inhabiting the region between the Walls of Hadrian and Antonine. They are said to have joined with the Picts, Scots, and Saxons in attacking Britain in the latter half of the fourth century.

"Ammianus," xxvii, 8.

Attainder. "Attainder imports that extinction of civil rights and capacities which took place whenever a person who had committed treason or felony received judgment of death or outlawry," whether such judgment were pronounced by a royal justice after trial and conviction, or were decreed by a legislative act of parliament, called a Bill of Attainder. In ancient law this involved (1) *Corruption of Blood,* and (2) *Forfeiture,* complete or partial.

(1) The blood of the attainted criminal was held to be *corrupted* and stained, and the virtue by which he could inherit, and transmit and even hold, property destroyed. Attainders operated, in fact, exactly like a sudden discovery of illegitimacy in the possessor of property; the stream of inheritance was at once cut off, and could be re-established only by a special grant of the legislature. From this it followed that the lands of the criminal reverted back or escheated to the lord of the fee, in subordination, however, to forfeiture to the Crown; and that any title of his descendants which had to be traced through him to a remoter ancestor was obstructed and barred. This was felt to be such a hard-

ship that, in the creation of new felonies since the reign of Henry VIII, parliament has always provided that they shall not involve "corruption of blood." The statute 54 Geo. III, c. 145, still further limits its operation to treason and murder. The Inheritance Act, 3 and 4 Will. IV, c. 106, gave further relief by enacting that the attainder of an intermediate ancestor should not obstruct the tracing of the descent through him if his death took place before the property devolved.

(2) *Forfeiture for treason* transferred to the Crown the entire property of the traitor. Unlike escheat, it was no feudal innovation, but dates back to Saxon times, and, indeed, has been the rule in the early legislation of most nations. So foreign to early society is any compunction against punishing the son for the father's crime that some ancient codes, not content with reducing a traitor's children to beggary, involve them in the same capital sentence; and the Golden Bull declares that the sons of a subject who kills an elector have their lives spared only by the imperial bounty. The two kinds of property recognized by English law, lands and chattels, were both forfeited absolutely to the Crown for treason, but the forfeiture of the former followed on judgment, and its operation went back to the moment at which the treason was committed, making void all alienations which had been effected in the interval; the forfeiture of the latter followed on conviction, and, from obvious motives of convenience, had no such retrospective force. The wife's dower was untouched by the husband's attainder till expressly included in the forfeiture by the merciless statute 5 and 6 Ed. VI, c. 11. In the case of counterfeiting coin, the statutes which made the offence treason limited the forfeiture to the life of the offender, and expressly guarded the wife's dower (5 Eliz., c. 11; 8 and 9 Will. III, c. 26; 15 Geo. II, c. 28). The celebrated statute of Queen Anne (7 Anne, c. 21) extended the same principle to all treasons by enacting that after the decease of the Pretender "no attainder for treason should extend to the disinheriting of any heirs, nor to the prejudice of the right or title of any person" other than the offender himself; but this humane provision was first delayed by 17 Geo. II, c. 39, and finally repealed by 40 Geo. III, c. 93. *Forfeiture for felony* was only partial, and seems to have arisen from an old right of the Crown to commit unlimited waste on the lands of a felon. So detrimental did this prove to the interests of the lord of the fief, and of the country at large, that in the reign of Henry I it was commuted for the right to the profits for a year and a day, a rule confirmed by Magna Carta. The statute 17 Ed. II confused the two, enacting that the king should have his year and a day *and* waste, and this remained the law till the act 54 Geo. III, c. 145, which limited forfeiture to cases of treason and murder. But attainder, along with its effects of corruption of blood and forfeiture, was finally swept away by the Felony Act, 33 and 34 Vict. c. 23 (1870).

Attainder, Bill of, was a legislative act of the two Houses, introduced and passed exactly like any other bill, and requiring the royal assent, which declared a person or persons attainted. Originally aimed against offenders who fled from justice, and analogous to the Bill of Pains and Penalties, it was soon perverted to secure a more certain and speedy destruction of political opponents than could be hoped from the impartiality or the routine of the law courts. No restriction was possible in such a mode of procedure. Evidence was usually heard, but not invariably; and even the presence of the accused was decided by the lawyers whom Thomas Cromwell consulted on the subject to be unnecessary, on the ground that there can be no authority superior to statute. The first recorded instance of its employment is in the violent banishment of the Despensers in 1321 by the Parliament of Westminster; an act which was held by Trussel, the justice who delivered judgment on the younger Hugh, to have involved attainder. With the deposition of Edward II the appearance of the more regular method of impeachment attests a less savage spirit in political parties, till the outbreak of the Rose wars in 1459. In that year hostilities broke out on an attempt of the queen to have the Earl of Salisbury, the head of the Yorkist Nevilles, arrested. He completely defeated the force sent against him, and both sides rushed to arms. But the Lancastrians were better prepared; the Yorkist leaders had to fly the kingdom, and a parliament met at Coventry which attainted them in a body. Two years later, after the decisive victory of Towton, the Yorkists retaliated by a similar proscription of all the prominent Lancastrians, parliament, by the restriction of the franchise to 40s. freeholders (1430), and by the terrorism exercised through the system of Livery and Maintenance (q.v.), having become a mere tool in the hands of the dominant faction. Yet a petition, so late as 1432, praying that trials touching freehold or inheritance should not be held in parliament or council, shows that the Commons had still independence enough to display their sense of the danger. The new monarchy, which rose on the ruins of self-destroyed nobility, was strong enough to content itself as a rule with the ordinary methods of indictment and impeachment. But in 1539 the kinsmen of Reginald Pole, including his aged mother, the Countess of Salisbury, daughter of Edward IV, were cut off by Bill of Attainder, and the same fate overtook, in the following year, the disgraced minister Cromwell, condemned by a singular retribution without being heard

in his own defence. Revenge in the one case, the preservation of the royal popularity in the other, demanded the employment of a procedure which could dispense with legal proof of guilt. The attainder of Strafford, however, in 1641 marks the triumph, not of a political faction, but of a constitutional theory. By the letter of the Statute of Treasons (1352), which condemned attempts on the king's life and honour only, the earl was innocent; but the parliament maintained that the spirit of the statute saw in the king the majesty of the state, and so, by implication, condemned all attempts to overthrow the existing constitution. The last instance in English history is that of Sir John Fenwick attainted and executed in 1697 for participation in the Assassination Plot.

W. S. Holdsworth, "History of English Law"; Hallam, "Constitutional History"; Sir E. May, "Parliamentary Practice"; Sir L. Stephen, "Commentaries on the Laws of England," i, 141, etc.; Statutes 5 and 6 Ed. VI; 5 Eliz.; 8 and 9 Will. III; 7 Anne; 54 Geo. III, etc. [H. R. R.]

Attainder, The Great Act of (Ireland), was introduced into the Irish parliament on January 25, 1689, and the debate on it lasted some time. James II gave his consent to it with great reluctance. It naturally had a very bad effect on the English Jacobites. Between 2,000 and 3,000 names, including half the Irish peerage, and even many prominent Jacobites, were included in the bill. All those who were in rebellion against the king (James II) were to surrender and take their trial before August 10, otherwise they were to be deemed guilty of high treason. All those who had left Ireland before November 5, 1688, were to appear for the same purpose before September 1, 1689. Those who had left Ireland before November 5, 1688, and were then in England, Scotland, or the Isle of Man, were allowed till October 1. In case of a valid excuse for not presenting themselves, the estates were to be placed temporarily in the hands of the king, but to be restored on the accused person's return. The king's pardon granted before November 1 was to be valid, otherwise to be of no avail. Macaulay asserts that care was taken to keep the list of attainted persons secret, but the evidence adduced seems inconclusive. The same author calls it an "act without parallel in the history of any civilized country." In excuse for the Irish we must look to the history of Ireland since 1641, and to the conduct of the British parliament at the same time.

Archbishop King, "State of the Protestants in Ireland," 1692.

Atterbury, Francis (1662–1732), Bishop of Rochester, was educated at Westminster and Christ Church, Oxford, and distinguished himself with his pen as a defender of the reformed religion against the attacks of James II. After the Revolution he took the oath of allegiance to the new government. He took orders, and, after being preacher at the Rolls Chapel, became one of the royal chaplains (1702), but resided at Oxford. There he helped Boyle in his edition of the spurious "Epistles of Phalaris," and revised his "Answer to Bentley." He now wrote several pamphlets in support of the powers of the Lower House of Convocation. In 1704 he became doctor of divinity and Dean of Carlisle. In 1710, however, he seized the opportunity of the Sacheverell prosecution, and framed the speech which that divine pronounced at the bar of the House of Lords. [Sacheverell.] He became Dean of Christ Church, and subsequently (1713) Bishop of Rochester, "because he was so bad a dean." He espoused the Jacobite cause, and on the death of Anne implored the ministry to proclaim James III. Disliked by George I because of his refusal to sign the bishops' declaration of fidelity, he began, in 1717, to correspond directly with the Pretender; and in 1721 he took advantage of the confusion into which England had been thrown by the failure of the South Sea Scheme and the birth of the Young Pretender, to concoct a Jacobite conspiracy. He and his four associates endeavoured to enlist 5,000 men from abroad, with whose help they might seize the Bank of England. But the plot was betrayed by the regent of France (to whom they applied for support) and came to naught. Atterbury was imprisoned, and, a Bill of Pains and Penalties being introduced, he was forced to leave England, professing his innocence. For a time he resided at Paris, and was chief adviser of the Pretender. He became "the phantom minister of a phantom court," and engaged in the schemes for a Highland rebellion (1723). Atterbury was of the type of the High Church clergy, most of whom were Jacobite at heart, and he "would have made an admirable bishop," says Lord Stanhope, "had he been a less good partisan." He was a clever, versatile, but somewhat fussy politician, always full of daring schemes and speculative adventures.

F. Williams, "Memoirs and Correspondence of Atterbury," 2 vols., 1869; biography by H. C. Beeching, 1909.

Atterbury's Plot (1721). [Atterbury, Francis.]

Attorney-General, The, is the chief law officer of England, who is appointed to represent the Crown in all matters affecting its interests. The meaning of the term is thus explained in the early text-book, "Les Termes de la Ley": "An attorney is one appointed by another man to do something in his stead, and is either general or special. Attorney-General is he that is appointed to all our affairs or suits, as the attorney-general of the king, attorney-general of the duke." In modern times the Prince of Wales is the only person besides the Crown who appoints an "attorney-general," who, however, is

usually spoken of as "the attorney-general for the Duchy of Lancaster or Cornwall" (as the case may be). The attorney-general must be a party to all actions affecting the Crown; and, as representative of the Crown, he prosecutes for crimes, and also brings actions for revenue causes. Until comparatively recently, the income of the office was derived for the most part from patent fees. Now, however, it is fixed at £7,000 per annum, exclusive of fees for legal advice and services. The first record of the designation "Attornatus Regis" occurs in 1277. The second named is William de Giselham (A.D. 1278), who two years afterwards is called "king's serjeant." In A.D. 1315–16 three Attornati Regis are mentioned in the same year as king's serjeants. It was probably during the reign of Mary that the person who had been originally chosen to represent the king generally became a royal officer with that particular function. In 1614 a question was raised as to whether the attorney-general (Sir Francis Bacon) could legally sit in the House of Commons, "because by his office he is an assistant of the House of Lords." Bacon was allowed to retain his seat, but in 1620, 1625, and 1640, on the bestowal of the office on members of the House, they vacated their seats. On the appointment of North in 1673, he retained his seat, and his successors have continued to sit without hindrance. [Solicitor-General.]

Norton-Kephe, "Attorney-General and Solicitor-General of England"; W. S. Holdsworth, "History of English Law," 1899; and "Les Termes de la Ley," sub nom. [B. R. W.]

Attwood, Thomas (1783–1856), was a banker, of Birmingham, and Gracechurch Street, London, and first attracted public attention by his vigorous opposition to the orders in council of 1812. He condemned the return to cash payments after the war, and wrote some pamphlets advocating paper money in 1815 and 1816. He was an ardent advocate of parliamentary reform, and the chief founder in 1829 of the Birmingham Political Union. He was one of the first members for Birmingham after the passing of the Reform Bill of 1832.

Biography by Wakefield, 1885; Graham Wallas, "Francis Place," edn. of 1918.

Auchmuty, Sir Samuel (1756–1822), was present at most of the principal engagements in the earlier years of the American War. In 1778 he returned to England, but almost immediately left for India, where he remained for nineteen years. Returning in 1797, he was gazetted to a brevet-colonelcy, and in 1801 joined Baird's Indian force in Egypt, becoming adjutant-general. After the surrender of Alexandria in 1802 he returned to England, and four years later was sent to command a division of the troops in the Rio de la Plata, which he found in a dangerous position. By his skill and energy, he restored confidence to the army, and on February 3, 1807, carried Monte Video by storm. Auchmuty, on his return, was appointed to the command in chief at Madras, and in 1811 gave valuable assistance in the reduction of Java. Two years later he returned to England, and was appointed to command the forces in Ireland, which post he held till his death at Dublin in August 1822.

W. F. Lord, "Lost Possessions of England," 1896.

Auckland, George Eden, 1st Earl of (1784–1849). [Eden.]

Auckland, William Eden, 1st Baron (1743–1814). [Eden.]

Audley, Barons. [Touchet.]

Audley, Thomas, Baron Audley (1488–1544), was a lawyer, appointed in 1529, at the king's request, Speaker of the House of Commons. In the same year he became attorney for the Duchy of Lancaster, and, in November 1531, he was made king's serjeant. To enable him to second Henry's designs with a due amount of personal influence, he was, on May 20, 1532, put in possession of the great seal, which he continued to hold till shortly before his death. Audley profited largely by the ecclesiastical confiscations of Henry's reign. The priory of Christchurch, London, which was granted to Audley soon after his advancement to the chancellorship, was converted by him into a private mansion. But his chief spoil was the rich monastery of Walden, which he persuaded the king to grant him on his elevation to the peerage in November 1538, as Baron Audley of Walden. He presided at the trial of Fisher and More (1535), carried through parliament the act of dissolution of Henry's marriage with Anne of Cleves (1540), and passed judgment on Queen Catherine Howard (1542).

Augmentations, Court of. This court was instituted on the dissolution of the monasteries in Henry VIII's reign (1536), and was established to secure to the Crown the rich revenues belonging to suppressed religious houses. Its business was strictly limited to the consideration of questions connected with the confiscated Church property, and as this property was granted away with lavish liberality, the court speedily became a nullity and ceased to exist.

J. R. Tanner, "Tudor Constitutional Documents," 1923.

Augustine, St. (*d.* 604), first Archbishop of Canterbury, was prior of the monastery of St. Andrew in Rome, and was selected by Gregory the Great as head of the band of Benedictine monks who were to preach Christianity to the English. After a difficult journey the missionaries landed in Thanet in April 597, and obtained the protection of Ethelbert of Kent. Ethelbert had married, some years earlier, Bertha, the daughter of King Charibert of Paris. She had brought with her to England as her chaplain and almoner Liudhard, Bishop

of Senlis (?), whose ministrations must have familiarized the Kentishmen with the idea of Christianity, although they did not effect their evangelization. Ethelbert, therefore, readily gave permission to Augustine and his monks to preach and convert his people. They made their head-quarters at Canterbury, where the Church of St. Martin, in which Liudhard had officiated, was assigned to them pending the erection of a more commodious building. A few months later Ethelbert became a Christian, and his example was speedily followed by his people, of whom 10,000 are said to have been baptized on Christmas Day, 597. Before the end of the year Augustine crossed to Gaul and was there consecrated bishop; and in 601 he received the pallium from the pope as metropolitan. In his lifetime Augustine was able to see almost the whole of Kent and Essex Christianized, and in 604 he established two new bishoprics at London and Rochester. Augustine's ministry was largely occupied by a contest with the British bishops. Their differences were nominally on questions of ritual and the date of the celebration of Easter, but the real point at issue was whether or not the Celtic bishops should acknowledge the supremacy of the archbishop of the English. Conferences with the Welsh bishops were held at Augustine's Oak (perhaps Aust on the Severn) about 603, but to no purpose; and the breach between the two Churches was only widened. Augustine was a man of somewhat narrow, pedantic, and unconciliatory character—tendencies which the monastic training of his early and middle life probably did much to confirm; but his firmness, his integrity of life, and his singleness of purpose are undoubted. His achievements might have been greater had he possessed a wider culture, a deeper insight, and a more powerful influence over men's minds. As it was he handed on the task of organizing and consolidating the infant Church in England to his great successor Theodore of Tarsus (q.v.).

Bæda, "Hist. Eccles.," i, 23, etc.; Gervase of Canterbury, "Act. Pontif. Cantuar. Eccles." (Rolls Series), ii, 324; St. Gregory, "Epist.," vii, 8, 30; Browne, "Augustine and his Companions"; Howorth, "Augustine."

Aula Regis. [Curia Regis.]

Auldearn, The Battle of (May 9, 1645), was fought between the Covenanters and the Royalists under Montrose, during the latter's irregular campaign in the north-eastern Highlands. In May 1645 he found himself near Auldearn in Nairn, in presence of the Covenanters, led by Sir John Urry (or Hurry). A mistake made by one of the latter's officers led Montrose to make an attack. The Highlanders' rush carried all before it, and Urry's force was broken and scattered.

P. Hume Brown, "History of Scotland," 1911.

Aulus Plautius was the commander of the Roman forces which Claudius dispatched against Britain in the year 43. Among the distinguished officers who served under him were two future emperors, Vespasian and his son Titus. With their aid he defeated Caratacus, and reduced the south-eastern part of the island. In the year 47 he was recalled.

Sir C. Oman, "England Before the Norman Conquest."

Aumale, William of (*d.* 1179). [Albemarle, Peerage of.]

Auray, The Battle of (1364), was fought between the English, who were espousing the claims of Montfort to the dukedom of Brittany, and the French, who supported his rival, Charles of Blois. The English, who were commanded by Sir John Chandos, were completely victorious. Du Guesclin, the French commander, was taken prisoner, and Charles of Blois was slain.

Sir C. Oman, "England and the Hundred Years' War," 1898.

Aurungzeb (1618–1707), Mogul Emperor of Hindustan, and a champion of the Moslem faith. He rose to undisputed power in 1658, as the result of a struggle between his three brothers on the illness of their father, the Emperor Shah Jahan. Aurungzeb allowed them to exhaust their strength, and then seized the throne for himself. His long reign sowed the seeds of final decay in the Mogul empire, being based too strictly on the principles of his religion. Abroad he was not very active, making few attempts to expand his empire after the failure of his expedition to Assam in 1663 and his defeat at the hands of the Mahrattas (1672). His most notable conquests were Golconda and Bijapur. On his death the Mogul empire broke up.

J. Sarkar, "History of Aurungzib," 1919; S. Lane Poole, "Aurungzib," 1893 and 1901.

Austin, John (1790–1859), was the first systematic English writer upon the formal science of positive law. In 1826 he was appointed Professor of Jurisprudence in the newly founded University of London (now University College), where his lectures were attended by numerous men of future eminence. In 1832 Austin resigned his chair. In 1834 the Society of the Inner Temple engaged him to deliver another course of lectures upon the principles and history of law. As a jurist, Austin owes his rank to the fact that he was the first to define the sphere of legal science, by distinguishing law from history and ethics—thus destroying a confusion which has produced many practical legislative evils. His writings are unfinished, and their form is often uncouth and tedious; but the doctrines which he first enunciated are now the common property of every thinker.

Austin's works are "The Province of Jurisprudence Determined," 1832, and "Lectures on Jurisprudence," 5th edition, 1875. For criticisms of Austin's theories, see Sir Henry Maine, "Ancient Law," Lectures xi and xii; F. Harrison in *Fortnightly Review*, October and November 1878, and January 1879; Prof. Pollock in *Fortnightly Review*, January 1883; Prof. Holland, "Jurisprudence," Oxford, 1882.

[B. R. W.]

Australia, Commonwealth of, The, consists of a federation of six original states (New South Wales, Victoria, South and Western Australia, Queensland, and Tasmania) formed in 1900, to which have been added the created territories of Northern Territory (created out of South Australia in 1911) and the Federal Capital Territory (surrendered by New South Wales in 1915), together with British New Guinea (or Papua), transferred in 1906, and Norfolk Island, transferred in 1914. The Commonwealth is also sole mandatory for the Territory of New Guinea (1920) and a mandatory associated with Great Britain and the Dominion of New Zealand for Nauru (1920), both German cessions.

Australia takes its name from "Terra Australis," the great south land of the old maps. That such a land existed was a belief dating from a Chaldean tradition of the fourth century and reinforced by a mediæval belief in the symmetry of the land masses, a great south land to balance the northern continents known to them. The name was indiscriminately applied also to Tierra del Fuego. It is not possible precisely to date its discovery, but by 1542 its existence was known to the western maritime powers. Portuguese, Spanish, and Dutch in turn partially surveyed the coast line, to the knowledge of which Pelsaert contributed in 1629, Tasman in 1642, Dampier in 1688, and which was completed by the voyages of Cook (1770–8) undertaken in rivalry to the French. "Australia" was applied to New South Wales in 1814 on the recommendation of Flinders. This is the first phase of Australian history and discovery. After this came the second, coastal settlements. In 1788 Port Jackson was founded by the "first fleet," under Captain Phillip, as a convict settlement which spread to Van Diemen's Land in 1803. In 1825 a military station was established at King George's Sound and two years later an English company settled on the Swan River. In 1835 settlers from Tasmania formed a settlement at Port Phillip, which was followed by a joint stock company to settle South Australia.

Meanwhile the third phase of inland exploration was progressing. In 1813 the Blue Mountains were crossed and three years later Oxley reached the River Lachlan. By 1836 Sturt had explored the Darling (1828), Murrumbidgee (1831), and Murray Rivers together with Mitchell, who had reached the great river junction in 1833. In 1844 Leichardt had reached Carpentaria, and Sturt (1845) the centre of the continent, while Eyre had traversed the length of the Bight in 1840. Then followed the transcontinental journeys of Burke and Wills (1860–1), who died from starvation after reaching tidal waters, and of Stuart, who in 1862 also traversed the continent from south to north and Landsborough from north to south. In 1873–5 the north-west was explored by Gosse, Warburton Forrest, and Giles.

The fourth phase of Australian history is the period of self-determination marked by the grant of responsible government to the separate colonies after the discovery of gold, and ultimately the creation of the Commonwealth of Australia in 1900.

New South Wales (*Cap.* Sydney. *Pop.* 2,300,081). Within fifteen years of the proclamation of British sovereignty (1788) the original character of the settlement had been profoundly modified by the introduction of freemen and merino sheep by Governor Phillip and John Macarthur. With the discovery of the pasture-lands beyond the Blue Mountains progress was rapid. In 1840 transportation ceased and was abolished in 1850. Gold was discovered in 1851, copper in 1869, tin in 1870, and silver in 1880. These discoveries meant a rush of immigrants, sudden prosperity, and an extension of government both in area and in personnel. The chief problem of government, however, was not minerals, but the land. In 1831 a minimum price was fixed for the auction of public land of five (raised in 1839 to twelve and in 1842 to twenty) shillings an acre. In 1846 the Squatters Act guaranteed tenure with an option of purchase by government tenants, but in 1861 a great step was made when Robertson introduced his scheme of purchase by residence conditional upon improvements and instalment repayments, a scheme which Victoria copied in 1862 and South Australia in 1869. From 1908 the state has aided emigration, while after the Great War large repatriation schemes were set on foot by the Commonwealth.

The constitutional history of New South Wales is typical of all the Australian colonies, for its constitution was their model, while at the same time it lies in the normal line of British imperial growth. From 1788 to 1823 it was a Crown colony under a military autocracy. The governor had complete legislative, administrative, and judicial powers until in 1814 a Supreme Court was created for some offences. In 1823 the New South Wales Judicial Act, consequent upon Bigge's report on colonial administration, set up a legislative council of 5–7, nominated by the governor, to advise the governor, who still initiated legislation, while in 1825 an executive council of 4 official members was added and the introduction of a civil jury for some causes. In 1828 the legislative council was increased (10–15) and could object to a governor's ordinance, while trial by jury had to be granted on petition. In 1839 this was made general. In 1842 semi-responsible government was initiated by the introduction of a partially elected legislative council consisting of 36 members, of whom 12 were nominated (6 of these being officials), which could initiate legislation and elect its own Speaker. The executive officers were still independent of the legislature. In 1850 the legislative council became bicameral, and responsible government was finally granted in 1855. An elected legislative assembly of 54 (rising to 141 in 1891 and reduced to

90 in 1901) to which the ministers were responsible, with a nominated legislative council consisting of 21 members, four-fifths of which were to be non-official, were set up. The ballot-box was introduced in 1858, and in 1874 the period of parliament was reduced from five to three years. Manhood single suffrage was granted in 1893 and votes to women in 1902, followed by the electoral novelties of a second ballot in 1912 and preferential voting in 1918. New South Wales excluded Chinese immigrants in 1888 and suffered from strikes in 1890–1, a bank crisis in 1893 which she shared with all the three eastern states, and drought in 1902. In 1912 the Million Club was formed to populate Sydney, and the year after the war county councils were set up in the state. New South Wales has always been the centre of the labour party in Australia and was the chief opposition to Federation.

Victoria (*Cap.* Melbourne. *Pop.* 1,684,017) was part of New South Wales until 1851. Explored by Bass and Flinders in 1798, a convict settlement at Port Phillip was made in 1803, but abandoned for Tasmania and the port neglected until it was rediscovered from New South Wales by Hume and Hovell in 1829. Two years later Western Port was occupied as a military post against French influence, but soon abandoned. In 1834 the squatting period begins when Henty started to colonize the district from Tasmania. Melbourne was founded in 1836, land having been bought from the natives by Batman and a military guard sent from New South Wales by Governor Bourke. In 1839 Latrobe was sent as superintendent from England, and 1840 saw the introduction of "exiles," but the settlers in 1849 objected and sent on these ticket-of-leave men to Sydney. In 1851 Victoria was created a separate colony, gold was discovered, and the population rose in seven years from 77 to 409 thousand. Municipal districts were created in 1854 and compulsory free education introduced in 1872. Victoria led the way in factory legislation (1873), but has been generally conservative and agricultural in outlook. Governed as part of New South Wales first by a military administration, then (1843) sending six representatives to the partially elected legislative council of New South Wales, it was granted a separate constitution in 1851 having a legislative council of 20 members (10 being nominated by the governor). In 1856 full responsible government was granted with a council of 30 (rising to 48 in 1902, but now reduced to 34) elected for six years, and an assembly of 60 (now 65) for five years. Manhood suffrage was granted in 1857, female suffrage in 1909, and preferential voting in 1911.

South Australia (*Cap.* Adelaide. *Pop.* 551,633) was explored by Sturt and Barker in 1829 and 1831. Settlement was commenced by the South Australian Land Company, which was followed in 1833 by the South Australian Association to carry out land settlement on Wakefield's principles, with colonization commissioners controlling the land. The 1834 act was followed by the foundation of the South Australian Company and the influx of Lutheran exiles from Germany. In 1840 bankruptcy ensued, the commissioners were reorganized and an emigration board established. In 1842 it was put on the same basis as the other colonies. In the 'forties copper was discovered; Roke began religious grants and made over mining royalties to the Crown, while Young built roads and set up municipal governments. Victoria suffered from an exodus on the discovery of gold elsewhere. The land problem was dealt with by Torrens's Real Property Act of 1857 and Sutherland's Act of 1863, which reserved a third of the land fund to encourage immigration. In 1869 the Northern Territory came under the jurisdiction of the colony, and in 1870–2 the overland telegraph to Darwin was constructed.

Its early government was unusual. In 1842 it was made a Crown colony administered by a governor assisted by a nominated council of 7 (4 of whom were to be non-officials). In 1851 semi-self-government was inaugurated by the grant of a council of 24 partially elected, only 8 of the number being nominated. Full responsible government was granted in 1856, with a council of 18 sitting for twelve years, a third of which were to retire every fourth year. This was changed to six years, a half to retire every three years and the number raised to 20 in 1913. An assembly of 36 (rising to 52 in 1883—being reduced to 47 in 1902, and to 46 in 1913) was the Lower House to which ministers were responsible. In 1894 adult suffrage was granted. South Australia has been generally progressive, taking the initiative in woman franchise and council reform.

Western Australia (*Cap.* Perth. *Pop.* 332,732) began as a military post on the Swan River as an outpost against French colonizing threats. Her early convicts were withdrawn in 1831, only to be sent by request in 1850. The colonial office refused the first offer of a syndicate to settle the Swan River, but in 1828 came to terms with Thomas Peel, one of the syndicate, and Perth was founded in 1829. This was the only colony still receiving convicts in Australia until the system was abolished in 1868. Only male convicts, however, had been sent. In 1871 municipal institutions and state education were established and responsible government demanded in 1878 by Parker but refused. In 1885 Kalgoorlie gold was discovered and large water schemes initiated in 1898. Governed at first by a governor and executive council of four, in 1831 these five officials constituted the legislative council. In 1839 four non-official members were added. The 1850 act permitted a two-thirds elected legislative council, but nothing was done until 1870 because this would have involved a cessation of imperial grants. From 1867 to 1868 the

legislative council of 6 official and 6 non-official members was nominated by the governor after election. From 1870 to 1889 the legislative council was composed of 12 elected and 6 nominated members. Responsible government was not granted until 1890. The council was nominated and the assembly of 33 (now increased to 50) was elected. In 1893 the council of 21 (now 30) was made elective. In 1899 women received the vote and in 1920 were made eligible to sit in parliament.

Queensland (*Cap.* Brisbane. *Pop.* 755,972), a land of scattered squatters, was made an electoral district of New South Wales in 1843, but created a separate colony in 1859 according to the permissive acts of 1842 and 1853, with a nominated council and an elected assembly on the New South Wales model, the 1853 act of New South Wales applying to the new colony. In 1867 a separate Constitution Act consolidated this. Members were paid in 1889, parliaments made triennial in 1890, and in 1921 the legislative council was abolished after failures to do so in 1915, 1916–17, and 1918. In 1910 single-member electorates, adult franchise, and a modified system of preferential voting were introduced.

Kanaka labour was procured from some of the South Sea Islands by somewhat dubious methods to work the sugar plantations, and this labour problem is the chief difficulty of the state. In 1883 Queensland urged the colonial office to annex New Guinea largely from fear of German influence there.

Tasmania (*Cap.* Hobart Town. *Pop.* 216,757) was called Van Diemen's Land until 1853. Sighted by Tasman in 1642, it was not visited for a hundred and thirty years. After the visits of du Fresne (1772), Furneaux (1773), Cook (1777), and Bligh, it was surveyed by the French in 1792 (and 1802), but not recognized as an island until 1798, when Bass and Flinders discovered Bass Strait. In 1803 Governor King of New South Wales sent convicts to settle there under Bowen, fearing the French would occupy the island. These were reinforced by Collins in 1804, and by the transference of the Norfolk Island settlers in 1808. A period of lawlessness followed, when aboriginal bushrangers and escaped convicts were a great danger. In 1833 Van Diemen's Land Company was founded, but in 1840 the influx of convicts suddenly rose to four thousand a year consequent upon the cessation of transportation to New South Wales. By 1853 67,655 convicts had been sent to Tasmania, but in that year the work of the Anti-Transportation League and the League and Solemn Engagement of the Australian Colonies succeeded in abolishing the system. An Immigration Act was passed in 1867, and the discovery of tin in 1871 and 1876, of gold in 1877, and of copper in 1883 led to the "boom and borrow" period, ending in the failure of the Van Diemen's bank in 1891. The aborigines were virtually extinct by 1842, though the last died in 1876.

From 1803 to 1825 Tasmania was governed from New South Wales by a lieutenant-governor. In 1825 it was separated and granted legislative and executive councils and a Supreme Court on the New South Wales model. In 1850 its legislative council became partially elective, and in 1856 full responsible government was granted with an elected legislative council of 18, three of which retire annually, and an assembly of 30, elected by adult suffrage. In 1897 Tasmania was the pioneer of proportional representation with the Hare-Clark system of voting. An interesting constitutional point was settled in 1924, when the colonial office approved as constitutional the governor's assent to an Appropriation Bill passed by the assembly ignoring the amendments by the legislative council. Tasmania is famous for its apple orchards and schemes of electrification.

Northern Territory (*Pop.* 3,597) was incorporated into the colony of New South Wales with the extension of its boundaries in 1827, but was annexed to the province of South Australia in 1868. With the adjacent islands it was transferred to the Commonwealth as an administered territory in 1911 according to the 1907 agreement. A resident administrator with supreme authority in internal affairs is appointed (from 1912) by the Commonwealth, and the territory elects a non-voting member to the House of Representatives. Legislative power rests with the governor-general, but the resident has wide powers of regulation.

Federal Capital Territory, an area of 912 square miles, transferred by New South Wales to the Commonwealth in 1911. Canberra was proclaimed the seat of government of the Commonwealth in 1913, and the Parliament House ceremonially opened by the Duke of York in 1927. In 1915 land at Jervois Bay was acquired from New South Wales as a port for the capital.

Norfolk Island, discovered by Cook in 1774 to be uninhabited, was a branch of the penal settlement at Sydney from 1788 to 1808. Unoccupied from 1808 to 1825, it was then used as a station for colonially convicted criminals until 1855. In the next year the Pitcairn islanders were transferred to Norfolk Island, which was then placed under the governor of New South Wales, to which colony it was offered in 1885 and handed over in 1900. From 1855 a chief magistrate elected annually by the inhabitants exercised authority under the governor of New South Wales until 1896, since when he has been appointed by the governor. In 1914 it was taken over by the Commonwealth, and is now administered by the department of home and territories through an administrator and a chief magistrate.

Federation.—As early as 1846 and 1847, Governors Grey and Fitzroy contemplated a central authority in Australia for matters of common interest, while in 1849 a committee of the privy council recommended a uniform

tariff, and Fitzroy was appointed as "Governor-General of all H.M.'s Australian Possessions." This nominal office, however, lapsed in 1861. In 1852 a committee of the legislative council of New South Wales, appointed to draw up a constitution for New South Wales, in its report mentioned the need of a general assembly for the Australian colonies for tariffs, intercommunications, appeals, regulation of gold mining, and legislation on some matters. Dr. Lang advocated federation (1852), and the *Sydney Morning Herald* urged the need of union in 1854, but the failure of Wentworth's Enabling Bill (1857) prevented the formation of a Federal Assembly. Duffy's select committee of the Victorian legislative council urged on the movement, but Cowper and Martin were opposed, and both South Australia and Queensland stood out. Some uniformity in legislation and administration was secured in practice by inter-colonial conferences between 1863 and 1880.

A Federal Council created in 1883 met eight times before 1899, but was merely deliberative and did not include New Zealand or New South Wales.

In 1889 Sir Henry Parker, who previously had opposed the council as not a sound step towards federation, took the initiative at a meeting of colonial premiers for the reading of Major-General Edward's Imperial Defence Report, and the Conference of Melbourne met with representatives from all seven colonies, followed by the first national convention at Sydney in 1891, which adopted Sir Samuel Griffith's draft bill. The collapse of the land boom hastened the movement, and an unofficial convention at Corowa was followed in the following year by a meeting of all the Australian premiers (now excluding New Zealand) at Hobart (1895), where Reid's proposals were accepted and enabling acts passed by all save Queensland to elect representatives to a Constitutional Convention. This met in 1897 at Adelaide, where a bill was drafted and adjourned to Sydney, where it was debated, and to Melbourne, where it was adopted in 1898. The bill was put to the referendum and adopted by Victoria, South Australia, and Tasmania. New South Wales, upon whose decision Western Australia waited, had not a sufficient majority. Reid called a Premiers' Conference at Melbourne in 1899, in which Queensland now joined, the bill was altered, and when put to the referendum, carried in all the colonies. A delegation visited England at Chamberlain's request, and the Commonwealth of Australia Constitution Act (63 & 64 Vict., c. 12) was passed in 1900 by the Imperial Parliament. Modifications were made in 1906 and 1909.

Constitution.—The government is that of a Federal Commonwealth within the British Empire. Executive power emanates from the sovereign, is vested in the governor-general in council and is exercised by the prime minister and the Federal Executive Council and ministers. The council consists of the ministers of state appointed to administer the various departments of state during his pleasure by the governor-general. These, however, are identical with the ministers chosen by the prime minister, the leader of the party holding the confidence of the Lower House. The legislature is bicameral; the Senate (36) consists of six members elected by the electors in each of the original states; the House of Representatives is about twice the size of the Senate and the state quotas are proportionate to population. The members have changed according to the census from 1900 to 1925, New South Wales, twenty-six to twenty-eight; Victoria, twenty-three to twenty; Queensland, nine to ten; while South Australia (seven), Tasmania (five), and Western Australia (five) remain constant. Northern Territory now elects one member. Members of both Houses receive £1,000 a year, and have similar election qualifications. The characteristic features of the constitution are a separate judiciary, cabinet government, and an executive with spheres of action defined by a written constitution, residuary powers remaining with the states, the legislation of which is only abrogated to the extent of its inconsistency with Commonwealth legislation. Where the Houses disagree and the Lower House passes a bill which has been rejected by the Senate, twice after a dissolution, the bill may be carried by a majority in a joint sitting of the two Houses. The constitution can be amended (except for the limits of the states and their equal representation in the Senate) by a referendum of the electors on an amendment passed by absolute majorities in both Houses or by a majority in one House a second time after an interval of three months. Only twice have amendments been made, in 1906 on details of senatorial elections, while in 1910 the Commonwealth was enabled to take on state debts. Unsuccessful referenda have been held as to Commonwealth finance (1910), increase of Commonwealth powers over trade and commerce, corporations, labour, combinations and monopolies relating to production (1911), state acquisition of monopolies (1910), and again in 1913 when railway nationalization was coupled with it.

A. W. Jose and H. J. Carter, "Australian Encyclopædia," 2 vols., 1925; A. W. Jose, "History of Australia," 1921; E. A. Jenks, "History of the Australian Colonies to 1911," 1895 and 1912; Sir C. P. Lucas, "Historical Geography of the British Colonies," vol. vi, "Australasia," 1907 and 1925; R. C. Mills, "Colonization of Australia, 1829–42," 1915; W. H. Moore, "The Constitution of the Commonwealth of Australia," 1902 and 1910; Sir T. A. Coghlan, "Labour and Industry in Australia, 1788–1901," 4 vols., 1918; H. Basedow, "The Australian Aboriginal," 1925; T. Dunbabin, "The Making of Australasia," 1922; E. Favene, "Explorers of Australia," 1908; S. H. Roberts, "History of Australian Land Settlement, 1788–1920," 1924; G. A. Wood, "Discovery of Australia," 1922; Hon. B. R. Wise, "Making of the Australian Commonwealth, 1889–1900," 1913; E. Scott, "Short History of Australia," 1918.

[H. R.]

Australian Colonies Act, The, was passed by Lord John Russell's government in 1850. It created Victoria a distinct province from New South Wales, and conferred on the four colonies of New South Wales, Victoria, Van Diemen's Land, and South Australia the power of choosing their own constitution, "by means of popular assemblies composed of all the inhabitants who were £10 householders or £100 freeholders."

Austria, Relations with. Before the sixteenth century, Austria was merely an imperial duchy, too remote and insignificant to have important dealings with England. Under the Bamberg line, the captivity of Richard I in consequence of his quarrel with Leopold V is the only important exception. Rudolf of Habsburg, who in 1278 granted Austria to his son Albert, was a good friend of Edward I, but friendship for actual Bavarian and Luxemburg emperors made England necessarily cool to Austrian aspirants to that dignity. With Frederick III (1439–93) and Maximilian I (1493–1519), the empire became practically hereditary in the Austrian house. The traditional friendship between England and the empire [Empire, Relations with] now necessarily involved closer relations with Austria. Maximilian I acquired, with the Burgundian Netherlands, the advantages of old commercial and political connexion between England and Flanders. Charles V united Spain, England's third mediæval ally, with the imperial crown. But it was rather with the Austrian house than Austria, with Spain rather than the distant "Erbländer," that England now becomes closely involved. On Charles's abdication, the Austro-Spanish House split up into two lines, but the solidarity between them was such that the intimate relations of alternate friendship and hostility between England and Spain practically determined her relations with Austria until the death of Charles II, the last Austrian King of Spain, in 1700. [Spain, Relations with.] Up to that date it is only necessary to note any peculiarity of relation between England and Austria. For instance, when the Catholic reaction ended for a time the Anglo-Spanish alliance, the superior moderation of the imperial branch produced friendly relations between Elizabeth and the liberal and tolerant Maximilian II (1564–78). Again, in the Thirty Years' War, close relations with Ferdinand II (1619–37) resulted from James I's persistent efforts to obtain the restoration of the Pfalzgraf Frederick, his son-in-law, to his hereditary dominions. For some years he hoped to get this by Spanish mediation. But when he and his son Charles found they were being played with, they turned to that alliance with France which lasted with partial breaks till 1688, and much longer than the political balance demanded. Fear of Louis XIV led even Charles II to the Triple Alliance, which saved Austria Franche Comté; and again, in 1677, he began to incline to the imperial side. With William III the whole influence of England was thrown against France, and in the wars of the League of Augsburg (1688–97) and of the Spanish Succession (1702–13) England fought in close alliance with Austria. The substitution of a Bourbon for a Habsburg monarch in Spain led to a closer union of interests between England and Austria than before. Yet there was a constant strain in their relations in the first half of the eighteenth century that led to absolute hostility in the second half. In the Treaty of Utrecht (1713) the Tories abandoned their Austrian ally. The accession of George I, the head of the house whose long attachment to the empire had been rewarded with a ninth electorate, made relations easier. But the commercial restrictions imposed on Flanders in the interests of the maritime powers, and the Barrier Treaty, negotiated through British mediation, which handed over that country to Austria, with its fortresses garrisoned by Dutch Protestants, were warmly resented by Charles VI, who had not forgotten the failure of his Spanish hopes. Very unwillingly he made a defensive alliance in 1716, and when Alberoni's intrigues against the Utrecht settlement produced the Triple Alliance of 1717, it was only immediate fear of losing Italy that prevailed on him to make it a Quadruple Alliance, by joining with France and the maritime powers to uphold the treaty. In 1722 his Ostend India Company was established in direct contravention of the treaty, and in 1725 Ripperda negotiated the first Treaty of Vienna, which reunited Austria with Spain against Great Britain, even more than France. Charles secured a further triumph when Prussia deserted Britain [Hanover, Treaty of, 1726] for his alliance, and open war between Great Britain and Spain ensued. But in 1727 peace was patched up [Paris, Treaty of], and in 1731 the second Treaty of Vienna restored peace with Great Britain, and Charles renounced his commercial schemes for a guarantee of the Pragmatic Sanction. His subsequent misfortunes in the Polish and Turkish wars did not prevent Great Britain from loyally supporting Maria Theresa in the War of the Austrian Succession (1741–8). But British help was given in an overbearing and insolent spirit which destroyed all feelings of gratitude. Robinson, the British ambassador at Vienna, made himself most obnoxious, and Great Britain compelled the empress, much against her will, to surrender part of the Milanese to Sardinia (Treaty of Worms, 1743), and Silesia to Frederick II of Prussia, and the Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle (1748) confirmed these cessions, and created a patrimony for Don Philip at the expense of Austria. This treaty, coming after thirty years of friction,

produced a definite rupture. Count Wenzel Kaunitz became Maria's adviser, and negotiated that alliance between France and Austria which continued with partial breaks till the Revolution. Hence, in the SEVEN YEARS' WAR (1756–63) Austria did her best to ruin Prussia, Britain's constant ally. But George III, intent on the restoration of personal government, paid but slight attention to foreign politics. Meanwhile Austria approximated to the Eastern powers, and in 1772 shared in the first partition of Poland. Joseph II became completely fascinated by Catherine II's schemes of Eastern empire, and, his sister's marriage keeping up his friendship with France, he availed himself of Britain's difficulties with America to repudiate the Barrier Treaty (1781), and an attempt to reopen the Scheldt. At last the younger Pitt's vigour restored to Britain her true position in Europe by forming an alliance against the Eastern powers, which in 1790 compelled Leopold II (Joseph was just dead) to accept the Convention of Reichenbach and withdraw from the Turkish War. The French Revolution completed the *rapprochement* of Britain and Austria. A close alliance was cemented by heavy subsidies, and in 1793 Britain joined the war against France. The alliance continued till 1815, broken only when Napoleon forced a peace on Austria, and was renewed again at the earliest opportunity. The TREATY OF VIENNA was successfully negotiated (1815); and if Britain did not accede to the HOLY ALLIANCE, she did not purge herself of association with its authors until the great ministry of Canning. Since 1827 the two countries have pursued very different directions. While Austria, under the guidance of Metternich, was the representative of reaction and absolutism in Europe, the two powers could hardly be on other terms than those of distant courtesy. In 1848–9, when Italy and Hungary tried to realize their independence, British sympathy was largely enlisted on the side of the wronged nationalities; but the sympathy took no active shape, and Austria was allowed to subdue the Hungarians by the aid of Russian armies. The close alliance with Russia was, however, severed by the Crimean War, in which Austria took no part. The overthrow of Austria by Prussia in 1866—her consequent exclusion from German affairs, and the liberal institutions which she found herself compelled to set up—seemed to have removed nearly all possible grounds of difference. After 1867 the political intercourse between British statesmen and those of the Austro-Hungarian monarchy was confined chiefly to questions connected with the condition of the Balkan peninsula. [BERLIN TREATY.] [T. F. T.]

[1908 provided an anxious moment, when Austria-Hungary annexed Bosnia and Herzegovina, and King Edward VII met the Tsar Nicholas III at Reval (June) to discuss measures for the pacification of Macedonia. The ambitions of the Habsburgs finally precipitated the Great War of 1914, the Serajevo murder offering an opportunity for Austria to destroy Serbia, who blocked her road to Salonika and Constantinople. The war resulted in the dissolution of the Dual Monarchy, Austria becoming a republic on November 12, 1918.]

Bryce, "Holy Roman Empire"; J. F. Bright, "Maria Theresa," 1897, and "Joseph II," 1897; W. E. H. Lecky, "England in the 18th Century," 1891; J. A. R. Marriott, "The Eastern Question," 1917; A. F. Pribram, "Austrian Foreign Policy, 1908–18," 1923; H. von Srbik, "Metternich," 1925; H. Wickham-Steed, "The Habsburg Monarchy," 1919.

Austrian Succession, THE WAR OF THE (1741–8), was caused by the death of Charles VI, Emperor of Germany, without male issue. There was thus thrown open the question of the succession to the empire, and to the Austrian dominions. The latter had previously been secured to Maria Theresa by the Pragmatic Sanction. The chief claimant to both was the Elector of Bavaria; the next important candidate was Philip V of Spain. As both these princes were allies of France, it was necessary for Great Britain to oppose their designs. Walpole, therefore, had tried to found a grand alliance between Hanover, Prussia, and the maritime powers with Austria; Frederick, however, would recognize the Pragmatic Sanction only if his claims to Silesia were acknowledged. This was refused by Austria, and immediately the French and Prussian armies crossed to the frontier (1741). Hanover was obliged to declare neutrality for a year. In 1742 Great Britain and Holland joined Austria, and an army of 30,000 was sent to the Low Countries. In the Mediterranean, Commodore Matthews, with the fleet, forced the King of Naples to neutrality, and allowed Sardinia to side with Austria. Frederick acquired Silesia by the treaties of Breslau and Berlin, and withdrew from the contest. The chief event of 1743 was the battle of Dettingen (q.v.), which, though nearly resulting in a disastrous defeat for the British, forced the French to retire into Alsace. Negotiations for peace were begun, George II being willing to recognize Charles of Bavaria as emperor if he would renounce his claims on Austria. They were, however, broken off, and the Treaty of Worms (q.v.), including Great Britain, Holland, Austria, Saxony, and Sardinia (September 1743), was met by the League of Frankfort, the important members of which were France and Prussia. Thus both Great Britain and France were now the respective heads of two great leagues, and the question at issue was really that of the naval supremacy of one or the other power, rather than the Austrian succession, the ostensible cause of the war. In 1744, after an attempted invasion of England in favour of the Pretender had been thwarted by the elements, a formal declaration of war was made. The general war, in which the

British troops were not concerned, need not be discussed here. Frederick of Prussia was not well supported by the French; and in 1745, on the death of Charles of Bavaria, Francis, the son of Maria Theresa, was elected emperor. It was then possible to have made some general negotiation. The opportunity passed. Large subsidies were voted to German troops, and 18,000 Hanoverians were taken into British pay. In December 1745 Frederick made a separate peace with Austria, known as that of Dresden. Meanwhile the allies, under the Duke of Cumberland and the Prince of Waldeck, were disastrously beaten by the French at Fontenoy (May 1745), and had to retire to Brussels and Antwerp. They had been much weakened by the necessity of withdrawing troops to defend England against the invasion of the Young Pretender. [STUART, CHARLES EDWARD.] In 1746 Marshal Saxe became master of the Austrian Netherlands. Deserted, however, by the Prussians and Bavarians, the French began to make offers for peace. In 1747 the Duke of Cumberland and the Prince of Orange were defeated with great loss at Lawfeldt. Bergen-op-Zoom fell, and Maestricht was besieged. These disasters were counterbalanced by the Austrian successes in Italy, and by the capture of Cape Breton Island in America. At length the struggle was brought to a close by the Peace of Aix-la-Chapelle (October 1748). The results of the war, as a whole, were not unfavourable to Britain. She had done much to secure her maritime supremacy, while her rival, France, had displayed a growing weakness and incapacity.

Carlyle, "Frederick II"; Frederick II, "Mémoires de Mon Temps"; Voltaire, "Siècle de Louis XIV"; F. H. Skrine, "Fontenoy and Great Britain's Share in the War of the Austrian Succession," 1906.

Authorities on English History.

The article which has hitherto appeared under this title is now omitted. To bring it up to date would have been quite impossible in the space at our disposal; and a shorter note of a broader nature may be of greater use to readers. For detailed information on any subject readers are referred to the authorities listed at the foot of the article dealing with the subject; or, if it is a subject on which no complete work has been written directly, to the authorities listed in articles cognate with it. Here will usually be found the latest monographs and biographies (but not original sources). These in turn can be consulted for further lists and select bibliographies.

General mention may be made here of the LISTS OF AUTHORITIES appended to articles in the "Encyclopædia Britannica" and the "Dictionary of National Biography"; to those appended to each chapter in the "Cambridge Medieval History" and "Cambridge Modern History"; to the select bibliographies given in each volume of Longmans' "Political History of England" (12 vols.) and Methuen's "History of England" (7 vols.); to the indexes to "History," "The English Historical Review," and the Transactions of the Royal Historical Society; and to the leaflets of the Historical Association. For works published very recently see Index to "*The Times* Literary Supplement," the "English Catalogue of Books," the "Reference Catalogue of Current Literature," and (for French works) the "Journal Général de l'Imprimerie." See also the following BIBLIOGRAPHIES:

Sonnenschein's, "The Best Books," 3 parts; 1910 and 1923 (invaluable); "British Museum Subject Index" of acquisitions during period 1881–1925 (8 vols.); C. Gross, "Sources and Literature of English History (to 1485)," 2nd edn., 1915; and "Bibliography of British Municipal History," 1915; P. H. Winfield, "Chief Sources of English Legal History," 1925; "Reader's Guide to Periodical Literature," 1900 onwards (New York); "International Index to Periodicals," 1907 onwards (New York).

The following works of reference may also be mentioned:

G. E. Cokayne, "Complete Peerage of England, Scotland, and Ireland," 1913: new edition in progress; R. A. Rye, "Guide to the Libraries of London," 3rd edn., 1927; S. R. Scargill-Bird, "Handbook to the Public Records," 3rd edn., 1908. [A. C. F. B.]

Avranches, a small town in the extreme west of Normandy, was the scene of Henry II's reconciliation with the pope in 1172 after the murder of Becket.

Aylesbury Election Case, THE (1704) (or the case of Ashby v. White), produced a violent collision between the House of Commons and the Lords. The vote of a burgess, Matthew Ashby, had been rejected by the returning officer, William White, mayor of Aylesbury. Ashby brought an action in the Court of Queen's Bench. There a majority of the judges, contrary to the opinion of Chief Justice Holt, decided against him on the ground that no harm had been done to him, and that decisions on the right to vote belonged to the Commons alone. Ashby's supporters thereupon brought the case by writ of error before the House of Lords. Here the judgment given at the Queen's Bench was reversed, and, by this important decision, franchises were placed under the common law. In spite of the wise advice of the Whig lawyers, William Cowper and Sir Joseph Jekyll, the Commons proceeded to pass resolutions to the effect that (1) neither the qualifications of any elector nor the right of any person elected was cognizable elsewhere than before the House of Commons; (2) that Ashby, having in contempt of the jurisdiction of the House prosecuted an action at common law against William White, was guilty of breach of privilege. The Lords passed contrary resolutions, and the quarrel became so serious that early in April Queen Anne put an end to the session. Ashby, however, sued out execution for the damages awarded him at the County Assizes against the returning officers who had refused to receive

his vote. In addition, four other burgesses were put forward to sue the officers. The Commons promptly committed the plaintiffs and their attorney to Newgate. The prisoners, after two months, moved the Court of King's Bench for a habeas corpus; but these judges, contrary to the opinion of Holt, who was for the discharge of the prisoners, decided that the court had no jurisdiction in the matter. It was determined to bring this by writ of error before the Lords. The Commons foolishly voted an address to the queen praying her not to grant a writ of error. Her reply, that the matter required careful consideration, was looked on as equivalent to a refusal. The Lords thereupon passed some important resolutions: (1) That neither House of Parliament could arrogate to itself any new privilege; (2) that the Commons had assumed an unwarranted legislative power by attributing the force of law to their declaration; (3) that they had thereby subjected the rights of Englishmen to the arbitrary votes of the House of Commons; (4) that every Englishman who is imprisoned by any authority whatever has an undoubted right to his writ of habeas corpus; (5) that for the Commons to punish any person for assisting a prisoner to procure such a writ is a breach of the statutes provided for the liberty of the subject; (6) that a writ of error was not one of grace, but of right, and ought not to be denied to the subject when duly applied for. A fairly amicable conference between the two Houses produced no result, as neither side would give way. The queen, therefore, prorogued parliament (March 14), thus leaving a great constitutional question wholly undecided. Hallam thinks that "the House of Commons had an undoubted right of determining all disputed returns to the writ of election, and consequently of judging upon the right of every vote. But as the House could not pretend that it had given this right, or that it was not, like any other franchise, vested in the possessor by a legal title, no protest or analogy could be set up for denying that it might come, in an indirect manner at least, before a court of justice, and be judged by common principles of law." [ELECTIONS.]

"Parliamentary History"; "State Trials," vol. iv; Sir T. Erskine May, "Constitutional History," edn. 1912; C. Grant Robertson, "Select Statutes, Cases and Documents," 1923; Sir W. Anson, "Law of the Constitution."

Aylesford, in Kent, is the traditional site of the battle between the Britons and the Saxons in 450 or 455 at which, according to Gildas, the Saxon leader Horsa was slain. Near by is Kit's Coity House, a cromlech said to have been erected to Catigern (without foundation), one of the British commanders, who was also slain in the battle.

Aylmer, JOHN (1521–94), the tutor of Lady Jane Grey, was one of the most zealous reformers of Edward VI's reign. In 1577 he was made Bishop of London by Queen Elizabeth. In this capacity he distinguished himself by his zeal against the Puritans; and earned great unpopularity by his arbitrary and tyrannical behaviour. He published an Answer to Knox's celebrated "Blast of the Trumpet against the Monstrous Regiment of Women"; but having offended the queen by preaching against dress, she requited him by vowing that, "If he held more discourse on such matters, she would fit him for heaven; but he should walk thither without a staff, and leave his mantle behind him."

Ayscue, SIR GEORGE (*d.* 1673 ?), entered the naval service at an early age, and was knighted by Charles I. In 1648, when the fleet revolted to Prince Rupert, Ayscue secured the *Lion* for the Parliament. He was appointed to the command of the fleet which had to watch the coasts of Ireland, and in 1651 to reduce the Scilly Islands. In 1652 he took Barbados for the parliament. He was engaged, in company with Blake, in the desperate naval battles against the Dutch in 1652. In 1664, on the renewal of war with the Dutch, he was made rear-admiral of the blue, and bore a principal share in the great victory obtained over Tromp and Ruyter on June 3. In the great four-days' battle of the following year Ayscue behaved with distinguished bravery; but his ship ran upon a sand-bank, and he was forced to surrender. The Dutch were so elated at the possession of this formidable antagonist, that they exhibited him in triumph in several of their towns. He was afterwards confined for some time in the castle of Lœvestein. He was subsequently released, and allowed to return to England; but he took no further part in public affairs.

Azores, EXPEDITIONS TO THE, took place (1) in 1572, when Sir John Hawkins, with twenty ships, sailed to lie in wait for the Mexican gold fleet. (2) In July 1587, when Sir Francis Drake took the Spanish treasure-ship *San Felipe*, doing so much to damage the Spanish prestige, and to inspirit the disheartened ministers of Elizabeth, that the expedition is said to have been "worth at the moment to Protestant England more than a general engagement fought and won." (3) In 1597, when a fleet was sent out under the Earl of Essex, Sir Walter Ralegh, and Lord Thomas Howard to capture the Spanish vessels returning from the Indies. Ralegh, having arrived first, took the island of Fayal without waiting for Essex, and a serious quarrel arose between the two admirals. Essex subsequently took Flores and Graciosa, but by his bad management allowed the Spanish treasure-ships to escape, taking three only. On the return of the expedition to England, Essex was severely blamed for its failure.

J. A. Froude, "English Seamen in the 16th Century."

B

Babington's Conspiracy (1586) originated with Ballard, a Jesuit, and "a young man of family and fortune" named Anthony Babington, of Dethick. Three elements may be traced in this conspiracy: the devoted adherents of the papacy; English Catholics whom zeal and harsh treatment had driven to desperation; and lastly, the paid agents of Walsingham. Babington—who, whilst a page at Sheffield, had been fascinated by the charms of the Queen of Scots—was easily persuaded by Ballard, after the latter's tour through England in 1585, to enter into a scheme by which Elizabeth was to be assassinated, and the country then raised for Mary. The conspirators, who numbered several gentlemen of position, chose six of their number to commit the crime—namely, Savage, Salisbury, Abington, Tilney, Barnewell, and Tichborne—and felt confident of success, ignorant of the fact that, through the elaborate system of espionage established by Burghley and Walsingham, agents of the government had actually been admitted to a share in the secret. Unfortunately for the Queen of Scots, Babington revealed the whole plot to her in a letter, which, like all his others, passed through Walsingham's hands; and her reply, encouraging the conspirators, and urging them to immediate action, ultimately sealed her fate. Proof sufficient having been obtained, Ballard was arrested August 4, 1586, and Babington, with four others, was captured ten days after in a barn at Harrow, whilst the papers of Mary Stuart were seized during her temporary absence from her room on a hunting party. On September 13 the conspirators were tried by a Special Commission at Westminster, and fourteen were executed at Tyburn on the 20th and 21st of the same month. The theory put forward by Lingard that Walsingham was at the root of the plot has been exploded by recent research among foreign archives. Walsingham's spy, Gilbert Gifford, "may have acted as *agent provocateur* to Babington and Ballard," but Walsingham could not have tampered with the letters of Philip II and Mendoza, which prove the existence of the Babington plot.

Bachelor, or Knight Bachelor (*bachelarius, baccalaureus*), was a simple knight, one who had received knighthood but had obtained no further honour, such as that of being made a banneret or a knight of the Bath. The word was also sometimes used to denote a squire, or armour-bearer, not of the degree of knight. "Bacheleria" is also occasionally used to designate apparently the whole gentry, or the whole body of military tenants below the degree of baron. Thus the "communitas bacheleriæ totius Angliæ" ("Annal. Burton.," p. 471), in 1259, complains to Prince Edward of the conduct of the barons.

The derivation of the word is doubtful. It has been connected with Welsh, *bach*, young (cf. O. Fr. *bacelle, bachelette*), and more plausibly with *bacca*, i.e., *vacca*, a cow, and with *baculus*, a staff.

Bachelors, Taxes on. By an Act of 6 and 7 Will. III, a tax was imposed on unmarried male persons above the age of twenty-five, varying in amount from £12 10s. to 1s., according to the taxpayer's status. It was repealed in 1706. In 1785 bachelors' servants were subjected to a higher tax than those of other persons. In Pitt's graduated income tax, in 1799, the rate was higher for bachelors than for married men.

Back Lane Parliament was the name given to an assembly of Catholic delegates from all Ireland, which met in Dublin in December 1792. They drew up a petition professing loyalty and demanding the franchise. The bishops signed it for the clergy, and the delegates for the laity. Five gentlemen, among whom were Byrne and Keogh, went over to present it. Dundas introduced them, and they were assured that their wishes would be considered.

Bacon, Francis, Viscount St. Albans (1561–1626), often called (though of course incorrectly) Lord Bacon, was the son of Sir Nicholas Bacon, lord keeper under Elizabeth. At twelve he was sent to Cambridge; at sixteen he became a member of Gray's Inn, and went to France in the retinue of the English ambassador, Sir Amyas Paulet. Here he stayed a couple of years, until he was recalled to England by the death of his father. Left with but scanty means, he now applied himself assiduously to the study of law, and began that long struggle for preferment in which was spent the greater part of his life. In 1584 he entered parliament, and in 1586 became a bencher. But for some years after this he made no progress. Lord Burghley, to whom he naturally looked for assistance—for the treasurer had married the sister of Bacon's mother—distrusted him, and paid no attention to his frequent appeals; while the younger Cecil was probably jealous of his cousin's ability, and constantly threw obstacles in his way. In 1593, however, Bacon's friendship with Essex seemed about to open to him the path to distinction. The place of attorney-general became vacant, and Essex demanded it for him, but in vain; for the influence of the Cecils was victorious, and their nominee Coke was appointed. From this time dates that bitter rivalry between Bacon and the great master of the common law, which was ultimately to bring about the fall of both. Essex failed even to gain for his friend the solicitor's place, and attempted to console him by the gift of an estate worth some £1,800. Yet in spite of the many services Essex had rendered to him, Bacon took a prominent part

on the side of the Crown in the prosecution of the earl for high treason, and was employed to write a pamphlet to justify the action of the government.

At James's accession, Bacon, with a crowd of others, was knighted. He was a prominent figure in the parliament of 1604, and, while acting as spokesman of the Commons, pleased the king by flattery, and by the skill with which he arranged compromises, especially in the matter of the Buckinghamshire election. On the question of the union of the two kingdoms Bacon heartily sympathized with the king; he was appointed to draw up the proposals to be laid before the commission, and as a member of it argued ably in support of James's project. In 1606 he married Alice Barnham, an alderman's daughter. In June 1607 he at last gained a foothold upon the ladder of promotion, and became solicitor-general. As such his work was chiefly of a routine character; in the Commons, however, he took a leading part in the discussions upon the Great Contract. After Salisbury's death, in 1612, Bacon was able to come into closer contact with the king, and henceforth his rapid rise was certain. In October 1613 he was made attorney-general; but though this office gave him a prominent place among the royal ministers, his work was but to carry out and defend royal decisions, and he had no influence upon the general policy of the government. He took part in the trials of Peacham and Somerset, defended the benevolence of 1614–15, and assisted in the humiliation of Chief Justice Coke in 1616. Having succeeded in gaining the favour of Buckingham, Bacon became lord keeper in March 1617, in January 1618 chancellor, in the July of the same year Baron Verulam, and in January 1621 Viscount St. Albans. He was still a mere agent of the government, and when he chanced unintentionally to offend Buckingham in the matter of the marriage of Coke's daughter, he had to make a degrading submission.

When parliament met in January 1621 there was no sign of any public hostility to the chancellor. The Commons were eager to join the king in a contest with Spain, but James refused to declare for a war policy; whereupon the Commons in disgust turned to the discussion of domestic grievances. Foremost amongst these were the monopolies. An attack began upon the referees, i.e., those law officers (including Bacon) and others who had certified to the legality of the monopolies; and Coke, now one of the leaders of the House, turned the assault especially upon the chancellor. Meantime a committee had been sitting to inquire into abuses in the courts of justice. Apparently to the surprise of the world, Bacon was in March accused of having received bribes; the Lords, after hearing witnesses, were convinced of his guilt; and, what is most strange of all, Bacon made no attempt to defend himself, but threw himself on the mercy of the Lords and the king. Yet it is the opinion of S. R. Gardiner, who has given a detailed account of the most important accusations brought against him, that "the charge that Bacon knowingly and corruptly sold or delayed justice falls entirely to the ground. The only possible explanation of his conduct is that, with his usual carelessness of forms, he contented himself with knowing that the immediate reception of the money, which he believed himself to have fairly earned, would not influence his decision; in other words, that without a corrupt motive he accepted money corruptly tendered" ("History of England," iv, 81). Bacon saw that the attack was due to political animosity, and that no defence would save him; by complete submission he might escape with a more lenient sentence. Moreover, though he was confident, and justly, of his own integrity, he could not fail to see how evil was the practice which he had allowed to continue: "I was the justest judge that was in England these fifty years. But it was the justest censure in parliament that was these two hundred years." He was sentenced to a heavy fine, to imprisonment during royal pleasure, to exclusion from parliament, office, and court. The fine was remitted and Bacon was released from the Tower after two or three days' imprisonment; but, though his advice was occasionally sought by the government, he never again obtained office, and spent the remaining years of his life entirely in literary work.

More important, perhaps, than the events of his life are the political theories which he consistently advocated. His ideal was a paternal monarchy. The king, aiming at the good of his people, able to employ the wisest counsellors, and possessed of wide information, must be better able to guide the nation aright than the unorganized body of well-meaning country gentlemen called the House of Commons, though he ought to use their help and explain his purposes to them. The work of government demanded an intellectual power such as trained statesmen alone possessed; the king, unmoved by the interests of any class, could provide for the welfare of all classes better than lawyers or squires. Yet facts proved too strong for Bacon, as they afterwards proved too strong for Strafford, who may be regarded as a Bacon in power. Bacon was employed as a useful tool; he was seldom seriously consulted on important matters. None of his great projects was carried out, and while he was holding up in many a carefully written state paper the picture of a patriot king, the country was being governed by Buckingham. Bacon's life was a dual one. His dominant interest was the increase of human knowledge by the new way which he could teach ("Advancement of Learning," 1605; "Novum Organum,"

1620). There will always be a question as to the relation between Bacon's active and speculative life. Probably he wished for power chiefly because it would enable him to carry out his great plans for the social good.

The main sources of information about Bacon are his "Works," edited with most valuable introductions, etc., by Spedding, Heath and Ellis (7 vols., 1854–9). For Bacon in relation to the history of the time, Gardiner, "History of England," especially vol. iv, must be consulted. A very useful short biography was written by R. W. Church, 1888. Kuno Fischer, "Franz Bacon von Verulam und Seine Nachfolger," is an exhaustive statement of Bacon's philosophical position. [W. J. A.]

Bacon, Sir Nicholas (1509–79), was born at Chislehurst and educated for the law, obtaining in 1537 the office of solicitor to the Court of Augmentations. During the reign of Mary, Sir Nicholas, like many others, conformed to the Catholic religion, although he had been, under Edward VI, an active supporter of the Reformation. Having married a daughter of Sir Anthony Cooke, he became Cecil's brother-in-law, and by the latter's recommendation obtained the post of lord keeper of the great seal on the accession of Elizabeth. He speedily won the confidence of the queen, and became famous for his decisions in equity. In 1561 he did his best to bring about an alliance with the Huguenot leaders in France, and subsequently strongly supported the marriage of the queen, whose favour he lost for a time in 1564, owing to his having participated in the publication of John Hales's book on the succession. The lord keeper was for this offence struck off the roll of privy councillors, at the instance of his enemy, the Earl of Leicester, and "strictly enjoined to meddle with no business whatever except that of the Court of Chancery." Shortly afterwards, however, he recovered his position at court. In 1568 he was one of the commissioners to inquire into the guilt of the Queen of Scots in the matter of the Darnley murder, and he superintended the trial of the Duke of Norfolk in 1572, although he took no active part in it. Lord Keeper Bacon had a great influence over his brother-in-law Cecil, and is said to have framed the acts aimed at the Queen of Scots and her supporters. He died February 20, 1579, having held his office for twenty years. His son says of him:—"He was a plain man, direct and constant, without all finesse and doublenesse," whilst a contemporary described him as "a man of greate diligence and ability in his place, whose goodnesse preserved his greatness from suspicion, envye, and hate."

Bacon, Roger (1214 ?–94), studied at Oxford and Paris, and became a Franciscan friar. His proficiency in natural science exposed him to censure on the part of his superiors. Accused of dealing in magic, he was prevented from lecturing at Oxford, and ordered to go to Paris, where he remained several years under surveillance. Clement IV, in 1266, interested himself in Bacon, induced him to publish his works, and procured his release and return to Oxford. In 1278 he incurred the censure of the Church, and is said to have remained in confinement this time for fourteen years. As a philosopher and man of science, Roger Bacon is a personage of the first importance in the history of mediæval thought.

Bacon's chief work is the "Opus Majus," an encyclopædic survey of existing knowledge, which has been compared with the great work of his later namesake. It was printed by Jebb, London, 1733. Some of Bacon's minor philosophical treatises were published in the Rolls Series, 1859. A number of his writings are still in manuscript.

Badajoz was the scene of the fiercest struggles in the Peninsular War. Originally in the hands of the Spaniards, it was surrendered, by the treachery of its commander, in March 1811 to the French; and on May 8 following the first British siege was begun. Owing to false information as to the movements of the French army, the siege was raised after a week; but, when the battles of Fuentes d'Onoro and Albuera had checked the armies of Masséna and Soult, Wellington began his preparations for the second siege. Circumstances, however, prevented him from taking as much time as he really required for the siege; in June it was again raised. But in the next year the two previous failures were avenged. The place was very strongly fortified. On the north it was washed by the Guadiana, with two outlying forts thrown across the river, one of which defended the only bridge. At the north-east corner of the town the Guadiana is joined by the Rivillas. On the south-east beyond the Rivillas an isolated hill was occupied by a strong fort, called the Picurina. Within the walls the town was defended by four chief fortresses. Wellington's works were begun on March 17, and on the night of March 25 the Picurina was assaulted and taken after a desperate conflict. On April 6 the assault was made under Picton and Major Wilson. The troops at the breaches displayed the most undaunted courage and resolution, but the terrible defences devised by Philippon, and the stern resistance of the defenders, baffled all their efforts. In two hours 2,000 men had fallen without result; and Wellington sent orders to the party to retire and re-form. The town was ultimately captured after an entry had been gained by Walker's party. This was the most bloody of all the struggles of the Peninsular War, and the British lost 5,000 men in killed and wounded.

Sir C. Oman, "Peninsular War," 1902–20.

Badby, John (*d.* 1410), was a tailor or blacksmith of Worcestershire, of Lollard opinions, and was executed under the statute *De Hæretico Comburendo*, for denying the Real Presence. The Prince of Wales, who was present at his execution, attempted to save him by inducing him to recant; but Badby remained firm,

notwithstanding the entreaties and promises of the prince. He was the second of the Lollard martyrs.

Walsingham, "Historia Anglice"; Wylie, "Henry V," 1914; C. L. Kingsford, "Henry V," 1901.

Badges, Royal, are distinguished alike from crests and coats of arms. They were intended to be worn on helmets, banners, or caparisons, as well as on the breasts of soldiers, retainers, and attendants. William II's badge is said to have been an eagle gazing at the sun; that of Stephen was an ostrich plume. Henry II used the badge of his house, the planta genista, or broom plant, besides the carbuncle and a sword with an olive branch. Richard I had a variety of badges: a star issuing from between the horns of a crescent; a mailed arm holding a broken lance; and a sun on two anchors. John seems to have adopted the first of these as his special badge, and Henry III used the same device. The badge ascribed to Edward I is "a rose or, stalked proper," while Edward II, in token of his descent from the kings of Castile, used a castle. Edward III's badges were very numerous; amongst them were rays descending from a cloud, the stump of a tree, a falcon, an ostrich feather, and a sword erect. Richard II likewise had a variety of badges, such as the sun in its splendour, the sun behind a cloud, and a white hart. By Henry IV numerous badges and devices were employed, such as an eagle displayed, a fox's tail, a panther crowned, and a crescent. Henry V bore an antelope, a swan, and a beacon. Henry VI also used the antelope, as well as the feather. The Lancastrian party, however, adopted the red rose as their emblem, in opposition to the white rose of the Yorkists. Edward IV had numerous badges, such as a black bull, a white wolf, and a fetterlock; but the most famous badge of the house of York was the sun in its splendour, to which Shakespeare alludes at the beginning of *Richard III.* This king's peculiar badge was a falcon with a woman's face, holding a white rose. In memory of the finding of the crown in a hawthorn bush at Bosworth Field, Henry VII adopted a crowned hawthorn bush as his badge, besides which he used the red dragon of Wales and a white greyhound, which last was also used by Henry VIII. Edward VI bore the sun in splendour. The general badge of the house of Tudor was a rose, which Queen Mary frequently used, besides the pomegranate and a sheaf of arrows. Elizabeth also used the rose, as well as the falcon, and James I the rose and the thistle. Since this time royal badges have not been used, but the rose has come to be considered the emblem of England, the thistle of Scotland, the shamrock of Ireland, and the harp of Wales.

Badon, Mount (Mons Badonicus), is the name of the place where the British are said to have defeated the Saxons at the beginning of the sixth century. Of the various dates suggested, 516 seems the most probable. The position of the place is unknown, but the battle was probably fought near the mouth of the Severn. Some authorities have identified Mount Badon with Bath. Nennius associates the name of Arthur (q.v.) with the British victory.

Bæda (Bede) (672 (? or 3)–735) was born perhaps at Jarrow in the territory of the abbey of Wearmouth, founded by Benedict Biscop (q.v.). By this learned man Bæda was educated, and eventually he entered the monastery of Jarrow, an offshoot of the Wearmouth foundation. Here Bæda spent the remainder of his life, dividing all the time not engrossed by religious studies between learning and teaching. He was a very prolific author, as is sufficiently proved by the long list of his writings which he appended in his fifty-ninth year to his "Ecclesiastical History," and even on his death-bed he was busy with literary labour. His great work is the "Historia Ecclesiastica Gentis Anglorum," on which his fame rests. It is divided into five books. The first twenty-two chapters of the first book form only an introduction, wherein, after a short description of Britain and its ancient inhabitants, we have the history of the country, reaching from Julius Cæsar to the introduction of Christianity among the Angles by Gregory's missionaries. From this point only (chap. 25) begins the independent research of Bæda. The Church history of the English is then carried down in this book to the death of Gregory the Great (604). The second book begins with a long obituary of this pope, so important for the English Church, and ends with the death of Edwin, King of Northumbria (633). The third book reaches to 635, and the fourth extends to the death of Cuthbert (687), the famous saint already twice celebrated by Bæda himself. The last book (to the year 731) concludes with a survey of the several sees, and of the general state of Britain in that year. Bæda's "History" is our main source of information for the century and a half that followed the conversion of the English to Christianity, and is therefore a work of much interest and importance, apart from its attractions of style. Besides the "Historia Ecclesiastica," which was translated into Anglo-Saxon, it is said, by King Alfred, Bæda wrote a very large number of minor works, among which are a "Life of St. Cuthbert," a "Chronicon," or general summary of history up to the year 729; "The Lives of the Abbots of Wearmouth and of Jarrow," and "An Epistle to Ecgbert, Archbishop of York," which gives an interesting account of the state of the Church. All are of considerable historical importance, though they yield in interest to the Ecclesiastical History. The greater number of Bæda's compositions—said to have amounted

to nearly 150—were probably theological treaties or commentaries on the Scriptures.

The works of Bæda are published in Migne's "Patrologia," vols. 90–5; and the historical works were edited by Stevenson (English Historical Society) in 1841 (2 vols.). The "Historia Eccles. Anglor." is published by the Clarendon Press (ed. Plummer). See also G. F. Browne, "The Venerable Bede," 1919; Howorth, "Golden Days of the English Church," 1917. [F. S. P.]

Bahamas, The (or Lucaycos), is a coral archipelago to the north-east of Cuba, centring politically round New Providence, where is the only safe harbour. San Salvador was Columbus's landfall in 1492; Eleuthera (1646) and New Providence (1666) were colonized from the Bermudas by the English, after most of the gentle, superstitious natives had been deported by the Spaniards to work their mines. Granted in 1670 to six of the Carolina proprietors, New Providence was laid waste by the Spaniards ten years later and the colony annihilated by a combined French and Spanish attack in 1703. A centre for buccaneers, among whom was "Black Beard," it was cleared by Rogers in 1718. Captured by the revolted American colonists in 1776 and in 1781, having been abandoned by a Spanish force, the islands were recaptured and ceded to Britain in 1783, and subsequently colonized by a number of Loyalist emigrants who introduced the cultivation of cotton. In 1834 emancipation did not ruin the islands, which enjoyed in 1861 a blockade-running trade. A small governing council had been granted in 1718 and a constitution agreed to in 1806. The government is vested in a governor assisted by an executive council of nine, some of whose unofficial members are drawn from the nominated legislative council of nine. The legislature is completed by the House of Assembly (twenty-nine) elected on a white-man suffrage over eleven of the islands. Turks and Caicos Islands (q.v.), represented in the Assembly for 1799, were separated in 1848.

"Report by Governor Rawson on the Bahamas for the Year 1864," Parliamentary Papers, 1866; L. D. Powles, "Land of the Pink Pearl," 1888; G. B. Shattuck (ed.), "The Bahama Islands" (Geographical Society of Baltimore), 1905; Sir G. T. Carter, "General Descriptive Report of the Bahama Islands," 1902; J. H. Stark, "History and Guide to the Bahamas," 1891; M. Kinner, "General Description of Bahamas," in vol. 2 of 4th ed. of Bryan Edwards's "History of the West Indies" (1805–6); J. T. Hassan, "Bahama Islands," 1899; J. M. Wright, "History of the Bahama Islands," 1905. [H. R.]

Bahrein Islands, a group of islands in the Persian Gulf, the largest of which gives the name to the group which now includes Muharrak, Sitra, Nabi Saleh, Jezeyra. A native sheikh of the family of Al Khalifa rules over about 100,000 Persians and Arabs, under British protection, a political agent residing at Bahrein under the direction of the political resident in the Persian Gulf. A large pearl fishery supplements the indigenous dates and a peculiar breed of white donkeys. Many square miles of conical tombs of unknown origin add interest to the group.

J. R. Bent, "The Bahrein Islands in the Persian Gulf," 1890.

Bai, in Hindustani, signifies "lady," and was affixed to the names of all Mahratta ladies of distinction—e.g., Tara Bai, the wife of the first Holkar; Tulsi Bai, the celebrated concubine of Jaswant Rao Holkar, etc.

Bail (Fr. *bailler*, to hand over, deliver) is used in English common law to denote the freeing of accused persons from imprisonment, on security being accepted that they will appear to stand their trial. *Mainprize* has much the same meaning as bail, and the two terms are used almost promiscuously in the old law books. By 7 Geo. IV, c. 64, justices of the peace were allowed to release persons charged with felony if the evidence were not such as to raise a strong presumption of their guilt; but it is unusual to grant bail in cases of murder. In cases of treason only the secretary of state for home affairs or a judge of the King's Bench can admit to bail. Where small misdemeanours are concerned, bail cannot be refused. The modern practice is regulated by the act 15 and 16 Vict., c. 76. Bail may in theory be given either in civil or criminal cases, but since the abolition by the Debtors Act of 1869 of arrest on mesne process bail in civil cases is virtually extinct.

Bailiff (a word cognate with Fr. *bailli*, from Old Fr. *bailler*, to carry or govern, and Low Lat. *ballivus*, or *bajulus*, a governor) is a person who is entrusted with power of superintendence by a superior (cf. *bailie* in Scotland, *bailly* in the Channel Islands). The term was in common use among the Normans in France and Sicily, and after the Conquest it was applied to many officials in England: thus the sheriff was the king's chief official in the county which was his bailiwick. Gradually the word became attached to definite offices: (1) the bailiff errant, (2) the bailiff of a riding or lathe, (3) of a hundred, (4) of a town, (5) of a liberty, (6) of a manor, and (7) the under bailiffs of any of these. (1)–(3) were royal officials, who might or might not have charge of manors or land in the form of royal demesne, escheats, or forfeitures: (4)–(6) were seigneurial officials, of whom (4) and (5) might perform functions almost identical with those of (2) and (3), because their lords had been granted a liberty, franchise, or hundred in private hands. Thus though the bailiffs' spheres of activity varied, on the whole they had similar functions. (*a*) The bailiff supervised the agricultural work on the lord's estate, whether it was royal demesne, a hundredal manor, an ordinary manor, or a town. (*b*) He presided at the court or courts in his bailiwick, which might include riding, hundred, town, liberty, or manor court, and possibly court leet, court baron, or view of

frankpledge, but the sheriff held the *tourn* which took place twice a year in the hundred court. (*c*) He was responsible for the collection of money and other debts, whether he paid them into manorial, baronial, or royal exchequers. His under officials who did the actual work were the beadles or catchpoles. In the case of (1)–(3), the bailiff executed the king's writs and summonses (for debts) which were passed to him by the sheriff, and he had powers of distraint and arrest: in that of (4) and (5) he only carried out these functions if the town or his lord had the special franchise of returning the king's writs and collecting his debts within the liberty. The bailiff of a manor or liberty, not having this franchise, collected his lord's debts, but not the king's. If the lord who had return of writs, or his bailiff, neglected their duties, then the sheriff received a writ *non omittas* from the exchequer which authorized him to enter the liberty and carry out the king's orders. (*d*) Certain duties connected with the peace and judicial system also devolved on the bailiff: they varied at different dates and in accordance with the nature of the office held. The *bailiff errant* had to go about the county in general to execute writs, to summon the county, sessions, assizes, and undertake a number of unassigned tasks. With the decay of feudalism, bailiffs became less important, but survive in modern times. Other survivals outside the corporate towns are the bailiff of the lord of the manor, or landholder, and the farm bailiff on the one hand; the bailiff who distrains for debt on the other.

Under the Normans the bailiff was *the presiding magistrate of a town*, who assumed the functions of the English *reeve* (q.v.), called in mercantile towns *port-reeve*, whose Latin title *prepositus* was applied to him. The burgesses of Colchester could elect bailiffs in the reign of Richard I, and under Henry III, when the right of choosing their mayor was taken away from the Londoners, they were allowed to elect bailiffs instead. This official's duties were to preserve the king's peace, and to preside over the chief court of the town. Thus in Leicester the bailiff was the constituting officer of the portmanmote until the middle of the thirteenth century, and in Beverley the archbishop's bailiffs held the court in his name until the reign of Henry VIII. By the end of the thirteenth century, however, the mayor had supplanted the bailiff nearly everywhere; the summonses of borough members to a national council are addressed to the mayors of the towns more frequently than to the bailiffs, and in cases where both are mentioned the mayor is placed first. Nevertheless, the idea of the bailiff being a great town official still lingered on, and the inquiries of the Corporation Commissioners in 1835 showed that there were 120 officers of this nature in the corporate towns. [Reeve.]

The bailiffs of the liberty and the manor, and closely connected with them the *bailiffs of the royal demesne*, were officials of higher position than those of the towns. Before the Conquest the presiding officer of the Courts of the Liberties, which were jurisdictions exempt from that of the hundred, and of lands held in sac and soc, which corresponded to a certain extent to the Norman manor-system, was the reeve, whose subordinate was the *bydel*, or beadle. The bailiffs of the liberty or honour and of the manor represented their lords in the *court-baron*, or ancient assembly, of the township where by-laws were made, in the *court customary*, where the business of villanage was transacted, and in the *court leet*, which had criminal jurisdiction; in the great baronial honours, whose system corresponded fairly closely to that of the shire, the bailiff attended the *sheriff's tourn* or court for the view of frankpledge. During the reigns of the Edwards, and subsequently, the power of these bailiffs was narrowly watched; they were to be sworn to make distress, and punished for malicious distress by fine and treble damage; to truly impanel jurors, and to make returns by indenture between them and the sheriffs. They could not arrest without order of the sheriff. The exclusive jurisdictions of the liberties still exist in some parts of England, and in 1844 the power of the bailiffs was regulated by placing their appointment in the hands of the judge of the courts, i.e., the county-clerk or under-sheriff before whom they are held, and subjecting them to severe penalties for misdemeanour. With the decay of feudalism the bailiff of the manor became an unimportant functionary who looked after his lord's interests in the matter of collecting rents, surveying improvements, etc.

The riding or hundred bailiff presided, after the Conquest, in the smaller court of the hundred, the chief business of which was to settle disputes about small debts. He represented the king's interest, and was probably the same as the *gerefa*, or reeve of the hundred, of the laws of Edward the Elder and Ethelred. He was supposed to execute all process directed to the sheriff, to collect the king's fines and fee-farm rents, and to attend the judges of assize and jail-delivery. From Bracton we learn that another of his duties was to select four knights of the hundred, who were in turn to choose the jury of inquisition. If the jurisdiction of the hundred fell into the hands of great landowners, the bailiff was appointed by the lord, and presided in the manorial courts as well as the hundred court (see under (*d*) above). The hundred bailiffs are sometimes called the sheriff's bailiffs and were bound, in an obligation to him, for the due execution of their offices, whence they were called *bound bailiffs* (vulgarly corrupted into *bum bailiffs*). *Special bailiffs* may also be nominated at the request of the suitor in a case, and approved by the sheriff, for a particular occasion. Their persons were protected, and severe penalties laid on them for misdemeanour by the Inferior Courts Act (1844). [M. H. M.]

Bailiwick signifies either a county in which the sheriff as bailiff of the king exercises jurisdiction, or the liberty of franchise of some lord, "who has an exclusive authority within its limits to act as the sheriff does in the county." [BAILIFF.]

Baillie, ROBERT (1599–1662), minister of Kilwinning, was one of the leaders of the Covenanters, and a voluminous writer. He was one of the Assembly of Divines at Westminster, and in March 1649 was one of the commissioners sent to Charles II at The Hague.

P. Hume Brown, "History of Scotland," 1911.

Baird, SIR DAVID (1757–1829), served in India against Hyder Ali in 1780, and fell captive to that potentate till 1784. He was present at the siege of Pondicherry, 1793, and of Seringapatam, 1799. In 1800 he took command in Egypt, acting in conjunction with Abercromby, and in 1806 he reduced the Cape of Good Hope. He was wounded at Copenhagen in 1807, was sent to reinforce Sir John Moore, and fought in the retreat on Corunna.

Sir C. Oman, "Peninsular War," 1902–20; biography by W. H. Wilkin, 1912.

Baji Rao, the son of Ragoba, became heir to the office of Peshwa in 1796, and in 1801, through fear of Holkar, concluded the Treaty of Bassein (q.v.) with Great Britain. His subsequent repudiation of the treaty and his efforts to regain power—notably in 1806, 1815, 1817—involved him in perpetual hostility to the British governor-general. He was finally defeated and pensioned in 1818. He died in 1853, leaving an adopted son, Nana Sahib.

Wellesley, "Dispatches," 1840; Grant Duff, "History of the Mahrattas," 1826 and 1921.

Balaclava, THE BATTLE OF (October 25, 1854), during the Crimean War, was brought on by the Russian general, Prince Menshikov, who moved a body of men on Balaclava, hoping to get possession of the harbour, and to cut the allies off from their supplies. The Russians first attacked the redoubts in the valley of Kadikoi, defended by the Turks, who fled almost immediately. The Russian cavalry then advanced towards Balaclava, but were checked by Sir Colin Campbell's Highland Brigade, and by the Heavy Brigade of cavalry. The charge of the Heavy Brigade was a peculiarly brilliant piece of cavalry fighting. The Russians, though more than twice as numerous as their opponents, were driven back in confusion. The main body of the British and French now came into action, and the fighting about the captured redoubts began to thicken. Lord Raglan, thinking the enemy were retiring with the guns from one of the redoubts, sent orders to Lord Lucan, in command of the cavalry, to follow and harass their retreat. But by the time the Light Brigade was prepared to carry out the order the broken Russian cavalry had re-formed, and the main body of Liprandi's *corps d'armée* had advanced and formed at the bottom of the valley. Notwithstanding, Lord Lucan insisted that the charge should be carried out. Accordingly, the Light Brigade (consisting of the 5th and 11th Hussars and the 17th Lancers), in all 607 men, commanded by Lord Cardigan, rode down upon the whole Russian army. They broke their way right through the enemy's lines, and struggled back again through the valley, in which the Russian guns played on them from front, flank, and rear as they rode, with the loss of all but 198. Except for some desultory cannonading, this ended the battle. The Russians had not effected their object, but they kept possession of the ground they had won in the valley, so that the victory may be said to have been indecisive.

For an elaborate description and a full discussion of the questions connected with the gallant but culpably reckless "Charge of the Six Hundred" see A. W. Kinglake, "Invasion of the Crimea," 1863–87.

Balance of Power may be defined as the existence of such a connexion and such relations of power among a majority of neighbouring states, that no one of them can endanger the independence or the rights of any other state without effectual resistance, and without danger to itself. The term seems to have come into existence at the beginning of the sixteenth century. The Duc de Rohan's work, "Trutina Statuum Europæ" was published in 1645. The first attempt towards establishing a balance of power in Europe was probably that of Henry IV and Sully, which dates from 1603. Their idea was to create a confederation in Europe under the title of the "République très chrétienne." It was to contain fifteen states: five elective monarchies —the pope, the emperor (the ancient freedom of election being restored, with a provision that no two successive emperors were to be chosen from the same house), the kings of Poland, Hungary, and Bohemia; six hereditary monarchies—those of France, Spain, England, Denmark, Sweden, and Lombardy, the last a new kingdom created for the Duke of Savoy; four republics—Holland, Venice, a republic containing Genoa, Florence, and Central Italy, and Switzerland, which was to be considerably enlarged. Each of these states was to have its limits so well defined that it could not exceed them without being attacked by all the rest. There was to be liberty of conscience—Roman Catholics, Lutherans, and Calvinists were to be on an equality; there was to be a general federal council, to keep peace at home, and to make war upon the infidel. (See Sully, "Œconomies Royales" in Petitot's "Collection of Memoirs.") The plan of Henry IV came to nothing, and the Peace of Westphalia (1648) is generally regarded as the foundation of the modern political system of Europe. It established a *modus vivendi* between Catholics and Protestants; recognized the republics of Switzerland and the United Netherlands;

placed the German Empire on a firmer footing; and raised a bulwark against the ambition of the house of Austria. The second great settlement was that of the Treaty of Utrecht (q.v.), 1713, which put an end to the war of rivalry between France and Austria for the throne of Spain. Since the Peace of Westphalia the equilibrium of Europe had been more seriously threatened by the house of Bourbon than by the house of Habsburg; but the Treaty of Utrecht gave Spain to a younger branch of the Bourbon line. Britain was the principal power in the negotiation, whereas she had taken no part in the Treaty of Westphalia. The third great settlement of Europe was in the Peace of Vienna in 1815. This was designed to restore to Europe the tranquillity which had been broken by the wars of the French Revolution and of Napoleon. Its arrangements were based on calculations of the balance of power, but many of them have been falsified by events. The theory of the balance of power may at one time have been defensible, but it has often given rise to spoliations and violations of justice. It is impossible to restrain every state within the limits which once sufficed for it. The growth of wealth, of population, of colonization, the inevitable facts of annexation and conquest, are witnessed in all ages of the world. Peace is destroyed if each of these increments is held to justify a similar addition to neighbouring states. The law of progress determines the shifting of the balance; but there is no reason why each of these changes should be the signal for a European war. The modern law of nations depends rather on securing the equality of all states, great and small, before the law, and the protection of the weak against the violence of the strong. The growth of one state in power and prosperity is not necessarily a danger to the rest. It may even be sometimes regarded as an additional guarantee to peace. [League of Nations.]

Besides the works of Sully and the Duc de Rohan mentioned above, see Hume, "Essays," ii, 7; and the standard works on International Law, especially Wheaton, "History of the Law of Nations," and Bluntschli, "Droit Internat. Codifié." [O. B.]

Baldock, Robert de (*d.* 1327), was chancellor of England c. 1324–6. He was one of Edward II's chief supporters, and shared with the Despensers the hatred of the baronage. In 1326, on the landing of Queen Isabella, he fled with the king and the Despensers into Wales, where he was seized and sent to the Bishop of Hereford's house in London. Thence he was dragged by the mob and thrust into Newgate, where he shortly afterwards died.

Biographies of Edward II.

Baldwin, Archbishop of Canterbury (1185–90), born at Exeter, was educated at Ford Abbey, where he became a monk. He was made Bishop of Worcester in 1180, and in 1184 was elected Archbishop of Canterbury. He preached the second crusade in England and Wales and himself took the Cross.

Baldwin, Rt. Hon. Stanley J. (*b.* 1867), entered parliament in 1908. His rise to fame was very rapid. He became parliamentary private secretary in 1916, a junior lord of the treasury in 1917, a privy councillor in 1920, and president of the board of trade in 1921. At the Carlton Club meeting on October 19, 1922, he joined Bonar Law in seceding from the Lloyd George coalition of 1916, in order to save the Conservative party from being "lost in ruins." He became chancellor of the exchequer under Bonar Law until that statesman died, when Mr. Baldwin himself became prime minister. His first ministry fell in November 1923 on a Protection issue, but he returned to power nine months later on the defeat of Mr. Ramsay MacDonald's government.

Bale, John (1495–1563), one of the most zealous of the reformers under Henry VIII, was made Bishop of Ossory by Edward VI, 1553. He was compelled to leave England during the reign of Mary, but returned on the accession of Elizabeth, and was made prebendary of Canterbury. Bale wrote several religious plays, a history of English writers, and numerous controversial works on religious questions.

Bale's "Works," Parker Society, 1849.

Balfour, Arthur James, 1st Earl of (*b.* 1848), a nephew of Lord Salisbury, educated at Eton and at Trinity College, Cambridge, first sat in the House of Commons in 1874 as member for Hertford. For a time he was one of the members of the "Fourth Party." In Lord Salisbury's first administration (1885) he was president of the local government board; in 1886 he joined the cabinet as secretary for Scotland; in 1887 he became chief secretary for Ireland; in 1891 he succeeded W. H. Smith as first lord of the treasury and leader of the House, resuming these positions when his party returned to power in 1895, and again on the reconstruction of the ministry in 1900. In July 1902, on the retirement of Lord Salisbury, he became prime minister, and held office until his cabinet resigned at the end of 1905. In January 1906 he was defeated at Manchester East, but was elected the following month for the City of London, and was leader of the opposition until November 1911, when he resigned. He joined the first coalition ministry of May 1915 as first lord of the admiralty, and the second coalition of December 1916 as foreign secretary. He headed a British mission to the United States in 1917, and was a signatory of the Treaty of Versailles in 1919. After the war he remained in the Lloyd George cabinet as lord president of the council, and represented the government at the Washington Conference of 1921–2. He became an earl in April 1922. On his return from Palestine in

1925 he became lord president of the council in the second Baldwin cabinet.

Balfour, John (of Burleigh), in conjunction with Hackston, his brother-in-law, and John Henderson, murdered Archbishop Sharp (q.v.), 1679. He made his escape after the murder, and was at the battle of Drumclog (q.v.).

Baliol, Edward (*d.* 1363 ?), son of King John Baliol, succeeded to his father's French estates, and divided his time between France and England. On the death of Bruce in 1329, secretly encouraged by the English government, and joined by the "disinherited barons," he put forward his claims to the throne of Scotland through hereditary succession (although his father had resigned all connexion with the kingdom). In 1332 he landed with an army in Fife, and won the battle of Dupplin Moor (q.v.); shortly afterwards he successfully held Perth against a besieging army, and was crowned at Scone, September 1332. His first act was to render homage to Edward III, who at once sent an army to assist him, but the national party gradually gathered strength, and Baliol found himself compelled to retire to the English court after a defeat at Annan. In 1335 he was released by Edward's aid after the battle of Halidon Hill, on condition of the surrender of Lothian to the English king. His position was, however, fatally weak, and in 1338 he again returned to England. In 1346 he ravaged Nithsdale and Cunningham with an English army, but gained little advantage; in 1356 he resigned absolutely his claims to the crown and kingdom to Edward III in return for a pension of £2,000.

C. S. Terry, "History of Scotland," 1920; P. Hume Brown, "History of Scotland," 1911.

Baliol, John de, one of the regents of Scotland during the minority of Alexander III, was deprived of his office by the English party, 1255. He married Devorguilla, granddaughter of David, Earl of Huntingdon, who brought him half of the lordship of Galloway. He was the founder of Balliol College, Oxford, which was further richly endowed by his widow.

Baliol, John, Lord of Galloway (1249–1315), was the son of the preceding. From his mother he derived a claim to the Scottish throne. On the death of the Maid of Norway in 1290, and the consequent failure of heirs to Alexander III, Baliol, John de Hastings, Robert Bruce, and a host of minor competitors, laid claim to the crown of Scotland. Together with other Scots nobles, Baliol was summoned by Edward I to a conference at Norham, 1291, where the succession to the Scottish throne was to be settled. The meeting was adjourned to June 1292, when the arbiters announced that Baliol's claims were preferable to those of Bruce. Baliol was accordingly declared King of Scotland by Edward, and did homage to him, November 20, 1292; he was crowned at Scone ten days afterwards, and renewed his homage to Edward, December 26, at Newcastle. Edward soon began to exact the rights of an overlord, encouraging appeals to his own courts from those of Baliol; on the appeal of Macduff, Earl of Fife, the Scottish king was summoned to appear in London, and though he disobeyed the summons he put in an appearance at the English parliament of 1294. Little by little Scottish feeling against the action of the English king was aroused; in October 1295 Baliol, urged by public feeling in the country, concluded an alliance with Philip of France, and in March of the following year invaded England, laying waste the northern counties, and also sent a document renouncing his allegiance to the English king. Edward at once marched northwards at the head of a large army, and took Berwick, Dunbar, and Edinburgh. On July 10, 1296, Baliol, seeing that further resistance was useless, made his submission at Montrose, renouncing to his liege lord the kingdom of Scotland. Edward ordered his imprisonment in England for a short time, after which he was permitted to retire to France, where he died in 1315.

"Scoti-chronicon"; the "Chronicle" of Walsingham, Hemingburgh, and Rishanger; Sir F. Palgrave, "Documents and Records illustrative of the History of Scotland," Introd., liv, etc.; "Chron. Monast. Sanct. Alban." Rolls Series, vol. iii.

Baliol, The Family of, came from Bailleul-en-Vimeu in Picardy; and acquired considerable estates in the north of England after the Conquest, including the barony of Bywell and Barnard Castle. Its members were found taking an active part on the side of England in all the Border wars.

Ball, John (*d.* 1381), one of the leaders of the Peasants' Revolt (q.v.), is sometimes said to have been one of Wyclif's "Poor Priests." At all events he preached doctrines very similar to those of Wyclif. He had been notorious as a wild fanatic for many years, and was imprisoned by the Archbishop of Canterbury in Maidstone jail, when he was released by the insurgents, to whom he preached a famous sermon on Blackheath full of socialistic doctrine. He took for his text the popular distich—

"When Adam dalf and Eve span,
Who was then a gentleman?"

On the suppression of the revolt he was seized and executed.

Sir C. Oman, "The Great Revolt of 1381," 1906.

Ballads are of great historical importance, for they were the literature of the people, and give indications, which can be obtained nowhere else, of the popular feeling in stirring times. They were numerous in the old English days, and were sung in the thegn's hall and in the churl's cottage. Some specimens, chief of which is the "Song of the Battle of Brunanburh," were so popular that they were embodied in the Anglo-Saxon Chronicle.

After the Conquest, the songs of the people no longer circulated amongst the Norman barons. Not till barons and people were united in the attempt to assert their common liberties did a ballad literature arise which breathes the spirit of all classes. In the reign of John we again find political songs, and in the time of the Barons' War they were numerous. There are French ballads which were sung in the barons' halls, Latin ballads which were current among the educated class, and rude but spirited English ballads which were sung by the people. Chief in importance amongst these is a Latin "Song of the Battle of Lewes" (Wright, "Political Songs," p. 72), which is a remarkable assertion of constitutional principles, and might have been written by a Whig in 1688. The reign of Edward I awakened a national spirit, which found its expression in national and martial songs, accompanied by others which grumble at oppression. In the reign of Edward II the latter kind prevail, while under Edward III the balance is restored by the patriotism kindled by the French war. The number of English songs becomes greater; the French and Latin sink into the background. The end of the reign of Edward III saw the English songs disappear, and the others became less spirited. The national impulse was spent, and the problems of the succeeding period awakened no popular expression. Ballads gradually ceased to have a direct bearing on politics, and were concerned with chivalry and romance. They satisfied the popular desire for adventure, but did not deal with current events. The minstrel became a recognized personage, and was generally said to come from "the north countrie," the land where border-raids still kept alive the adventurous spirit. The ballads of Chevy Chase, Edom o' Gordon, and Adam Bell, all show their northern origin. It is of them that Sir Philip Sidney wrote, "I never heard the old songs that I found not my heart moved more than with a trumpet." During the Reformation period ballads dealt with polemical topics, often in a coarse and irreverent manner. However, the influence of ballads naturally declined before the growth of other forms of literature. The stage and the pamphlet afforded other means of expressing popular opinion. The struggle between the Stuarts and the Parliament did not give rise to much ballad literature. But the unpopularity of James II was sung and whistled all over England in Wharton's "Lillibullero" (q.v.). A vein of very beautiful ballad-poetry was struck in Scotland by the Jacobite risings of the eighteenth century. In Ireland also ballads survive to the present day as a political power. The songs written for the *Nation* newspaper, collected under the name of "The Spirit of the Nation," deserve their popularity by their poetical merits. At the present day there are numerous collections of old ballads, but it is difficult to determine their date, and, in many cases, their genuineness.

Wright, "Political Songs" (Camden Society); "Political Poems" (Rolls Series); Ritson, "Ancient Popular Poetry"; "Scottish Songs"; "English Songs"; Percy, "Reliques of Ancient English Poetry"; Scott, "Minstrelsy of the Scottish Borders."

[M. C.]

Ballard, JOHN, or FORTESCUE (*d.* 1586), a Jesuit priest of Rheims, and the original instigator of the Babington plot (q.v.), landed in England (1585), having previously obtained the sanction of the pope to the queen's murder. He made a tour of the north and west of England, and subsequently reported to Mendoza, who had been ambassador at Elizabeth's court, that the death of the queen was necessary to the success of an insurrection. In 1586 Ballard returned to England, and was in close communication with Babington. On August 4, 1586, he was arrested, and executed at Tyburn in the following month.

Ballinamuck, SURRENDER OF THE FRENCH AT (September 8, 1798). The French force under General Humbert, which had landed at Killala and routed the troops sent against them at Castlebar, found their way to Longford barred by a large force under Lord Cornwallis, while General Lake with fresh troops was close behind, so that Humbert had no alternative but to surrender. Eight hundred French and 1,500 Irish surrendered. Many of the latter were at once hanged.

P. F. Kavanagh, "The Rebellion of 1798," 1913.

Ballot, VOTE BY. The ballot is properly a mode of voting in which little balls are used, but it is employed to signify any kind of secret voting. The vote by ballot for members of parliament appears to have been first proposed in the reign of William III. In 1710 a bill authorizing vote by ballot passed the Commons, but was rejected by the Lords. During the agitation for parliamentary reform, which resulted in the Reform Bill of 1832, it was not lost sight of as a remedy for bribery; and some disappointment was felt, on the introduction of the Reform Bill by Lord John Russell, that provisions for secret voting were not contained in it. It was replied that the reason why a ballot clause was not introduced into the bill was because it was desirable that the two questions should be kept distinct. When it was found that the ministry did not intend to follow the Reform Act by a Ballot Act, the matter was taken up by independent members of the Liberal party. George Grote made his first motion in favour of the ballot on April 25, 1835. He repeated it every year till 1839, on which occasion the ayes were 216, the noes 333. Grote's place in moving the adoption of the ballot was taken by Henry Berkeley, who in 1851 carried his motion in spite of the opposition of Lord John Russell and the government by a majority of fifty-one. It was, however, rejected on several subsequent occasions.

Vote by ballot was one of the points of the People's Charter, and perhaps the one to which the greatest importance was attached. It was advocated on the ground of its being the only efficient safeguard against bribery and intimidation; it was opposed on the ground of the safeguard being itself founded on falsehoods, and the probability of a man promising to vote in one way and voting in another. The revelations made before a select committee of the House of Commons convinced many statesmen, Gladstone among others, that the step could not be long delayed. This committee reported, in 1869, that the ballot presented many advantages—that it would put an end to some of the evils in our electoral system, and that it would tend to mitigate rather than to aggravate those which it would not entirely remove. In 1871 the matter was referred to in the queen's speech, and a bill was introduced by W. E. Forster (q.v.), providing for vote by ballot in all parliamentary and municipal elections, except parliamentary elections for universities. It passed the Commons, but was rejected by the Lords on the ground that it was brought before them too late in the session. In 1872 it again passed the Commons, but an amendment was introduced in the Lords making secret voting optional. This the House of Commons would not accept, and after a struggle the Lords yielded the point. With the establishment of secret voting, public nominations of the candidates, which had frequently been occasions of serious disorder and rioting, were abolished.

[Vote by ballot has since been extended to School Board elections, elections of Guardians of the Poor, and County Council, District Council, and Parish Council elections, and to amendments of the Workmen's Compensation Act of 1906. The act of 1872 was made permanent in 1918 by the Representation of the People Act.]

"Reports of Select Committee of House of Commons on Parliamentary and Municipal Elections, 1869 and 1870"; M'Carthy, "History of Our Own Times," iv, 206. [O. B.]

Ballymore Hill, The Battle of (June 4, 1798), was fought during the Irish Rebellion between Colonel Walpole and Father John Murphy (q.v.). The former, marching carelessly towards Enniscorthy with some 500 royal troops, was surprised in a defile by a body of insurgents under Father Murphy. Colonel Walpole fell with a considerable portion of his force, and his guns were captured.

P. F. Kavanagh, "The Rebellion of 1798," 1913.

Balmerino, Arthur Elphinstone, 6th Baron. (1688–1746). [Elphinstone.]

Balnaves, Henry, of Halhill (*d.* 1579), was one of the earliest of the Scottish reformers. He was appointed a lord of session in 1538, and sat in parliament in the same year, and supported the act for the translation of the Old and New Testaments. He was one of the commissioners in May 1543 appointed to treat of the marriage between Edward VI and Mary Stuart. In 1547 he was taken prisoner by the French force sent to assist the queen regent, and conveyed to France in company with Knox. Recalled in 1556, he was in 1563 reappointed a lord of session. He was on the commission appointed to revise the Book of Discipline, and one of those who accompanied Moray on his mission to England in connexion with the murder of Darnley.

Biographies of John Knox.

Baltic, Battle of the. [Copenhagen.]

Baltic Expedition, The (1854–5), occurred during the war with Russia. On March 11, 1854, a strong squadron, consisting of eight screw line-of-battle ships, and eight frigates and paddle-wheel steamers, sailed for the Baltic under the command of Sir Charles Napier. Previous to the departure of the fleet a banquet was given to the admiral at the Reform Club, where speeches calculated to increase the war feeling in the country were made by Palmerston and Sir James Graham, and provoked much animadversion in parliament. In April Sir Charles Napier, strongly reinforced and accompanied by a powerful French fleet, established a blockade of the Gulf of Finland, and captured many Russian prizes. In August Bomarsund was bombarded and taken; but except that a large Russian army had been kept inactive in the Baltic forts, and the Russian fleet had been driven from the sea, nothing further of much importance was done this year. Consequently the government evinced dissatisfaction that more had not been effected, and on the return of Sir Charles in December he was treated with great coldness, and finally deprived of his command. Rear-Admiral Dundas succeeded him in 1855, and in the summer of that year there were eighty-five English war vessels, besides a large French fleet, in the Baltic Sea. The fleet consisted entirely of steamers, and was accompanied by a flotilla of floating batteries, mortar vessels, and gunboats. Some delay occurred in consequence of a collision between one of the squadron and an American emigrant ship. On June 1, however, the allied fleets met in the Baltic and for three days bombarded Sveaborg, with an immense destruction of life and property, but without any appreciable result on the course of the war. The fleets then retired in consequence of unfavourable weather, and returned home, having effected nothing in proportion to the expense which they had involved, and the expectations to which they had given rise.

"Annual Register," 1854–5; biography of Napier, by H. N. Williams, 1917.

Baltimore, George Calvert, 1st Lord (1580–1632). [Calvert.]

Baluchistan is the territory of the Khan of Kalat, situated on the Sind frontier, and lying to the south of Afghanistan, and between that country and the sea. [KALAT.]

Bamburgh, anciently "Bebbanburgh," is mentioned by Bæda, and is said in the Anglo-Saxon Chronicle to have been built by Ida, King of Northumbria, about the year 547, and named in honour of his wife Bebbe. There is a very strongly-situated castle, some portions of which possibly belong to a period before the Norman Conquest. The castle was besieged by Penda of Mercia in 642, unsuccessfully defended by de Mowbray against William Rufus, and played an important part in the civil wars of the fifteenth century. In 1720 it passed into the possession of Nathaniel, Lord Crew, Bishop of Durham, who turned it into an institution for various charitable purposes, and fitted up apartments for shipwrecked seamen, a library, schools for poor children, an infirmary, etc.

"Short History of Bamborough Castle" (published at Bamburgh), 1906.

Banbury, judging from the number of Roman remains which have been discovered there, was probably a place of importance before the English conquest. It appears in Domesday Book as Banesberie. In the reign of Henry I a great castle was erected by Alexander, Bishop of Lincoln. In 1469 a battle was fought near the town by the troops of Edward IV, under the Earl of Pembroke, and a strong body of northern insurgents, in which Pembroke (weakened by the desertion of Lord Stafford) was defeated, and subsequently beheaded. [EDGCOTT.] In the Civil War the inhabitants of Banbury were specially zealous for the Commonwealth. After the battle of Edgehill the town was taken by the king, and stood a desperate siege in 1644, for fourteen weeks, when the garrison were reduced to the last extremity before they were relieved by the Earl of Northampton. It was again besieged by Whalley in 1646, but held out till the king had surrendered to the Scots army. The castle was subsequently destroyed by order of the Parliament.

Sir A. Beesley, "History of Banbury," 1841.

Bancroft, RICHARD (1544–1610), was Archbishop of Canterbury from 1604 to 1610. He was born in Lancashire in 1544, and was educated at Cambridge University. He became treasurer of St. Paul's (1585), Canon of Canterbury (1594), and Bishop of London (1597). He had already made himself very popular by his denunciations of the Puritans, and Archbishop Whitgift entrusted the sole management of Church affairs to him. Three years later he was employed on an embassy to Denmark. He took an active part in the Hampton Court Conference (q.v.) in 1604. Later in the year he succeeded Whitgift as Archbishop of Canterbury, and at once proceeded to compel the clergy to subscribe the articles imposed in the new book of canons which he had compiled, the result being that some three hundred of the Puritan clergy were ejected from their livings. At the same time he was engaged in superintending the present translation of the Bible. In the following year he presented to the king a series of articles of complaint against the judges, who, acting on the advice of Coke, had issued prohibitions in the ecclesiastical courts in order to stop the cases before them; but the judges declared that they would submit to an act of parliament, and to that only. He renewed his appeal in 1608, but James, who was inclined to support him, after a violent altercation with Coke, thought it best to reserve his conclusion. The same result happened in the following year, when, urged on by the prayers of the ecclesiastical lawyers, he brought forward his complaint a third time. Bancroft is said to have used his influence to soften the rigour with which parliament was inclined to treat the papists after the discovery of the Gunpowder Plot; but he could not prevent the passing of a Bill of Pains and Penalties. In 1608 he was made chancellor of the University of Oxford, and just before his death took great interest in James's scheme for an episcopal church in Scotland. Archbishop Bancroft was a remarkably sincere though perhaps a narrow-minded man, never deliberately cruel; but a firm believer in the divine origin of the episcopacy. [L. C. S.]

Banda Islands, in the Indian Archipelago, were taken from the Dutch in 1796, but restored in 1801. They were retaken in 1811, and again restored in 1816.

Bangorian Controversy. [HOADLY.]

Banished Lords (1583) was the name given to the nobles of the Ruthven party who seized Stirling Castle, but were compelled by Arran and a large royal army to flee across the border. They formed a small community, which they attempted to regulate on strict religious principles at Newcastle. The Scottish government outlawed them, and demanded their surrender; this was, however, refused. In 1585 the banished lords, with the Hamiltons and Maxwells and a strong force, marched to Stirling, captured the king, and procured the reversal of their outlawry and the restitution of their estates.

P. Hume Brown, "History of Scotland," 1911.

Bank Charter Acts. BANK OF ENGLAND, BANK OF IRELAND, etc. [BANKING.]

Bank Holidays Act, THE, was brought in by Sir John Lubbock (afterwards Lord Avebury), and carried in 1871. It declared that Easter Monday, Whit Monday, the first Monday in August, and the day following Christmas Day should be public holidays.

Banking (1) seems to have originated in modern Europe among the Italian money-

lenders, especially those of Florence, of whom the Bardi and Peruzzi, who were ruined by the inability of Edward III to pay his debts, most concern English history. Banking was first practised in England during the reign of Charles II by the goldsmiths of Lombard Street [to whom the city merchants had entrusted their bullion after the seizure by Charles I in 1640 of £130,000 deposited in the Tower of London. Charles II borrowed from the goldsmiths in anticipation of supplies and to finance his Dutch wars;] and it soon became an important trade, when the advantages of cheques over ready-money payments became known, in spite of its dangers as displayed by the frequent bankruptcy of the goldsmiths. Private banks sprang up, such as those of Messrs. Child at Temple Bar, and of Messrs. Hoare in Fleet Street, and the question of a national bank began to be eagerly discussed. [Such a bank was necessary for both commercial and political reasons. The commercial prosperity of the Restoration period needed supplementing by the foundation of an institution which would regulate paper currency and lower the rate of interest; while William III needed loans to carry on his continental wars despite the insufficiency of heavy taxation.]

(2) The Bank of England was projected by a Scotsman, William Paterson (q.v.), who submitted his plan to the government in 1691. It was well received, but was allowed to lie dormant until 1694, when Montague, the ablest financier in William III's ministry, suddenly determined to establish the bank in order to relieve the government of its many difficulties caused by war and misapplied taxation. [The proposal was opposed by the Tories, the landed gentry, and the goldsmiths, who declared the bank would attract to itself all the money in the kingdom and leave none for purposes of trade. But Paterson was successful.] He borrowed £1,200,000 at eight per cent., and formed the subscribers into a company, who treated the loan to government as part of their capital, the interest being secured upon the taxes. [The bank was established by the Tonnage Act of 1694.] By their charter, which was granted for eleven years, from July 27, the government of the bank was entrusted to a governor and twenty-four directors, who were to be elected annually by such members of the company as possessed £500 capital stock. Sir John Hornblow was the first governor. The company was restrained from trading in anything but bullion, bills of exchange, and forfeited pledges, and from lending money to the Crown without the consent of parliament. In spite of the popularity of the Bank of England, the government loan of which was raised in ten days, it had at first to encounter much opposition, and several crises occurred, especially during the year 1696. The goldsmiths, who hated the Bank of England, attempted to destroy it by buying up its paper, and suddenly demanding immediate payment. The directors, however, referred them to the courts of law, and, during the time thus gained, managed to restore their credit by extensive calls on their subscribers. [A second danger appeared in 1696, when the Recoinage Act threatened to involve the bank in grave financial distress.] But the directors were strengthened by the fall of their rival the *Land Bank*, [founded by statute in April 1696,] whose brief popularity had seriously affected their operations during the crisis. This was the idea of two men named John Briscoe and Hugh Chamberlain, who thought that a bank could be formed to lend money on landed security, their doctrine being that every one who had real property ought to have besides paper money to the full value of their property. The scheme was adopted in a modified form by Harley; he promised to advance two millions and a half to government at 7 per cent., the interest being secured upon a new tax on salt. If a quarter of the money was paid in by August 1 the subscribers were to be incorporated under the title of the National Land Bank. William, urged by want of money, grasped at the idea, and headed the list with £500, but [by June] the scheme proved an utter failure. The subscriptions never rose to more than £7,500. Thereupon the government turned in despair to the Bank of England; the subscribers, in full court, resolved to lend it £200,000, and thus began the alliance between the bank and the Whig ministries. In 1709 the bank capital (£2,201,171) was doubled by an important act which also forbade the issue of notes by associations of more than six persons; a law which checked the formation of joint-stock banks. In 1720 came the third great crisis of the bank's existence. The *South Sea Company* (q.v.) then proposed to take over the government debt, consisting of about thirty millions, to its capital, receiving in return interest at 4 per cent.; but such was the anxiety entertained by all public companies to have the government for a creditor that the Bank of England contended against the company for the privilege, but was, fortunately for itself, outbidden. In a few months the bubble burst and the bank stood secure, though it was compelled by government to pay up two millions out of the £3,500,000 which in a weak moment it had promised to lend its tottering enemy. [In 1722 a Reserve Fund was formed.] With the exception of a run on the bank during the Jacobite rebellion of 1745 [when the funds fell to 49 and Black Friday (December 6) produced a panic], which was only averted by payment in sixpences, and a violent attack upon it by the mob during the Gordon Riots of 1780, there is little of especial moment in the history of the Bank of England until 1793, when a violent commercial panic occurred chiefly owing to the reckless use of paper by country banks, some fifty of which failed totally. The *Suspension of Cash Payments* in 1797 was caused chiefly by the drain of bullion due

to the war, subsidies to foreign allies, the exclusive purchase of provisions abroad owing to bad harvests, and the hoarding of coin owing to fear of invasion. A run on the bank set in from all sides, and on February 27, when little over a million remained in its cellars, a proclamation was issued forbidding it to issue cash in payment. This was followed by the Bank Restriction Act (May 3), prohibiting it to pay more than 20s. in cash, or to advance more than £600,000 to government; at the same time the bill of 1777, which prohibited notes for less than £5, was suspended. This measure, by which Bank of England notes became inconvertible, though intended to be temporary, lasted until 1821, during which period the value of paper varied very considerably. [Pitt thereafter pursued a cautious financial policy, preferring heavier taxation to a drain on the bank; but the Restriction Act was prolonged on account of the exchange being unfavourable, and the bank gradually began to issue notes recklessly. After the war the question of resumption grew important as prosperity returned.] The *Resumption of Cash Payments* was proposed by Sir Robert Peel in 1819; the act (1819, c. 49) was to have come into effect in 1823, but its provisions were adopted by the bank two years earlier (May 1, 1821). In 1825 another crisis occurred. During the last six weeks of the year seventy houses failed, and the bank itself was only saved, it is said, by the discovery of a cluster of 700,000 £1 notes. The measures of the government were prompt. By an act of 1826 notes for less than £5 were suppressed, and the law of 1708 repealed, banks with any number of partners being permissible beyond sixty-five miles from London, while the bank in return was allowed to establish branches to be carried on by its agents. *The Bank Charter Act of* 1833, framed on the occasion of the renewal of the charter at the instance of Sir Robert Peel, Lord John Russell, and others, attempted to stop runs on the bank by enacting that notes of the Bank of England were to be made legal tender, whereby the country banks would be enabled to meet a panic with notes instead of gold. A deduction of £120,000 a year was to be made in the sum allowed by government to the bank for the management of the national debt, while in return a quarter of £14,520,000, the sum due, was paid back. The principle that the paper issued and specie kept in hand should bear to each other the ratio of three to one was established, and the bank was compelled to publish a general statement of its condition quarterly. In spite of this remedial measure, bullion was continually lacking in London [as a result of large exportations of gold to buy corn to meet the bad harvests], and in 1839 the Bank of England was in imminent danger of stopping payment; whereupon Sir Robert Peel brought forward the *Bank Charter Act of* 1844. Its object being to regulate the issue of notes, it enacted that the bank should not be allowed to issue more than £14,000,000 in notes, unless a corresponding amount of specie were retained. Further, no new banks established after the measure became law were to issue their own notes, and the old banks were not to increase their issue. [Thus the currency principle—that a reserve should be maintained in order to meet national emergencies, triumphed over the banking principle, which had denounced the imposition of a definite limit on issues.] Sir R. Peel's great act was the last important piece of legislation affecting the Bank of England. [Crises occurred subsequently (*a*) in 1847, as a result of bad harvests and of much speculation in railways, involving the suspension of the Bank Charter Act of 1844 and a government inquiry in 1848; (*b*) in 1857, as a result of a crisis in America due to unbounded speculation in gold and railways; (*c*) in 1867, chiefly as a result of the new mania for forming limited liability companies, and involving the failures of Overend, Gurney & Co. and the suspension of the act of 1844; (*d*) in 1890 (the Baring crisis—q.v.), due to similar causes and involving the collapse of Messrs. Baring. The last of these was averted without the suspension of the Bank Charter Act. Nor was the act suspended in August 1914, when the outbreak of the Great War produced a new crisis. The requisite number of paper notes were issued by the Treasury.]

(3) Joint-Stock Banks were rendered possible by the act of 1826. [Joint-stock companies had previously been prohibited from engaging in banking by the act of 1709.] They increased largely in numbers after 1836. By Sir R. Peel's Bank Charter Act of 1844 they were allowed to accept bills of any amount or date, and could sue or be sued. Banks other than the Bank of England are regulated by the Companies Act of 1908, in substitution for that of 1862. This act provides that no association of more than ten persons can carry on a bank unless registered under the Companies Act; that an unlimited company may convert itself into a limited one; that a bank of issue shall, with certain relaxations, though registered as a limited company, have unlimited liability with respect to its notes; and that accounts must be audited and published once a year. There is also the Banking Companies Act of 1867, which provided for minute registration with regard to the sale or purchase of shares in a joint-stock banking company.

(4) The Bank of Scotland was established by act of the Scottish parliament in July 1695. Its capital was £100,000 sterling, of which about £10,000 was paid up, and it had the exclusive privilege of banking in Scotland for twenty-one years. Its capital was intact from state loans, and it was also temporarily exempt from public burdens. Nevertheless, the great African Company started a banking branch in rivalry, but they soon abandoned it for the more exciting pursuit of trade. The bank began to issue notes

and establish branches in 1696, and in 1704 it issued £1 notes. After the union of England with Scotland it undertook the recoinage, and conducted it with great success. Its capital was increased to £2,000,000 in 1774, and to £2,500,000 in 1804, with power, if necessary, to raise it to £3,000,000. It established an office in London in 1867, the restrictions of English joint-stock banks not affecting Scottish. After the monopoly of the Bank of Scotland expired, many unchartered banks came into being, of which the Royal Bank of Scotland (1728) and the British Linen Company (1746) were the oldest and most successful. The smaller banks were, however, absorbed in the earlier part of the century into about a dozen large banks with constantly increasing branches still in existence. [The Central Bank was absorbed into the Bank of Scotland in 1868, and the Caledonian Banking Company in 1907.] In 1844 the Bank Charter Act allowed the Scottish banks then issuing notes to continue to do so, provided that for every note issued above the average issue of the previous year a corresponding amount of specie should be kept in stock. [The Bank of Scotland Act of 1920 (succeeding those of 1695 and 1873) empowered the bank to open branches abroad. A similar act of the same year was passed for the Royal Bank.]

(5) The Bank of Ireland [for the establishment of which there had been abortive proposals in 1695 and 1720] was established in May 1783 by charter in pursuance of a request from the Irish parliament, with the same constitution and privileges as the Bank of England, and a capital of £600,000, increased to £1,000,000 in 1809, and lent to the government at 4 per cent. It was prohibited from lending money on mortgage, and this restriction was not repealed until 1860. The restrictions on joint-stock banks as to paper issues caused such distress in Ireland, that in 1821 government allowed the Bank of Ireland to increase its capital to £3,000,000, while joint-stock banks were to be established beyond fifty miles from Dublin. [The Provincial Bank of Ireland was established in 1825 in London, with its first branch at Cork. This creation was the "pioneer of Irish banking." By 1885 several other joint-stock banks had been founded. The Bank Act of 1845 removed all restrictions on banks in Dublin and for fifty miles round.]

A. Andréades, "History of the Bank of England," trans. 1909; J. E. T. Rogers, "First Nine Years of the Bank of England," 1887; E. Cannan, "The Paper Pound, 1797–1821," 1919; J. F. Rees, "Short Fiscal and Financial History, 1815–1918," 1921; A. W. Kerr, "History of Banking in Scotland," 4th edn., 1926; M. Dillon, "History and Development of Banking in Ireland," 1889; T. A. Stephens, "Bibliography of the Bank of England," 1909.

[L. C. S.]

Bankruptcy Legislation. In the English statute book almost the first recognition of bankrupts as distinguished from fraudulent debtors is the Act 13 Eliz., c. 7, by which the goods of a trader who failed to meet his obligations were to be sold for the benefit of his creditors. By acts passed in the fourth and tenth years of Queen Anne, bankrupts who had paid a dividend might, with the consent of their creditors, obtain their discharge from the Court of Chancery. Bankruptcy jurisdiction belonged to the Court of Chancery, but by the Act 1 and 2 Will. IV, c. 56, proposed and carried by Lord Brougham, a special Court of Bankruptcy was established. It provided that six commissioners and four judges should be appointed to try all cases of bankruptcy. The commissioners could adjudicate only in cases where there was no dispute; if the matter was disputed it was to be referred to a judge. By an act of 1849 fraudulent bankrupts were rendered more certainly liable to punishment, and composition by arrangement made possible. In 1861 the provisions of the Bankruptcy Acts were extended to others besides traders. The most important of the numerous Bankruptcy Acts of the nineteenth century is that of 1869, which remodelled the court, and made important changes in the law. The commissioners were abolished, and there were to be a chief judge (usually a vice-chancellor) and a number of registrars. The County Courts were constituted local bankruptcy courts with an appeal to the chief judge. The property was to be placed in the hands of trustees appointed by the creditors instead of official assignees, and there were provisions by which the bankrupt could not obtain his discharge, except with the consent of a majority of the creditors, unless he had paid ten shillings in the pound. The act also provided for "liquidation by arrangement," with the consent of the creditors; and repealed or consolidated all former enactments on the subject of bankruptcy. In 1883 a new Bankruptcy Act was carried by Joseph Chamberlain. It enacted severe punishments against fraudulent bankrupts, and abolished the system of trustees, substituting for them a staff of official receivers appointed by the board of trade. In *Scotland* bankruptcy was placed on a legal footing by the act of 1696. There is no separate Bankruptcy Court, but by 7 Will. IV, c. 56, the sheriffs have jurisdiction as well as the Court of Session. In *Ireland*, by an act of the year 1872, the law of bankruptcy was assimilated to that of England. [Debt.] [The law of bankruptcy, after further modifications made in 1883, 1890, and 1913, is now mostly contained in the Bankruptcy Act of 1914.]

E. Manson, "Short View of the Law of Bankruptcy," 1916.

Banneret, or Knight-Banneret, was a degree of knighthood superior to that of knight bachelor. A banneret was originally a knight who was able to bring a company of

vassals into the field under his own banner. Bannerets were privileged to carry the square banner instead of the pointed pennon borne by other knights. The distinction was subsequently awarded for special bravery on the battle-field, and the ceremony of cutting off the corner of the pennon so as to make it a banner was performed by the king in person standing beneath his own royal banner. Bannerets ranked before all other knights except those of the Garter. The dignity was altogether personal, and was never hereditary. It has sometimes been regarded, but erroneously, as a rank of peerage inferior to a barony. It conferred no right to sit in parliament. The order gradually died out, and in modern times has become extinct; but a knight-banneret was created by George III as late as 1797.

The name is, of course, derived from banner; but it was sometimes supposed to be a derivative or diminutive of baron, and the Latin form *baronetus* occasionally occurs.

Bannockburn, The Battle of (June 24, 1314), one of the greatest defeats the English ever suffered, was fought near Stirling, on the attempt of Edward II to relieve the castle of Stirling, which was being besieged by Robert Bruce. The Scots were far outnumbered by the English troops, who, including a large body of Welsh and Irish auxiliaries, may have numbered nearly 100,000 men. Bruce, however, gained the victory in great part by having previously dug holes in the ground so as to impede the magnificent cavalry of the enemy, and by massing his foot into solid squares and circles—a system of receiving cavalry hitherto unpractised, except at the battles of Falkirk and Courtrai, where it had been signally successful. The belief on the part of the English that the camp followers of the Scots army formed part of a reserve completed their discomfiture; the rout was thorough, and an immense booty fell into the victors' hands. The Scots generals, in addition to Bruce, who slew in single combat Henry de Bohun, one of the bravest of the English knights, were Randolph, the king's nephew, Edward Bruce, Walter Stewart, and James Douglas; the English were led by Edward II in person, and the Earls of Pembroke and Gloucester. Edward narrowly escaped being taken prisoner, and had to ride at full speed to Linlithgow, hotly pursued by Douglas; his privy seal fell into the hands of the victors. The result of the battle was a futile meeting of Scots and English commissioners with a view to bringing about a better understanding between the two countries.

W. M. Mackenzie, "Battle of Bannockburn," 1913; J. E. Morris, "Bannockburn," 1914.

Bantam, in Java, was the site of an English settlement from 1603 to 1683, in which year the English were expelled by the Dutch. The place was again in the possession of the British from 1811 to 1814.

Bantry Bay is a deep inlet on the west of the county of Cork. Here, on May 1, 1689, Château-Renault anchored with a French fleet and put on shore a quantity of stores. Admiral Herbert followed him; but an engagement, claimed as a victory by both parties, was all that took place. In December 1796 a large French fleet of seven sail of the line, three frigates, and seventeen transports, sent to aid an Irish rising, anchored here for a week. They did not immediately land their men, owing to the absence of General Hoche, their commander, who had got separated from the squadron; and subsequently a storm arose and drove them back to France. In 1801 the fleet under Admiral Mitchell mutinied here. Twenty-two of the ringleaders in the mutiny were condemned to death at Portsmouth in January 1802, but only eleven were executed.

Baptists are those Christians who hold that believers alone should be baptized. Their modern history begins with 1609, when Englishmen in Holland united into a Church whose only other peculiarity was to insist, in opposition to Calvin, that God intended all men for life, none for death. These "General" Baptists had twice to shed groups who tended to Unitarianism, but they were reinforced in 1770 by a New Connexion. Finding in 1891 that their views were no longer exceptional, they dissolved their separate organization, and leavened the Baptist Union. The much larger body of "Particular" or Calvinistic Baptists took shape about 1633, developed a network of associations in England within twenty years, formed the first Protestant Missionary Society in 1792, and the Baptist Union in 1813. Between 1830 and 1860 the high doctrines of Calvin, and a refusal to commune with members of other bodies, isolated the "Strict and Particular" Baptists. The great majority have discarded all adjectives, have drawn closely together, and have subscribed large funds for work at home and abroad.

Baptists arose last century independently in Sweden, Denmark, Germany, and Russia, and have spread into every country of Europe. Emigration has distributed them throughout America and the British empire. Missions have planted native churches, chiefly in China, India, Africa, and South America. All are linked since 1905 in the Baptist World Alliance, which reckons about ten million members, besides adherents, thus forming the largest Protestant communion in the world. Meetings of this body have been held in London, Berlin, Stockholm, Philadelphia, Toronto. The conviction that membership in the Church is open only to those who make personal profession of their allegiance to Christ, renders it impossible for Baptists to merge with other bodies; but they often join in local and national movements, and have replied to the Lambeth Appeal that they are ready to explore the possibilities

of federation. They often issue Confessions of Faith, and are extremely averse to erecting these into tests for the future, while those of the past receive scant attention. For their cardinal tenet is that each soul is competent in religion under God.

Mullins, "Axioms of Religion"; Wheeler Robinson, "Baptist Principles"; Vedder, "Short History of the Baptists"; Whitley, "History of British Baptists."

Barataria was the title of some letters written in the Dublin journals by Henry Flood (q.v.) and his followers in 1770. Barataria was Ireland, and Townshend was Sancho; the members of his council were the officers of Sancho's household. These letters created much sensation on account of their wit and boldness.

J. A. Froude, "English in Ireland," 1872–4.

Barbados, one of the Windward Islands, was visited by the Portuguese in 1518, claimed by Leigh in 1605 and first colonized by Warner and Courten in 1625. The title to the island was very complicated. Warner's commission (1625), with Carlisle as patron, was followed by the royal grant of Carliola to the patron, who passed on his rights to Marlborough. Courten's patron was Ley, who had received a patent from King James. Montgomery claimed the island in 1628 also by a royal grant, which was disallowed in 1629 in favour of Carlisle, who became sole proprietor. In 1647 Marlborough transferred his rights to Willoughby of Parham, who fortified the island for the king, resisted the Embargo Act of 1650 and the Navigation Act of 1651, but submitted to the Parliamentary admiral, Ayscue, by the articles of surrender, 1652, which recognized as constitutional the representative institutions granted in 1641 by Governor Bell. Proprietary government was abolished in 1663, and the revenue from a 4½ per cent. export duty divided among the rival claimants, Willoughby and Marlborough, while Carlisle's heir was to receive a fixed revenue when the latter's claim had been satisfied. Under the Crown Barbados in 1671 became the centre of the Windward Island governmental group. Slave insurrections were crushed in 1675, 1692, and 1816. American privateers in the war of 1812 destroyed trade. The slaves were emancipated in 1834 to become apprentices until that system was abolished in 1838. In 1876 local independence was vindicated by riots against the incorporation of Barbados in the proposed federation of the Windward Islands and in 1885 Barbados was made a separate colony, now administered by a governor, who is also governor-in-chief of the Windward Islands, assisted by an executive council and committee and by a legislature of a nominated council of nine (only two being officials) and an elected House of Assembly of twenty-four. [WINDWARD ISLANDS.]

R. Ligon, "History of Barbados," 1657; Sir R. Schomburgk, "History of Barbados," 1848; J. A. Williamson, "The Caribbee Islands Under the Proprietary Patents," 1926; Sir C. P. Lucas, "Historical Geography of the British Colonies," vol. ii, 1890 (and 1905 revised by C. Atchley); N. Darnell Davis, "Pages from the Early History of Barbadoes, 1627–59," 1909; and "Cavaliers and Roundheads of Barbadoes," 1887; E. Sinckler, "Barbadoes Handbook." [H. R.]

Barbour, JOHN (*d.* 1395), was the author of the great national Scottish epic "The Bruce." Of his life little is known. He was born probably about the year 1316; studied at Oxford, and became archdeacon of Aberdeen, clerk of the king's household, and one of the auditors of the exchequer in Scotland. "The Bruce" extends from the death of Alexander III to the death of King Robert. It is a noble epic, full of spirit and vigour and true chivalrous feeling; and is, moreover, highly interesting historically, as being almost the only Scottish authority for this period. Barbour also wrote a book of "Legends of the Saints" and "The Brute," dealing with the story of Brutus.

The earliest edition of "The Bruce" was printed at Edinburgh in 1570. The poem has been carefully edited by Innes for the Spalding Club (1856), and by Skeat for the Early English Text Society (1875).

Barbuda, a dependency of Antigua (q.v.), unsuccessfully settled by Carlisle from St. Kitts in 1628, was colonized from Antigua in 1660–1, formed part of the Caribbees until it was joined to the Leeward Islands (q.v.) in 1671 and became the property of the Codrington family soon after. It is now leased to a private firm.

Barcelona, the chief town of Catalonia, played an important part in the War of the Spanish Succession. In 1704 an unsuccessful attempt was made upon it by Sir George Rooke, who landed the Prince of Darmstadt with some marines, relying upon co-operation within the city. In 1705 the allies, under the Prince of Darmstadt and the Earl of Peterborough, appeared before the town. The fortifications were ancient, but they had been repaired and strengthened. The besieging force was weak and the Spanish auxiliaries showed little disposition or capacity for regular siege operations. After a fortnight the troops prepared to embark; but Peterborough surprised the garrison and captured the fortress. The castle of Barcelona soon surrendered and in October the town capitulated. The Archduke Charles was besieged in Barcelona in 1706, by a fleet under the Count of Toulouse, and an army under Marshal Tessé. Sir John Leake came to the relief of the town, but hesitated to attack the French fleet till Peterborough arrived on board his ship with instructions to supersede him. The French army retired, and the fleet followed its example. After the Peace of Utrecht the place was captured by the Duke of Berwick in 1714. In the Peninsular War Barcelona was occupied by the French in February 1808. In March 1809 an attempt on it was made by Lord Collingwood, in conjunction with the Catalan

levies and Somatenes; but the French continued to hold it till the end of the war.

H. M. A. Parnell, "War of the Spanish Succession," 1905.

Barclay, William (1546 or 1547–1608), a Scotsman by birth, after serving many years in France came to England in 1603, and was well received by James I. He had quarrelled with the Jesuits, and, though still remaining a Roman Catholic, was strongly opposed to the temporal power of the pope. He had also written a work in favour of extreme views of royal authority, which recommended him to James I. His Catholicism, however, prevented his preferment, and in 1604 he returned to France, where he became professor of civil law and dean of the faculty of law at Angers. His controversy with Bellarmine respecting the papal power earned him considerable fame, and his views as to the limits of the pope's authority were adopted by a large number of English Catholics.

Barclay's chief works are "De Regno et Regali Potestate Adversus Buchananum," etc., Paris, 1600, and "De Potestate Papæ," London, 1609.

Bardolf, Thomas, 5th Baron (1368–1408), was one of the nobles who joined Henry of Lancaster in 1399, but he subsequently espoused the cause of the Percys, and joined in the plot to put the Earl of March on the throne. He fled to Scotland in 1405, and in 1408 took up arms in Yorkshire against the king, and was mortally wounded at Bramham Moor. To him is ascribed the famous tripartite treaty dividing England and Wales between Owen Glendower, Sir Edmund Mortimer, and the Earl of Northumberland.

Biographies of Henry IV.

Bards. [Druids.]

Barebones' Parliament (July 4 to December 12, 1653) was the nickname given to the assembly summoned by Cromwell and the council of officers after the expulsion of the Rump. It derived its name from a certain Praise-God Barbon, or Barebones, a leather-seller of Fleet Street, who took a somewhat prominent part as member of this assembly. It consisted of 139 persons summoned as representatives—122 for England (including seven for London), six for Wales, five for Scotland, and six for Ireland—who were chosen by Cromwell and his officers from lists of persons "faithful, fearing God, and hating covetousness," furnished to them by the various churches. Amongst them were Blake, Montague, Monck, Ashley Cooper, and other men of position and influence. They began by electing Cromwell and four other officers to be members of their body. They set to work to reform the administration of the law, relaxed imprisonment for debt, passed a Civil Marriage Act, commenced the codification of the law, and began the process of abolishing the Court of Chancery. They decided to abolish the power of patrons to present to benefices, and the institution of tithes. These resolutions, especially the latter, would have rendered the existence of a State Church impossible, and Cromwell and the country at large were not prepared to go so far. A sudden stroke solved the difficulty. On December 12 Sydenham, one of the members, having mustered his friends before many of the other party had arrived, suddenly proposed, with the concurrence of the Speaker, that the parliament (which he described as useless and injurious to the Commonwealth) should resign its power into the hands of Cromwell. This motion was at once carried, and those who dissented were expelled by a company of soldiers under Colonel Goffe and Major White. The "sober men" of that meeting, as Cromwell called them, resigned their power into his hands. He accused the other party of an intention "to set up the judicial law of Moses," and to abolish all magistracy and ministry as anti-christian. Some historians, objecting to the somewhat ludicrous title of Barebones' Parliament, have called this assembly "The Little Parliament," while others prefer to style it "The Assembly of Nominees."

Whitelocke's "Memorials," 4 vols. (Oxford, 1853); C. H. Firth, "Cromwell," 1890; H. A. Glass, "Barebones' Parliament," 1899.

Barillon, French ambassador in England (1677–88), was employed by Louis XIV to keep Charles II and James II in dependence upon France, or, at any rate, inactive in European politics. With this object he fomented the quarrel between the court and the country party, writing to his master in 1687, "It may be held as an indubitable maxim that agreement between the King of England and his Parliament is not for the interest of your Majesty." When early in 1688 the national opposition seemed likely to endanger James's position, it was Barillon who advised the bringing over of Irish troops. Yet he allowed himself to be duped by Sunderland's assurances; and it was for this reason that, after he had been obliged to leave England by William, he was not appointed to attend James in Ireland.

Extracts from Barillon's reports are translated in Dalrymple, "Memoirs of Great Britain," and are given in Fox, "History of James II," appendix.

Baring, Evelyn, 1st Earl Cromer (1841–1917), began life as an officer in the Royal Artillery. In 1872 he accompanied Lord Northbrook to India as his private secretary. In 1876 he left India with the rank of major, being made British commissioner of the Egyptian public debt office. When the Khedive Ismail abdicated, he was promoted to be British controller-general. From 1880 to 1883 he was financial member of the Council of India. He then became British agent and consul-general in Egypt, and took in hand the various questions which called loudly for attention—finance, irrigation, the administra-

tion of justice, education, and other important matters. A substantial result of his reforms and economies was that Egypt was enabled (1896–8) to achieve the reconquest of her lost possessions in the Sudan. He was raised to the peerage as Baron Cromer in 1892, created Viscount Cromer in 1898, and Earl Cromer in 1901. On his retirement from Egypt in 1907 he received a grant of £50,000. His death occurred in 1917 during his work on the commission set up in 1916 to inquire into the Dardanelles expedition. The following year his book "Modern Egypt" appeared.

Baring, Thomas George, 1st Earl of Northbrook (1826–1904), was educated at Christ Church, Oxford. He was successively private secretary to Henry Labouchere at the board of trade, to Sir George Grey at the home office, to Sir Charles Wood at the India board and at the admiralty in 1857, when he was returned to parliament for Penrhyn and Falmouth, which constituency he continued to represent till he became a peer at the death of his father in 1866. He was a lord of the admiralty from May 1857 to February 1858; under-secretary of state for India from June 1859 to January 1861; under-secretary for war from the latter date till June 1866. On the accession of Gladstone to power in 1868 he was again appointed under-secretary for war; and was governor-general of India from February 1872 until 1876. In Gladstone's second ministry (1880) he was first lord of the admiralty, and in July 1884 was appointed high commissioner in Egypt. His official career ended on the fall of Gladstone in 1885.

Biography by Sir B. Mallet, 1908.

Baring Crisis (November 1890). The rapid growth of Argentina had encouraged excessive investment of British capital in the country, mainly through Messrs. Baring Brothers and Co., the leading financial firm in England. A revolution in Argentina (July 1890) gave a shock to public confidence, and a little later there was a panic in the United States. The result was a general fall in the price of securities and a rise in the bank rate to 6 per cent. (September 19). In November Messrs. Baring, who were further injured by the American crisis, found themselves compelled to obtain assistance from the Bank of England. The bank agreed, in conjunction with the leading banks and financial houses, to subscribe a guarantee fund, enabling Messrs. Baring to meet their engagements, for a period of three years, during which their assets were to be liquidated. The fund soon reached £16,000,000, and eventually the liquidation was satisfactorily effected. A loan of £3,000,000 in gold was also obtained from the Bank of France. The matter was kept secret till November 16, when the arrangement was complete; by this and the promptitude of the Bank of England and its governor (Mr. Lidderdale), and the ready response of the guarantors, a financial disaster was averted which would have been among the most tremendous on record.

Barking Abbey was one of the oldest and richest nunneries in England. It was said to have been founded by St. Erkenwald, Bishop of London, and after being sacked by the Danes in 870 was restored by Edgar. The revenues of the convent were very large, and the abbess had precedence over other abbesses. She was frequently summoned to render service in the armies of Henry III and Edward I, but in point of fact she held in frankalmoin and the tradition that she held by barony is erroneous. The nuns were of the Benedictine order, and after 1200 exercised the right of electing their own abbess. The convent was surrendered to Henry VIII in 1539.

"Victoria County History: Essex," ii; Dugdale, "Monasticon," i.

Barkstead, John (*d.* 1662), a goldsmith in the Strand, served in the City train bands, and subsequently obtained a colonelcy in the Parliamentary army. He took part in the king's trial, and was one of those who signed the death-warrant. Subsequently he became governor of the Tower and steward of the household to the Protector. At the Restoration he fled to the continent, but was betrayed, brought back, and executed at Tyburn.

Barlow, Sir George Hilaro (1762–1847), a civil servant of the Bengal establishment, by meritorious service obtained a seat in the council under Lord Wellesley. On the death of Lord Cornwallis the government of India was temporarily (1805–7) in Sir George Barlow's hands. The result of his determined non-intervention policy was the restoration to Sindhia and Holkar of many of the advantages which England had gained by the Mahratta Wars. He was a great opponent of missionary enterprise in India. In spite of the favour of the directors, Sir George was not appointed governor-general, but was nominated governor of Madras in 1807. His want of tact made him very unpopular in this position. His obstinacy and violence did much to produce the Madras mutiny, but he displayed firmness while it lasted. The result of the mutiny was his recall in 1812.

C. Marsh, "Review of the Administration of Sir George Barlow," 1813.

Barnard, Sir John (1685–1764), was an eminent London merchant who became lord mayor in 1737. He was alderman for Dowgate Ward from 1722 to 1758. He was a vigorous opponent of Sir Robert Walpole, and in 1733 attacked that minister's sinking fund and excise scheme. In 1737 he introduced a bill (which was rejected) to lower the interest of the National Debt by borrowing money at 3 per cent. to redeem the annuities for which a higher rate was being paid. In 1742 he declined to attend the secret committee appointed to inquire into Walpole's administration. He

attempted, but without success, to moderate the outcry raised against Admiral Byng.

"Memoirs of the late Sir J. Barnard," 1776.

Barnard Castle, in Durham, the ancient seat of the Dalzils in England, was occupied by the Royalists under Sir George Bowes during the Northern rebellion of 1569. It was subsequently taken by the rebels under the Earl of Westmorland in the course of the same episode.

"Victoria County History: Durham."

Barnet, The Battle of (1471), was fought between Edward IV and the Earl of Warwick and the Lancastrians. On March 14 Edward landed at Ravenspur and marched towards London, no attempt being made to check him. Having been welcomed by the citizens of London, Edward, learning that Warwick was posted at Barnet, marched out to meet him, and drew up his army on Hadley Green. The fight commenced at five o'clock in the morning of April 14, which that year was Easter Day. The Lancastrian right wing under Lord Oxford was at first victorious, and drove in Edward's left; but a heavy fog occasioned them, on their return from the pursuit, to mistake a part of their own army for the Yorkist force; confusion ensued, of which Edward took advantage to retrieve the fortune of the day. After very severe fighting, in which no quarter was given on either side, the Yorkists were completely victorious, and Warwick and his brother Montagu were slain. It is impossible to give any authentic statement of the numbers or the losses on either side.

Warkworth, "Chronicle," vol. vi, 1883 (Camden Society); "Historie of the Arrival of Edward IV" (Camden Society); Scofield, "Edward IV"; R. B. Mowat, "Wars of the Roses," 1914.

Baroda Commission, The (1875). The Gaekwar, Malhar Rao, was in this year accused of attempting to poison the resident, Colonel Phayre. He was tried by a mixed commission of three British and three natives. The commission failed to come to any satisfactory conclusion, as the British members considered the case proved, while the natives thought the charge had not been substantiated. Lord Northbrook, the governor-general, however, held the former opinion. The Gaekwar was therefore deposed by proclamation of the viceroy, and his brother's widow allowed to adopt an heir.

Biography of Lord Northbrook by Sir B. Mallet, 1908.

Baron. The history of the word "baron" is one of those cases in which a question hotly contested may be virtually settled by strict discrimination of the meaning of a name. The word, which originally meant "man" or "freeman," has now come to mean the simplest grade of the peerage. Between these points it passes through important variations of meaning. The word first occurs in England after the Norman Conquest. When William the Conqueror's "barons" are spoken of, it is quite clear that this means all who held lands directly of him. In this large body of chief tenants—some 1,400 in number, including ecclesiastics—there was naturally from the first a tendency to a practical division between the great lord, who had knights holding under him, and the simple knight who held but his own estate; and the title *baro* came to be reserved to the former. Much controversy has centred around the question whether there was a legal as well as a practical distinction between the baron and the knight—between tenure by barony and simple tenure by knight service. [Madox held that there was such a distinction, and he has been followed by some modern scholars. Notably, Dr. Rachel Reid has endeavoured to establish that the basis of the differentiation between the *baro* and the *miles* was the possession by the former of a "franchise"—i.e., of special rights of jurisdiction corresponding to "la haute justice" as exercised by the barons of Normandy.] However this may be, it is certain that under Henry I the practical distinction had already become accentuated, and it soon came to be the custom that the "baron of the king" should treat for payment of his relief and aids directly with the king, instead of paying through the sheriff; that on the rates becoming fixed his relief should be £100 (later 100 marks), while ordinary chief tenants paid at the rate of 100s. the fee; that he should lead his own tenants to the host, while the others served under the sheriff's banner; that he should be amerced by his equals in the king's court, not by the sheriff; and that he should be summoned *proprio nomine* by a special writ, and not, like the lesser tenants-in-chief, by a general writ to the sheriff for each shire. From the biography of Becket and the "Dialogus de Scaccario" (q.v.), we see that the last distinction was recognized and customary early in Henry II's reign. The barons had, in one sense, a qualification by tenure. They would all be holders of a barony; not (that is) of a definite number of knights' fees as has been sometimes erroneously stated (for some baronies consisted of no more than one or two such), but holders of some group of manors which had at the Conquest been endowed with such a special character, or had since come to be so regarded. In this sense the word is used in the Constitution of Clarendon, and as early as Henry I's charter. Later we get a further distinction drawn within the ranks of this "baronage" itself. The greater came to be distinguished from the lesser *barones*. The former, with the earls, could not well be left unsummoned to council or camp. But outside this inner necessary body the king had a wide circle of holders of baronies out of whom to select those whom he should by his writ call to special attendance in host or in council. And here a further exclusion went on. For throughout the reign of Henry III and Edward I special

summonses to the host were sent to more than 100 barons; while to Edward I's parliaments the number so called was hardly half as great. Even so, many of those who were called were not holders of baronies, but of much smaller estates; many, too, were called only occasionally. Historians have seen here in operation Edward's steady design of "eliminating the doctrine of tenure from the region of government." The reluctance of all but the greatest lords to attend co-operated in this direction; and "Edward I is the creator of the House of Lords almost as truly as of the House of Commons," in the sense that to him, in the first instance, was due the smallness of its numbers, the selection (to a great extent) of its members, and the establishment of the principle that it is constituted by writ of summons, not by tenure. Nor would it be against the desires of the great barons themselves to see the substitution of summons for tenure as the qualification. For mere tenure-in-chief, if accepted, might have flooded the House with the lesser chief tenants, and have brought into it any mere purchaser of a baronial estate. During the same period the "lesser barons" gradually ceased to attend as barons, and merged into the mass of the county freeholders, whom they inspired with their high spirit and traditions of constitutional resistance, and to whom they acted as leaders in shiremoot and in national parliament. Under the policy of Edward I and the operation of his statute *Quia Emptores*, and with the introduction of the new idea—representation for all below baronial rank, whether chief tenants or not—tenure-in-chief lost its constitutional value, and the separation of chief tenants into barons and knights, or nobles and gentry, was finally accomplished. To complete this, it was only required that the right to receive the special summons should be regarded as hereditary. A further limitation in the sense of the word "baron" was effected when the Crown created barons by letters patent, first in 1387; but the instances are very rare till the close of Henry VII's reign. In these patents the right is limited, as a rule, to heirs male, while the older baronies, by writ of summons, could descend through females (so Sir John Oldcastle became Lord Cobham in right of his wife). The mere personal summons, not inheritable, continued under Lancastrian kings, but definitely ceased under the Tudors. The attempt to create a life peerage was disallowed as obsolete in the Wensleydale case, 1856 (q.v.). Since the Earl of Bristol's case in 1626 the receipt of such a writ is an inherited right which cannot be denied. Thus, out of the great mass of "barons" of the Conquest, the leading families were gradually selected (as it were) by the Crown. These families have long since disappeared; the Crown has supplied their place with a body many times as numerous; but this body has now a right with which the Crown can no longer interfere. When the kings of the fourteenth century introduced new grades (duke, marquis, viscount) besides the old baronial body of earls and barons proper, the word "baron" sank to its narrowest meaning—that which it now bears, a peer who sits by no higher title. The bishops, till the Reformation, sat both in their Old English character and in their new character as barons. But Henry VIII's new sees had no baronies attached. The number of abbots who sat had fallen from 100 or more in the thirteenth century to a fixed number of roughly 27 under Edward III. At the Reformation, when the abbots were excluded, the balance of numbers, for the first time, was left with the lay lords.

The political history of the baronage may be briefly summed up in three periods:—(1) The feudal baronage, whose policy was the weakening of the central power, and whose alliances and habits were those of Normans, was nearly eliminated by forfeiture before Magna Carta. The last great baron of this type may be found in Ranulf, Earl of Chester, who died in 1232. The dispersed character of their estates, the vigorous resistance of the Old English spirit, the strong arm of the Norman king, made this feudal class less formidable than it proved on the continent. (2) On its ruins had been rising the new families of the ministers rewarded by Henry I and Henry II, out of which was formed the national baronage, which took the lead in winning the charter, which defeated Henry III's plan of personal government, and which finally secured from Edward I the results of a struggle of a century. Their typical representative is Richard, earl marshal in Henry III's reign. (3) As the great fiefs began to fall in to the Crown, and as the constitutional leadership passed on to the knights, the baronage turns from national aims to dynastic partisanship, family aggrandizement, and the ostentation of chivalry. The people are still only too ready to believe in and to accept them as champions. But they become more and more a narrow class, bound up with one or other of the two royal houses; and they are left alone at last to fight out the Wars of the Roses by the aid of their own retainers, and to be almost exterminated in the struggle. Yet when they were gone, and the Church was powerless in its anti-national Romanism, the nation was helpless at the feet of the new despotism. For England still required its nobles, and in their worst phases they had played a necessary part on the political stage. Even the selfish factiousness of the fourteenth- and fifteenth-century nobility had been obliged to adopt national grievances for its faction cries; the traditions of noble leadership had been found still to have invaluable strength for the purposes of the Hundred Years' War; and for the rest, the nobles, busy with place-hunting and court intrigues, left space for the silent growth of literature, of commerce, and of municipal life.

The great barons may be roughly reckoned at 400 in Domesday, nearly half of whom held estates in two or more counties. The number of lesser barons was rather smaller. By the thirteenth century both classes have decreased in numbers, but the former have increased the average size of their estates. By the end of the next century the baronial body has sunk to something less than 100 families, still holding, however, a vast proportion of the land of England. Soon after, the two representative estates of clergy and the Commons had risen up to share with them the functions of legislation. The baronial body retained separate and independent privileges. They constituted a great part of the standing council, which took upon itself the administration when the king was a minor. They held with the king the supreme judicial power, both original and appellate. They could be judged only by their brother peers. Till nearly the Yorkist period they were called to give counsel and consent for legislation, while the Commons only had the right of petition. For general administration they were called to "treat and give counsel"; the Commons only "to execute and consent." [PEERAGE.]

Selden, "Titles of Honour"; Madox, "Baronia Anglica"; Dugdale, "Baronage of England"; Sir H. Nicolas, "Historic Peerage"; "Lords' Reports on the Dignity of Peer," 1825–6 and 1829, esp. ii, pt. 1; "The Complete Peerage" (1913; new edition in progress); L. O. Pike, "Constitutional History of the House of Lords"; J. H. Round, "Peerage and Pedigree." [A. L. S.]

Baronets were first created by James I in 1611, when, being in want of money for the support of the army in Ulster, he offered the title of baronet to all who would pay into the exchequer £1,095, in three annual payments, being the sum required for the pay of a hundred foot-soldiers for three years. In Ireland baronets were instituted in 1619, and in Scotland by Charles I in 1625, and called of Nova Scotia, because it was originally intended to establish them for the encouragement of the settling of Nova Scotia. The principle of this dignity was to give rank, precedence, and title without privilege. A baronet was to remain a commoner, but his title (unlike that of a knight) was to be hereditary. Since the time of Charles II it has been usual to remit the payment due to the Crown on creation of a baronetcy. It was intended that the number of baronets should be limited to 200, but this number was exceeded even before the death of James I.

Barons' War, THE. The first distinct appeal to arms of this war was made in 1263 by Simon de Montfort, Earl of Leicester. Five years before, the incurable misrule of Henry III had provoked the more public-spirited of his barons to place him under the control of a commission of reform, and then of a council; from this control he had now been for three years struggling to free himself, but with little success. The situation grew daily more distracted; England had two rival governments, the king and the baronial council, each claiming obedience, and forbidding what the other commanded. From time to time efforts had been made to arrange the points in dispute, but in vain. Of these points the principal were: the observance by the king of the Provisions of Oxford (q.v.), the right of holding the royal castles, the power of appointing and removing the state officials and counsellors, and the exclusion of all foreigners from places of trust and profit. Not one of these demands of the barons could Henry be brought loyally to concede. Accordingly, in June 1263, the smothered disgust of the barons burst into open war. But the campaign had barely begun when Henry's astute brother Richard, King of the Romans, interposed and patched up a kind of reconciliation. Some months of troubled peace followed, which both parties spent in diligent search after the means of getting a lasting peace. In December they agreed to submit their quarrel to Louis IX of France (St. Louis); and the chief men of both sides swore solemnly to abide by his decision, whatever it might be. At Amiens, in January 1264, St. Louis heard the case that the king in person and the barons laid before him, and gave judgment. This was in favour of the king on every one of the points specified above, though the "liberties, statutes, and laudable customs of the realm of England that were before the time of the Provisions" were left intact. [AMIENS, MISE OF.] Notwithstanding their oaths, the earl and his party easily found an excuse that satisfied their consciences for refusing to be bound by this decision. War was now entered upon in earnest; and in March the hostile armies were lying within a few miles of each other—the king's at Oxford, the earl's at Brackley. Here a last attempt at a pacification proved fruitless. Then the combatants parted, the king marching to take Northampton and Nottingham, the barons to add the array of the Londoners to their own, and to lay siege to Rochester. This operation brought on the battle that decided the campaign. For the king, alarmed for Rochester, hurried to its relief, and finding the siege raised on his arrival, went on to the reduction of the Cinque Ports. De Montfort cautiously followed, and on reaching Fletching learned that the royal army was but ten miles off, in and around the town and Cluniac priory of Lewes. Thither, on May 14, he led his followers, full of religious enthusiasm and patriotic ardour, along the slopes of the bushless downs, and, almost with sunrise, burst in upon the half-prepared royalists. The fiery onset of Prince Edward routed and made havoc of the earl's left wing, where the Londoners fought, but only rendered the baronial victory more sure. Carried off the field by his fury, Edward left his father and

uncle to be crushed by the right and centre of the attacking force. Next day the two kings, Edward himself, and his cousin Henry, were prisoners in the earl's hands. De Montfort was now master of king and kingdom. He strove hard to effect a settlement; called a parliament of the imperfect type then in use; drew up a new scheme of government; and was diligent in framing measures of reform. At the end of the year he took the step that has made him immortal: he summoned in Henry's name a national assembly that was the first to contain all the elements of a full parliament, duly chosen citizens and burgesses, as well as knights of the shire, barons, abbots, and bishops. This body began its sittings at London in January 1265; and did its best to strengthen the position of its creator. But his position was already undermined. The baronial party had split into sections, one of which, under Gilbert, Earl of Gloucester, openly thwarted Earl Simon's designs, and at last broke away from the old leader altogether. The end came swiftly on. While de Montfort was suppressing disturbances in South Wales, Edward escaped from his guards, gathered round him his father's friends and de Montfort's foes, and by rapid marches secured the line of the Severn. Early in August, however, the slow-moving earl had forced a passage across this barrier, and, with the king still in his possession, had reached Evesham, hoping to meet his son Simon, who was leading the levies of the south and east to join him. With this object, on August 4, 1265, he was starting from Evesham when he was caught by his active opponent, who had shortly before suddenly fallen upon and destroyed the younger Simon's force at Kenilworth. By wise and well-executed dispositions he now enclosed the old warrior on every side; and after a stubborn contest, the great earl and his bravest followers perished, fighting desperately. Yet the war lingered for two years longer. The harshness of the victors, who pronounced the lands of the rebels forfeit, drove the vanquished to despair. The siege of Kenilworth was prolonged till late in 1266; and at Axholme, in Lincolnshire, another obstinate band of outlaws held out stiffly against the assaults of Edward. At length Axholme was taken; and by this time experience had taught its captor moderation. In the *Dictum of Kenilworth* he offered milder terms to the defenders of the castle; and it surrendered at last (December 1266). In the meantime others of the "Disinherited" had seized Ely, and one more siege became necessary. This lasted till the summer of 1267, when Edward forced his way into the place, and thus ended the Barons' War. [Montfort, Simon de.]

W. H. Blaauw, "The Barons' War," 1844; G. W. Prothero, "Life of Simon de Montfort," 1877; O. H. Richardson, "The National Movement in the Reign of Henry III," 1897. [J. R.]

Barrakpur, an important military station in Lower Bengal, fifteen miles from Calcutta, was the place where, during the First Burmese War (q.v.), the 47th Native Regiment, who were ordered for service, presented a memorial (October 1824), setting forth the extreme difficulty of procuring cattle, and begging to be relieved of the burden of providing means of conveyance. The sepoys were informed that they would receive no assistance. On November 1 the 47th broke out into open mutiny. The commander-in-chief ordered up several European regiments and a detachment of horse artillery, by whom the rebels were attacked on their continued refusal to obey. The ringleaders were subsequently tried by court-martial and executed. It was at Barrakpur that the first mutinous demonstrations took place during the Sepoy rebellion of 1857, when the native troops quartered at this place refused to bite the ends of their cartridges.

W. F. P. Laurie, "Our Burmese Wars," 1880; Sir J. Kaye, "Sepoy War," i, 266 sqq.

Barré, Isaac (1726–1802), in 1746 entered the army, and served in Flanders and Canada. In 1759 he was present at the storming of the heights of Abraham. In 1761 Lord Shelburne gave his vacated seat for Chipping Wycombe to Barré. Five days after taking his seat, he made a most violent attack on Pitt. He strongly supported Bute's government in the debates on the Peace of Paris in 1762, and was rewarded for his services by being appointed adjutant-general to the British forces, and soon afterwards governor of Stirling Castle. But on the retirement of Lord Shelburne from the board of trade Barré voted in opposition to the Grenville ministry in reference to the prosecution of Wilkes for libel, and was summarily dismissed from his military appointments and reduced to half-pay in September 1763. He continued strenuously to oppose the ministry in their action with regard to Wilkes and general warrants. He spoke against the Stamp Act. He was a firm supporter of the policy of the Rockingham government, and on Pitt's taking office in 1766 he received a minor appointment. But in October 1768 he retired with Lord Shelburne, on account of differences with the Duke of Grafton, whom he forthwith attacked in parliament. During the long period of Lord North's administration Barré was out of office, and was especially active in advocating the cause of the revolted colonies in America, and the right of Wilkes to his seat. In the second Rockingham administration in 1782 Barré was appointed treasurer of the navy; but while Burke was proposing his economical reforms, and before the contemplated enactments could have come to his knowledge, Barré accepted an enormous pension of £3,200 a year, which, however, he was subsequently induced to resign in return for the clerkship of the Pells.

It has been attempted to identify Barré with the author of the "Letters of Junius" (q.v.); but the assertion rests on no sufficient evidence.

Walpole, "Memoirs of the Reign of George III," 1845; Trevelyan, "Early Years of C. J. Fox," 1908; Britton, "Junius Elucidated," 1848.

Barrier Treaty, The (1715). The project of giving the States-General a "barrier" against France by means of a line of fortresses along the frontier had been raised in the Grand Alliance negotiations of 1701, and again in 1703, but was defeated by the hostility of Austria. In 1709, however, a treaty was concluded between Great Britain and Holland, by which the former bound herself to obtain for the Dutch the right of supplying garrisons for the Flemish fortresses, including Ypres, Menin, Lille, Tournai, Condé, Valenciennes, Charleroi, Namur, Damme, and Dendermonde. The treaty was signed by Townshend on the part of Great Britain, as Marlborough refused to be a party to it. The arrangements were revised and considerably altered, much to the disadvantage of the Dutch, by a second agreement which was come to in 1713, in which the number of barrier fortresses was greatly curtailed. The treaty was, however, not definitely signed till November 15, 1715. The chief provisions were that the Low Countries were guaranteed to the house of Austria, and were not to be alienated on any conditions whatsoever. The Dutch were to garrison Namur, Tournai, Menin, Furnes, Warneton, Ypres, and Knocke; and Dendermonde was to be garrisoned jointly by Dutch and Austrian troops. The Dutch were very dissatisfied at this curtailment in the number of towns ceded to them, and still more so at the commercial stipulations by which Great Britain was put on the same footing with Holland, as regards the commerce of the Belgian towns. But the treaty was altogether a disturbing element in European politics, and an especial source of friction in the relations of Great Britain and Austria. It was one of the causes of the alienation of those countries previous to the beginning of the Seven Years' War. The Barrier Treaty was annulled by the Treaty of Fontainebleau, 1785. [Utrecht, Peace of.]

Barrosa, The Battle of (March 5, 1811), was fought between the British and Spaniards, and the French, during the Peninsular War. General Graham, who had been blockaded through the winter in Cadiz, resolved to rid himself of Victor's besieging force. To effect this purpose he embarked 12,000 men, who landed at Tarifa, in the rear of the French. But Graham gave up the chief command to La Peña, the Spanish general, who systematically neglected his advice. The low ridge of Barrosa was the key both to offensive and defensive movements, and Graham was very anxious to hold it; but La Peña ordered him to march through a thick wood to Bermeja, and left the heights of Barrosa ill-defended. Victor no sooner saw Graham's corps enter the wood than he attacked and took Barrosa, cutting off a Spanish division. Graham at once faced about, and resolved to attack, although the key of the field of battle was already in the enemy's possession. He accordingly dispatched one body of troops to attack Laval, who was on the flank, while Brown and Dilke attacked the heights. Victor was soon in full retreat, and the British, having been twenty-four hours under arms without food, were too exhausted to pursue. In the meantime La Peña looked idly on, so that the remains of the French army were allowed to escape.

A. M. Delavoye, "Life of Lord Lynedoch"; Sir C. Oman, "Peninsular War," 1902–20.

Barrowists, The, who derived their name from one of their leaders, Henry Barrow, a lawyer, were a sect of Separatists in the reign of Queen Elizabeth, closely allied in their doctrines with the Brownists (q.v.). Henry Barrow was examined before the Court of High Commission in 1587, for his "schismatical and seditious opinions," and imprisoned, but continued to issue inflammatory pamphlets urging the abolition of episcopacy; he was found guilty of "writing and publishing sundry seditious books and pamphlets tending to the slander of the queen and government," and was executed at Tyburn, April 6, 1593. The Barrowists shared the aversion of the Brownists to legal ministry; and were deemed still more proper subjects for persecution. They refused to hold any communication with the Church on the grounds: first, that the worship of the English Church was idolatrous; second, that unsanctified persons were admitted into the Church; third, that the preachers of the Church of England had no lawful calling; and fourth, that the government was ungodly. For these views many of them were imprisoned, and in 1593, on the passing of the act making a monthly attendance at church compulsory, a great number of the sect went with the Brownists to Holland, and subsequently found a new home in America.

F. J. Powicke, "Life of Barrow," 1900.

Barton, Andrew (*d.* 1511), was a contemporary of Sir Andrew Wood, and one of Scotland's first great naval commanders. In 1497 he was in command of the escort which accompanied Perkin Warbeck when he left Scotland. In 1511, after doing considerable damage to the English shipping, he was killed in an engagement with two ships that had been expressly fitted out against him, and had fallen in with him in the Downs. His death was one of the grievances which led to the invasion of England by James IV, and the battle of Flodden Field.

Henes and Briner, "Warbeck," 1902.

Barton, Elizabeth (*d.* 1534), better known as the Nun, or Holy Maid, of Kent,

was the servant of Thomas Cobb, of Aldington in Kent. The awe excited by the moral tone of some of her ravings when under the influence of epilepsy suggested to her master and others the possibility of making her a means of fanning the growing discontent against the king. She was accordingly taught to counterfeit a state of trance, and then to give utterance to prophecies respecting matters declared to be revealed to her by the Holy Ghost. As her words were all in support of the clerical party and against the king's recent legislation, she was regarded with great favour by the clergy generally; she corresponded with Queen Katharine and Charles V, and became in a short time a dangerous power in England. When, however, she boldly declared, among other things, that if Henry divorced Katharine, and married again during her lifetime, he should not be a king a month longer, but die a villain's death, it was thought high time to take particular notice of her madness, and by the king's orders she and her more prominent accomplices were arrested. Having confessed their imposture upon examination in the Star Chamber, Elizabeth Barton and her fellow-conspirators were ordered to read their confession on the next Sunday at Paul's Cross, immediately after the sermon. The whole matter of the imposture was then brought formally before the parliament, and Barton and six others were attainted of high treason, and executed April 20, 1534.

Hall, "Chronicle"; Froude, "History of England," ii, 164, etc.; Statute 25 Hen. VIII, c. 12.

"Basilikon Doron" (The Royal Gift) is the title of a work written by King James I some time before 1598, and addressed to his eldest son, Prince Henry. In this work he maintains that the kingly office is ecclesiastical as well as civil, and therefore the king is necessarily head of the Church; and that equality among ministers is inconsistent with monarchy. The tract advocates the establishment of episcopacy, and the banishment of the principal Presbyterian ministers in the country.

"The Political Works of James I," ed. C. H. McIlwain, 1918.

Basing House, the seat of the Marquis of Winchester, was one of the Royalist strongholds in the Civil Wars. Standing as it did a short distance from Basingstoke, it commanded one of the principal roads to the west. It was several times attacked by the Parliamentarian forces without success. Finally, after a long and brilliant defence, it was taken by Cromwell, October 1645, and burnt to the ground. "The jubilant Royalists had given it the name of *Basting* House," on account of the difficulty experienced by their opponents before it.

J. E. Millard, "History of Basingstoke," 1889.

Bass Rock, The Fortress of, in the Firth of Forth, was held by some of its Jacobite prisoners, who overpowered their guard, for James II from 1691 to 1694, when the little garrison, numbering about twenty men, capitulated on honourable terms.

Bassein, The Treaty of (December 31, 1802), was concluded between the British and Baji Rao, the Peshwa. Its stipulations were that a British force should be stationed within the Peshwa's dominions; that districts in the Deccan were to be assigned for their support; that the Peshwa should entertain no Europeans in his service belonging to any nation at war with the British; that he should engage in no hostilities or negotiations without their concurrence, and should refer all his territorial claims to the arbitration of the governor-general. [Baji Rao; Wellesley, Marquis.]

Wellesley, "Dispatches" (1840); biographies of Wellington.

Basset, Sir Philip (*d.* 1271), was a member of the great judicial family which furnished so many judges and ministers to the Angevin kings. In 1233 he joined in the revolt of Richard Marshall, but quickly returned to his allegiance, and was one of Henry's staunchest supporters against the barons. In 1261 he was appointed justiciar of England, seemingly acting at first in conjunction with Hugh le Despenser, and held the office till 1263. He fought most bravely in the battle of Lewes, but was eventually taken prisoner. The king's victory at Evesham released him, but he was not restored to his office, though constantly employed in the royal service till his death.

Bastwick, John (1593–1654), a physician, published in a work entitled "Flagellum Pontificis" (1634) attacks which he declared to be directed solely against the pope and the Roman Catholic clergy, but which were considered by the English bishops to reflect on themselves. For this he was condemned by the High Commission court to fine and imprisonment. While in prison he wrote two other works, "Apologeticus ad Præsules Anglicanos" (1636) and "The New Litany" (1637), in which he accused the bishops of an inclination to popery. For this he was sentenced, in 1637, to a fine of £5,000, the loss of his ears, the pillory, and perpetual imprisonment. In 1640 he was released by the Long Parliament, the proceedings against him were cancelled, and £5,000 was given him in reparation. Clarendon speaks of him as "a half-witted, crack-brained fellow, unknown to either university or the College of Physicians, but one that had spent his time abroad between the schools and the camp, and had gotten a doctorship and Latin."

Basutoland, the north-eastern province of Cape Colony, with which it was incorporated in 1871, was annexed by Great Britain in 1868. It was placed under the government of Cape Colony, and its local affairs were

administered by an agent appointed by the governor at Cape Town and by five magistrates, each presiding over a special district. But the government of the colony found itself constantly in difficulty with the native tribes; negotiations were entered into with the home government, and the country is now under the control of the colonial office, which administers it as a native territory, with a resident commissioner under the high commissioner for South Africa, who legislates for the territory by proclamation. There is a system of tribal justice for native cases and magistrates' courts for cases between Europeans and natives. [South Africa, Union of.]

Batavia, The Capture of (1811), is chiefly interesting as being the conquest of the last surviving French settlement in the East. In the year 1810 the island of Java had come into the possession of France by the incorporation of the kingdom of Holland with the French empire; and the Indian government was bent upon its reduction. In March 1811 10,500 men were sent out under Sir S. Auchmuty (q.v.), and early in August landed about twelve miles to the east of the town of Batavia. The united French and Dutch troops abandoned Batavia, and took up a position in a very strong camp called Fort Cornelius. On August 8 the outposts were driven in, and the advanced works were occupied by the British. At length it was decided to make a desperate attack on the main fort, as the lateness of the season necessitated speedy action. The attack was delivered from three sides at daybreak on the morning of the 26th and was completely successful, at a loss of 872 men killed and wounded. The few troops who escaped from the fort, after resisting for a few days, came in; and with them the whole island was surrendered to the British, to be, however, at the close of the war restored to the Dutch.

W. F. Lord, "Lost Possessions of England," 1896; "Annual Register," 1811.

Bate's Case (1606). The Levant Company, which had been granted by Elizabeth a monopoly of the trade with Turkey and Venice, had allowed non-members to import currants on payment of 5s. 6d. per cwt. Upon the dissolution of the company in 1603, the government continued the imposition. In 1606 a merchant, John Bate, refused to pay, on the ground that the imposition was illegal, and the case was brought before the Court of Exchequer, which gave judgment for the Crown. It was laid down from the bench that the royal power was double—*ordinary*, unchangeable without authority of parliament, and *absolute*, varying according to the king's wisdom; under the absolute power came all matters of commerce, including customs. Relying upon this decision, Cecil published, in 1608, a "Book of Rates" imposing fresh duties on many articles. In 1610 the Commons declared that impositions without consent of parliament were unconstitutional, and petitioned for their removal; their point was not carried, and for the next thirty years the question constantly recurred in the struggle between parliament and the Crown.

S. R. Gardiner, "History of England, 1603–42."

Bath, The Order of the, was established by George I in 1725 to consist of the sovereign, a grand master, and thirty-six knights companions. George has often been represented as reviving an ancient order, founded by Henry IV at his coronation in 1399. Actually no order of knights of the Bath existed before the eighteenth century. The full solemnities for conferring knighthood fell early into desuetude in England, and were at length restricted to such knights as were made at coronations or on similar occasions of state. To this class the particular name of knights of the Bath was applied; those who merely received the accolade in the ordinary course being distinguished as knights of the Sword. It is usually supposed that the first creation of knights of the Bath under that designation was in 1399; and before the order of the Bath was instituted as a capitular body the last creation of them was at the coronation of Charles II. The order as constituted by George I was remodelled by the Prince Regent in 1815, and at present consists of three classes: Knights Grand Cross, or G.C.B.s; Knights Commanders, or K.C.B.s; and Companions, or C.B.s.

J. H. T. Perkins, "The Most Honourable Order of the Bath," 1913.

Bath, William Pulteney, Earl of (1682–1764). [Pulteney.]

Bathurst, Allen, 1st Earl (1684–1775), entered Trinity College, Oxford, in 1699. He was returned for the borough of Cirencester in 1705, and was created a baron in 1712. In 1723, at the attainder of Atterbury, he bitterly taunted the bishops for their animosity against their brother. As a Tory politician, he supported the claim of Bolingbroke to be restored to his seat in the House of Lords. During Walpole's administration he was an active member of the opposition. From 1757 to 1760 he was treasurer to George, Prince of Wales, and in 1772 was created Earl Bathurst. A somewhat acrimonious politician, his speeches were marked by caustic wit and brilliancy of metaphor.

Bathurst, Henry, 2nd Earl (1714–94), the son of Allen, 1st earl, entered parliament for Cirencester in 1735. He was a steady opponent of Sir Robert Walpole, and in 1747 was made attorney-general to the Prince of Wales by the Leicester House party. On the death of the prince, he took steps to conciliate the court, and was rewarded in 1754 by being appointed a judge of the Common Pleas. On the death of Charles Yorke in 1770, he was appointed one of the three commissioners to

hold the great seal. "No one of the three," says Lord Campbell, "had any confidence in himself or in his colleagues. And after the learned trio had gone on for a twelve-month floundering and blundering, the public dissatisfaction was so loud that some change was considered necessary." The change made was the appointment of Lord Bathurst to the woolsack, 1771. Left to himself, he fared better than he had done with his two colleagues, and relied with such modesty on the help of better men that he made few mistakes. In 1778 he resigned the great seal into the hands of Lord Thurlow, and became president of the council, which office he held till Lord North's resignation. His last years he spent in retirement in the country. He has been justly called "one of the weakest, though one of the worthiest of our chancellors."

Bathurst, Henry, 3rd Earl (1762–1834), was the son of the 2nd Earl Bathurst. In 1804 he was appointed master worker of the mint. In 1807 he became president of the board of trade. In 1809 he was secretary of state for foreign affairs, which post he held only from October 11 to December 6. On June 11, 1812, he was appointed colonial secretary, and discharged the duties of the office for nearly sixteen years. In 1828 he was appointed president of the council, a position he retained till the resignation of the Wellington administration in 1830.

Bats, The Parliament of (1426), was the name given to the parliament which assembled in this year when the quarrel between the Duke of Gloucester and Cardinal Beaufort was at its height. It received its name from the bats or bludgeons carried by the partisans of the rival statesmen.

M. R. James, "Henry VI," 1919.

Battle Abbey was founded by William the Conqueror on the site of the battle of Hastings, the high altar standing, it is said, on the very spot where Harold planted his banner. It was not consecrated till 1095. The abbey, which was dedicated to St. Martin, and filled with Benedictine monks from Marmoutier in Touraine, was richly endowed by the Conqueror, and enjoyed many privileges, including that of sanctuary. The abbot was mitred and was a lord of parliament. At the dissolution of the monasteries in Henry VIII's reign, the income of the abbey was estimated at £880 14s. 7¾d. The buildings of the abbey, which are mostly in ruins, and have been partly converted into a dwelling-house, show that the structure must anciently have been of great extent and magnificence. The Roll of Battle Abbey, which was lodged in the keeping of the abbot, contained a list of all those who fought on the Norman side in the battle of Hastings. The catalogue was, however, much tampered with by the monks in later times and is of comparatively little value as an authority. It has been called "that most famous of genealogical frauds." A remnant of the exceptional position of Battle Abbey is to be found in the fact that the incumbent of the parish is still included among the Deans of Peculiars, though he does not appear to have any special duties.

Dugdale, "Monasticon"; "Victoria County History: Sussex," II.

Baxar, The Battle of (October 23, 1764), was fought between the British, commanded by Major Munro, and the army of the Vizir of Oudh. The latter was completely routed, and obliged to abandon his camp, with all its stores and 130 pieces of cannon. This victory was scarcely less important than that of Plassey. It demolished the power of the Vizir Shuja-ud-Dowlah, the only chief of importance in the north, and made the British masters of the valley of the Ganges.

Baxter, Richard (1615–91), a celebrated Nonconformist divine, was in earlier life a clergyman of the Church of England, and in 1640 was presented to the living of Kidderminster. During the Civil War he was chaplain to Whalley's regiment, and in this capacity was present at the sieges of Bridgwater, Exeter, Bristol, and Worcester. He was a very moderate supporter of the Presbyterian church polity, and in temporal matters an adherent of limited monarchy; so that he was a strong opponent of Cromwell during the later years of the Protector's life. At the Restoration Baxter was appointed one of the royal chaplains, and took a leading part in the Savoy conference (q.v.). He was even offered the bishopric of Hereford, which he refused. In 1662, however, on the passing of the Act of Uniformity, Baxter quitted the Church and remained for some years in retirement. In 1672 he settled in London, and lectured at several dissenting places of worship. Subsequently, however, he was much harassed by legal proceedings under the Conventicle Act, and in 1685 was brought before Jeffreys, who, treating him with his usual brutality, sentenced him to eighteen months' imprisonment, and fined him 500 marks. Baxter was an extraordinarily prolific writer of polemics and works on divinity, and is said to have composed over 160 treatises. Some of them, e.g., "The Saints' Everlasting Rest" and "Reasons for the Christian Religion," are still widely popular.

Baxter's "Practical Works," with "Life" by W. Orme, 1830 (23 vols.); Baxter's "Narrative of the Most Memorable Passages of his Life and Times," 1696, ed. J. M. Lloyd Thomas, 1924.

Bayeux Tapestry, The, has been ascribed to Matilda, wife of William the Conqueror, but was more probably executed for Odo, Bishop of Bayeux, as a decoration for his cathedral church. Some authorities have thought it to be the work of English embroiderers, but this is doubtful. It is more likely to have been designed by some artist familiar with the events, and executed by local

workpeople in or around Bayeux. It is a long narrow strip of needlework representing, in a number of pictures worked in woollen thread, the battle of Hastings and the events which led to it. It is twenty inches wide and two hundred and thirty-one feet long; and is divided into seventy-two compartments, with Latin superscriptions indicating the objects represented. The tapestry is an authority of the utmost value for the period with which it deals. It is to be seen at the present day in the library museum at Bayeux.

The Bayeux Tapestry has been reproduced in colour by Stothard, 1818, and in photographs by J. Comte, 4to, 1879. It has also been engraved by the Antiquarian Society, with elucidations by G. C. Bruce, 1855. The character, origin, etc., of the Tapestry are discussed in Freeman, "Norman Conquest," iii, 563 seq.; Fowke, "Bayeux Tapestry," 1898. See also Birrell, "Guide to the Bayeux Tapestry," 1921, and H. Belloc, "The Book of the Bayeux Tapestry," 1914.

Beachy Head, The Battle of (June 30, 1690), fought between the English and Dutch on the one side and the French on the other, terminated in a victory for the latter. Lord Torrington, who commanded the combined English and Dutch fleet, had abandoned the Isle of Wight to the French, under Tourville, and retreated up the Channel, when peremptory orders from the privy council to engage the enemy were sent him. Accordingly, when the enemy were sighted, he bore down upon them, placing the Dutch ships in the van. He had fewer than 60 sail of the line, and the French had 80. But his ships were superior in equipment and crews to those of the enemy. The Dutch, under Evertsen, fought bravely for several hours, receiving very little assistance from the rest of the fleet, and they finally drew off in a shattered condition. Torrington thereupon sought refuge in the Thames. His conduct and motives on this occasion were loudly condemned, and the action was looked upon as a highly disgraceful one for England. The only use Tourville made of his victory was to burn Teignmouth. [Herbert, Arthur, Earl of Torrington.]

Admiral Colomb, "Naval Warfare," 1899.

Beacons, or signal-fires lighted on the coast and in conspicuous positions inland, to give notice of the approach of an enemy or of other danger, have been used from an early period in England. According to Stow, beacons were set up by Edward II when the landing of Mortimer and Queen Isabella was expected. They were regularly used at stated places along the line of the Borders, to give warning of raids of the Scots. Lambarde mentions an ordinance of c. 11 Ed. III, relating to beacons. Inland beacons were erected by the sheriffs at the expense of the county; beacons on the coast were originally under the superintendence of the lord high admiral, and subsequently, by 8 Eliz., c. 13, transferred to the corporation of Trinity House.

Beaconsfield, Benjamin Disraeli, Earl of (1804–81). [Disraeli.]

Beadle, or Bedell (Old Eng. *bydel*, from Anglo-Saxon, *beodan*, to bid), properly means the apparitor of a court who summoned persons to appear in answer to charges brought against them. Bedells seem before the Conquest to have occupied a position on the jurisdictions of the liberties, and lands held in sac and soc, corresponding to that of under-bailiff. The estate of Leominster had, according to Domesday Book, eight *prepositi*, or reeves, and eight *bedelli*. Their privileges were, to have a little land of their own, and to be exempt from manual labour. The *king's bedells* were personages of considerable importance, and are mentioned in the lists of tenants-in-chief in Bedfordshire. After the Conquest the office sank in importance, and the bedells appear as criers in the manor courts, and in Shakespeare's time as petty village functionaries; in the forest courts they made proclamations and executed processes; while rural deans employed bedells to cite clergy to visitations, whence came the present parochial beadles. At Oxford University there is one esquire bedell and there are also three yeomen bedells, attached to the faculties of law, medicine, and arts respectively; they are elected in convocation, and can be forced, if necessary, to resign at the end of the year. Their duty consists chiefly in bearing the maces before the chancellor and vice-chancellor. At Cambridge, where there are three esquire bedells and one yeoman bedell, they are supposed to attend professors as well.

Beaton, David, Cardinal (1494–1546), the son of John Beaton of Balfour, was educated at the University of Paris, where he became intimate with the Duke of Albany, and in 1519 was appointed ambassador from Scotland to the French court. He was employed in various negotiations at Paris and Rome, in which he acquitted himself so well that he was made a cardinal by Paul III in 1538. On the death of his uncle, Archbishop James Beaton (q.v.), in 1539, he succeeded him as archbishop of St. Andrews, in which capacity he showed much zeal in the persecution of the Protestants. Three years later, on the death of James V, he endeavoured to get possession of the infant Queen of Scots, and to obtain the regency by means of a forged will, but failed, and was for a time imprisoned. On his release he became chancellor of Scotland in 1543, and distinguished himself by his zeal in bringing to the stake those Protestants on whom he could lay hands. His cruelty towards the members of the reformed party, together with his French and Italian sympathies, caused the cardinal to be bitterly hated by the reformers. A plot (to which Henry VIII and the English privy council were probably parties) was concocted for his assassination. On May 29, 1546, his castle

of St. Andrews was seized by Norman Leslie, the Master of Rothes, with Kirkaldy of Grange, and others, and he was murdered.

P. Hume Brown, "History of Scotland," 1911.

Beaton, James (*d.* 1539), was made high treasurer of Scotland, 1505; in 1509 he was appointed to the archbishopric of Glasgow, and in 1522 was translated to St. Andrews. He took part in the fray of "Cleanse the Causeway" (1520—q.v.) between the Douglas and Hamilton factions, and subsequently became an object of intense interest to English politicians, who sought to win him over to an English alliance. He is said to have been "very crafty and subtle," and he certainly managed to evade Wolsey's elaborate plans for getting possession of his person. At last, in a rash moment, the archbishop quitted the castle of St. Andrews, and was seized and imprisoned for a short tine. He finally became an ally of England and a great friend of Wolsey. As chancellor of Scotland, he granted Queen Margaret a divorce from her husband, the Earl of Angus, though she found it necessary to obtain a papal dispensation as well.

P. Hume Brown, "History of Scotland," 1911.

Beaton, James (1517–1603), a nephew of Cardinal Beaton, obtained the archbishopric of Glasgow, 1552. He was secretary to Mary, Queen of Scots, in whose behalf he pressed on an alliance with Spain, 1565. In later years he became Mary's ambassador in France, where he unsuccessfully attempted to obtain aid for her.

Biographies of Mary Stuart.

Beatty, David, 1st Earl (*b.* 1871), served in the Sudan from 1896 to 1898, and in China, 1900. For some time he was secretary to Mr. Winston Churchill at the admiralty, and in 1913 he was appointed to the command of a battle-cruiser squadron. In the Great War he served with distinction, raiding the Heligoland Bight (q.v.) in August 1914, and taking a prominent part in the battle of Jutland (q.v.). In December 1916 he took command of the Grand Fleet. In 1919 he became first sea lord (a post which he held until 1927) and was raised to the peerage. He was British delegate at the Washington Conference on limitation of armaments in 1921.

Beauchamp, The Family of, was founded in England at the Norman Conquest by Hugh de Bello Campo. The earldom of Warwick was conveyed to the family by Isabella, sister and heiress of William de Mauduit. She married William de Beauchamp, Lord of Emley (*d.* 1268), the seventh representative of the family from Hugh. Their son William was 1st Earl of Warwick of the Beauchamp line. The present Earl Beauchamp is descended from the second son of William de Beauchamp, lord of Emley, in the female line. The peerage was created in 1815.

Beauchamp, Guy de, Earl of Warwick (*d.* 1315), distinguished himself in the Scottish wars of Edward I. In the next reign he was prominent in opposition to Gaveston, and was one of the ordainers appointed in 1310. In 1312 he seized Gaveston, who had given him mortal insult by nicknaming him "The Black Dog of Arden," as he was being conducted to London by Pembroke, and surrendered him to Lancaster, by whom he was beheaded without trial. Warwick died shortly afterwards—according to one account, by poison.

Beauchamp, Richard de, Earl of Warwick (1382–1439), son of Thomas Beauchamp, Earl of Warwick, fought on the Royalist side in the battle of Shrewsbury (1403), and distinguished himself in the Welsh wars against Owen Glendower. He enjoyed the close confidence of Henry V, by whom he was given high military command in France and entrusted with important diplomatic missions. He was appointed governor of Henry VI during his childhood, and held the office of regent of France from 1437 to 1439. He was famous in an age of chivalry as a brave and chivalrous warrior.

"Pageant of the Birth and Death of Richard Beauchamp, Earl of Warwick," ed. Viscount Dillon and W. H. St. John Hope, 1914.

Beauchamp, Thomas, Earl of Warwick (*d.* 1401), was appointed governor to Richard II during his minority. In 1387 he joined Gloucester, and was one of the lords who appealed de Vere, and the other royal ministers, of treason in the parliament of 1388. With the other lords appellant he retained power until Richard's *coup d'état* of 1389, when he retired to his estates. In 1397 he was accused with Arundel of conspiring with Gloucester against the king. But since he confessed his guilt and made full submission, he was sentenced only to forfeiture and life-long imprisonment and was confined in the Isle of Man. On the deposition of Richard II he was released.

Beaufort, The Family of, was descended from John of Gaunt and Catherine, widow of Sir Hugh Swynford. He married her in 1396, but all their children were born before this marriage. These children were four in number: John, created Earl of Somerset and Marquis of Dorset; Henry, afterwards Bishop of Winchester and cardinal; Thomas, chancellor and Duke of Exeter; and Joan, married to Ralph Neville, Earl of Westmorland. The name of Beaufort which they bore was derived from a castle belonging to the Duke of Lancaster in Anjou. They were all legitimated by a statute passed in 1397, by royal letters patent and a papal decree. The letters patent were confirmed by Henry IV, who, however, introduced a restrictive clause "excepta dignitate regali," which now appears as an interlineation in the patent roll of 20 Richard II. From John Beaufort, Earl of Somerset, was descended Margaret, the mother of Henry VII, and

thus arose the Tudor claim to the throne. [Tudor.] Charles Somerset, the illegitimate son of Henry, 3rd Duke of Somerset, was created Earl of Worcester by Henry VIII. The 5th earl, a distinguished partisan of Charles I, was created Marquis of Worcester in 1642. His grandson, the 3rd marquis, was created Duke of Beaufort in 1682.

Beaufort, Edmund, 2nd Duke of Somerset (*d.* 1455), was the younger son of John, Earl of Somerset, and grandson of John of Gaunt. He fought in the French wars, gaining his first command in 1431. In 1442 he obtained the earldom of Dorset, and was later raised to the rank of marquis. In 1447 he was made lieutenant of France, but acted very feebly in this capacity. Under his rule the whole of Normandy was lost. He returned to England in 1450, and was at once made high constable, and succeeded Suffolk as chief minister and opponent of the Duke of York. In 1452 the Duke of York brought forward a series of charges against Somerset, accusing him of the loss of Normandy, of embezzlement of public money, and other offences. Things seemed on the verge of civil war when a compromise was effected, and for a time the charges against Somerset were dropped. At the end of 1453 the Duke of Norfolk made a fresh attack upon him, and he was arrested and imprisoned. He remained in prison for more than a year, during which the Yorkists were in the ascendant, but in the beginning of 1455 he was released and restored to office. York protested against this, and raised an army, with which he marched towards London; he was met by the royalists at St. Albans, where he was completely victorious, and Somerset was among those who were slain.

M. R. James, "Henry VI," 1919.

Beaufort, Edmund, Duke of Somerset (*d.* 1471), was the son of Edmund Beaufort, 2nd Duke of Somerset, and brother of Henry, the 3rd duke. On the restoration of Henry VI (1470–1) he was restored to the dukedom lost on his brother's attainder in 1464, and commanded the archers at the battle of Barnet. He subsequently fought at Tewkesbury, where he was taken prisoner and beheaded. With him expired the male line of the Beauforts.

R. B. Mowat, "Wars of the Roses," 1914.

Beaufort, Henry, 3rd Duke of Somerset (*d.* 1464), fought in the French wars, and on the Lancastrian side in the Wars of the Roses. After the defeat of Towton (1461) he was attainted, but escaped to Scotland, and was subsequently pardoned by Edward IV. But having once more joined the Lancastrians, he was taken prisoner in the battle of Hexham and beheaded.

Beaufort, Henry, Cardinal (*d.* 1447), was the natural son of John of Gaunt by Catherine Swynford. In 1398 he was made Bishop of Lincoln, and in 1405 translated to Winchester. In 1403 he was appointed chancellor, but resigned the great seal on his appointment to Winchester. During the latter part of Henry IV's reign Beaufort sided with the Prince of Wales, and was accused, apparently not altogether without reason, of urging him to compel his father to abdicate in his favour. On Henry V's accession he once more received the great seal, which he retained till 1417, when he proceeded to Constance to attend the council which was endeavouring to heal the great schism in the Church. Beaufort exerted his influence to induce the council to elect a pope before proceeding with the reformation of the Church. In gratitude for his assistance, the new pope, Martin V, offered him a cardinal's hat, which, however, the king refused to allow him to accept. On the accession of Henry VI, Beaufort was appointed one of the members of the council of regency, and, in 1424, was for the third time invested with the office of chancellor, which he held till 1426. Throughout the whole of Henry VI's minority Beaufort's great aim was to counteract the dangerous influence of Gloucester, whose selfish schemes both at home and abroad threatened the greatest danger to the state. The first great quarrel between the rivals took place in 1425, when riots occurred in London, and things wore such a serious aspect that Bedford had to return from France and effect a reconciliation. In 1426 Beaufort committed the great mistake of his life in accepting the cardinal's hat; it laid him open to suspicion, and caused him to be regarded with distrust by many who had previously sided with him. In 1427 he led a futile crusade against the Hussites in Bohemia, and in 1429 he preached a crusade with the same object in England, got together troops, but took them to the assistance of the English in France instead of to Bohemia. From 1430 to 1434 Beaufort was for the most part abroad, and the next six years of his life were chiefly occupied in labouring for peace with France, Gloucester being the leader of the war party. One result of his efforts was the assembly of the Congress of Arras (q.v.), which, however, failed to effect anything. In 1440 he attempted to accomplish the same object by the release of the Duke of Orleans, who had been a prisoner since the battle of Agincourt, on the understanding that he should do his best to bring about a treaty. This was one of Beaufort's last public acts; he gradually retired from political life, and employed his last years in the affairs of his diocese. In 1444 he had the satisfaction of seeing a truce made between England and France, and thus his policy seemed at last successful. [In point of fact, the marriage of Henry VI to Margaret of Anjou, which was carried out under the terms of the truce, did much to precipitate the outbreak of the Wars of the Roses, and thereby to bring about the

downfall of the Lancastrians.] He died peacefully very shortly after his great rival, Gloucester, and the legends which make him the murderer of the "Good Duke Humphrey," and paint the agonies of his death-bed, are unsubstantiated by the smallest particle of evidence. He had been for many years, certainly since the death of Bedford, the mainstay of the house of Lancaster.

The Chronicles of Monstrelet, Whethamstede, Hardyng, and the Continuator of the Croyland Chronicle; L. B. Radford, "Henry Beaufort," 1908.

[F. S. P.]

Beaufort, Margaret (1443–1509), was the daughter of John Beaufort, Duke of Somerset, and great-granddaughter of John of Gaunt by Catherine Swynford. She was left, on the death of her father, in the guardianship of William de la Pole, Duke of Suffolk, who tried, when she was nine years old, to marry her to his son John. Suffolk, however, was soon afterwards attainted and murdered at sea, and Margaret was married instead, in 1454 or 1455, to Edmund Tudor, Earl of Richmond, eldest son of Sir Owen Tudor, a Welsh knight, by Katherine of France, widow of King Henry V. Her husband died in 1456, before her son Henry, afterwards Henry VII, was born; and she then, in 1459, married Lord Henry Stafford, a younger son of the Duke of Buckingham. In 1482 Margaret was once more a widow, and shortly afterwards she married for the third and last time, her husband being Thomas, Lord Stanley, afterwards Earl of Derby. By the Yorkist princes Margaret Beaufort appears to have been treated with an unusual degree of leniency, considering the prominent position she occupied among the Lancastrians in virtue of her son. Her wealth, which was great, was simply transferred, by Richard III, from her own direction to that of her husband, Lord Stanley, whose control over its disposal appears to have been merely nominal. She was the foundress of Christ's College and St. John's College, Cambridge, and gave many other benefactions to the two universities, and to many religious houses. The Lady Margaret translated into English several French works of devotion, including "The Mirroure of Golde for the Sinfull Soule," which was printed for her by Wynkyn de Worde; and part of the "Imitatio Christi," attributed to John Gerson.

Routh, "Lady Margaret," 1924; Lady M. Domville, "Margaret Beaufort," 1899.

Beaufort, Thomas, Duke of Exeter (*d.* 1427), was the third son of John of Gaunt and Catherine Swynford. He was appointed admiral of the northern and western seas in 1408–9, and in 1410 succeeded Arundel as chancellor. He held the great seal for two years, being the only lay chancellor of the reign; and on his resignation, was created Earl of Dorset. He was one of the commanders in the French wars of Henry V's and Henry VI's reigns, and in 1416 was made Duke of Exeter. He was taken prisoner in the battle of Beaugé in 1421, but was released soon after, and was one of the council during the minority of Henry VI. He married Margaret, daughter of Sir T. Neville, but left no issue.

Sir C. Oman, "England and the Hundred Years' War," 1898.

Beaugé, The Battle of (1421), was fought between the English, under the Duke of Clarence, brother of Henry V, and a combined force of French and Scots, under the dauphin and the Earl of Buchan. The English were completely routed, and Clarence was slain. The effect of this battle in strengthening the dauphin's party in France was very great, and Henry had to undertake another expedition to France to restore the prestige of the English.

Sir C. Oman, "England and the Hundred Years' War," 1898.

Beaulieu Abbey, a famous abbey and sanctuary in Hampshire, was founded by King John for Cistercian monks in 1204. There Anne Neville, widow of the King-maker, took refuge after her husband's defeat and death at Barnet in 1471; and to Beaulieu it was that Perkin Warbeck fled in 1497, after the failure of his attempts to seize the crown.

F. Legeay, "Documents pour servir à l'histoire de l'abbaye," 1888.

Beaumont, The Families of. (1) Robert de Bellomonte, or Beaumont, who was allied paternally to the ducal house of Normandy, inherited the county of Meulan from his mother, and, following the Conqueror into England, obtained there large grants of land in the midlands. It is stated by Ordericus Vitalis that, in reward for the support he gave to Henry I, he received the earldom of Leicester; but evidence is inconclusive. His eldest son Waleran succeeded to the county of Meulan; his second son Robert to the English estates, with the title of Earl of Leicester. On the death of the 3rd earl, Robert, without issue, 1204, the earldom expired. Simon de Montfort, afterwards leader of the crusade against the Albigenses, having married Amicia, eldest sister of the last earl, received a grant of the earldom from John. This connexion with England was, however, purely nominal, and it remained for his youngest son, Simon de Montfort (q.v.), to enter into effective possession of the earldom. (2) Henry de Beaumont (q.v.), grandson of John de Brienne, King of Jerusalem, was summoned to parliament in 1309 as a baron. His descendant, John Beaumont, 6th baron, was created viscount in 1440, being the first of that dignity in England. His son, a partisan of the house of Lancaster, was attainted in 1461, and his estates conferred on Lord Hastings. In 1485 he was restored in blood and honour, but on his death without male heirs the viscounty became extinct. In 1840 the abeyance of the barony was terminated in favour of Miles Stapleton, a descendant of the last viscount's sister.

Beaumont, Henry de (*d.* 1340), son of Louis de Brienne, and grandson of John de Brienne, King of Jerusalem, was employed by Edward I in Scotland, and became one of Edward II's favourite advisers. In 1311 the Ordainers demanded his banishment, but this does not seem to have been carried out, as we find him subsequently enjoying the royal favour. He deserted Edward in 1326, and joined Isabella and Mortimer, who confirmed him in his possessions, and gave him some of the confiscated lands of the Despensers. In right of his wife he claimed the Scottish earldom of Buchan, and participated as one of the "Disinherited" in the attempt to restore Baliol to the Scottish throne (1332).

Biographies of Edward II.

Bec, Compromise of (1106). [Anselm.]

Beckaskog, The Convention of (October 3, 1805), supplementary to the Convention of Helsingborg in the preceding August, concluded between Great Britain and Sweden, in order to enable Sweden to join heartily in the European coalition against Napoleon, consisted in an arrangement as to a subsidy to be supplied by Great Britain. Sweden agreed to employ 12,000 men in Pomerania, for whom Great Britain was to pay at the rate of £12 10s. annually for each man. Pay for five months was to be handed over to Sweden in advance, and £50,000 was to be paid down at once for the purpose of putting Stralsund into an efficient state of defence.

Becket, St. Thomas, Archbishop of Canterbury (1118–70), was the son of Gilbert Becket, a native of Rouen, a merchant, and at one time portreeve of London. His mother was a native of Caen. Thomas was put to school—first at Merton Priory, and then in London. He served for three years as a clerk in the office of Osbern "Eightpence," his kinsman, and there gained a good insight into business. He also served as secretary to Richer de l'Aigle, a knight who had been the friend of his parents. He was introduced into the household of Archbishop Theobald, and took minor orders. As Theobald introduced the teaching of canonical jurisprudence into England, Thomas, who soon became his favourite, devoted himself to that study. He went to Bologna, where Gratian was lecturing, and stayed there a year, and then went to Auxerre. On his return Theobald employed him in some important negotiations. In 1152 he is said to have prevailed on Pope Eugenius to forbid the coronation of Eustace, and thus paved the way for the success of Henry of Anjou. The archbishop richly rewarded Becket's services. He was made rector of St. Mary-le-Strand and of Otford in Kent, and prebendary of St. Paul's and Lincoln; in 1154 archdeacon of Canterbury and provost of Beverley. When Henry succeeded to the throne he made Thomas his chancellor. The early years of the reign must have been full of work for the new chancellor. Thomas was zealous for his master. When Henry exacted a "donum" from the ecclesiastics in 1159 the chancellor approved the arbitrary measure, while his old patron Theobald opposed it. The part which he took in the suit between the Bishop of Chichester and the Abbot of Battle ("Chron. de Bello," pp. 88–104) is sometimes urged as evidence of his scant regard for ecclesiastical pretensions, but the charge is unfair. Becket was only one of the group of judges before whom the case was tried, and his view was shared by Archbishop Theobald and sustained by subsequent popes. Much of the time of the chancellor was taken up with hearing causes, and he visited some counties as an itinerant justice. His style of living was splendid, and many young nobles were educated in his household, among whom was the king's eldest son, Henry. This splendour was remarkably displayed in his embassy to Louis VII, in 1158, to arrange the marriage of the young Henry. In the expedition to Toulouse the next year, he fitted out and maintained a large force at his own expense, and, clad in armour, led his troops in person, and distinguished himself in the field.

In 1161 Henry was anxious to make his chancellor archbishop. Thomas was unwilling to accept the office, and told the king that it would cost him the royal favour. The next year he was elected by the monks of Christ Church and by the suffragan bishops and clergy of Canterbury. He was ordained priest, and the following day received consecration. From that time the life of Thomas was changed. Till then his sympathies and efforts had been wholly for the king; henceforward they were devoted to the Church. The man remained the same—impulsive, vigorous, obstinate, and sensitive. He was not such as would serve two masters, and soon resigned the chancellorship. He made some devoted friends, and already had many enemies. Gilbert Foliot, Bishop of London (q.v.), a strict ecclesiastic, disliked the appointment of one who had led so secular a life, and this feeling was probably shared by many. In reclaiming the property of his see, Thomas made other enemies, and seems to have acted with impolitic violence. In 1163 he attended the Council of Tours, and came back filled with thoughts of the power of the Church. He soon increased the feeling of distrust awakened in the king's mind by the resignation of the chancellorship, for he excommunicated one of the tenants of the Crown, contrary to the rule laid down by the Conqueror. He also opposed a change which the king wished to make in the method of payment of "sheriff's aid," and high words passed between the king and the archbishop. The same year (1163), in a council at Westminster, Henry raised the fateful question of the trial and punishment of criminous clerks. He complained of the exactions of the ecclesiastical courts, and of the

inadequacy of the sentences imposed upon clergy guilty of serious offences; and demanded that the bishops should promise to observe the "customs of his grandfather" in the matter of ecclesiastical privilege. By the advice of the archbishop they answered that they would do so "saving their order." This answer enraged the king, and Thomas was called upon to surrender the honours of Eye and Berkhampstead, of which he had had the custody. In January 1164, at a council at Clarendon, the famous Constitutions (q.v.) were brought forward which purported to be declaratory of the ancient customs of the kingdom. These Constitutions, by their settlement of the election and status of bishops, their restriction of the right of free appeal to Rome, and by other provisions, severely limited clerical immunities; but the most important clause was that relating to the trial of criminous clerks. It seems clear that Henry did not claim the right to try clerks accused of crime, but he asserted his right to "move" the Church courts and to punish clerics who were there found guilty. (Maitland, "Roman Canon Law in the English Church.") This distinction was, however, too fine to be appreciated by Becket, who contended that the judgment of the spiritual court should be final, since "Non iudicabit Deus bis in idipsum." Although not alone in objecting to the king's demand, he was alone in daring to withstand it; but, at length, under pressure, he gave his assent to the Constitutions. After he had done so he repented, withdrew his consent, and begged the pope to pardon him for his weakness. In October of the same year the archbishop was cited to a council at Northampton. He was not summoned personally, as was his right, but through the sheriff of Kent, to answer a plaint made against him by John the marshal. At this council a violent attack was made upon him, and he was ordered by Henry to render an account of his chancellorship, although he had received an acquittance on his resignation. The bishops did not stand by him. Some, like the Archbishop of York and the Bishops of London and Chichester, were his enemies; others were afraid of the king. The archbishop saw that Henry was determined to crush him. He fled, took ship, and landing at Oye in the county of Boulogne, found shelter in the abbey of St. Bertin. Flanders was, however, no safe place of refuge. Louis, glad of an opportunity of embarrassing Henry, welcomed the archbishop to France. Alexander III was at Sens, having been forced to leave Italy by the Emperor Frederick. His fear of turning Henry wholly to the side of the emperor made the pope half-hearted and vacillating in his support of the archbishop, and he commanded him to take no steps against the king for a while. Henry confiscated the revenues of the see, and banished all the kindred of the archbishop. His violent measures were carried out with great brutality by Ranulf de Broc. Thomas found shelter in the Cistercian abbey of Pontigny. There he led a life of ascetic severity, and gave himself to the study of the canon law, which must have strengthened his resolution to defend the rights of the clergy. In 1166 Alexander was able to return to Rome. Freed from the papal prohibition, the archbishop at Vezelay solemnly excommunicated his most violent enemies, and with a voice broken by emotion declared that, unless the king repented, he would excommunicate him also. In return Henry, by threatening the Cistercians, compelled them to cause the archbishop to leave Pontigny. He took shelter at Sens. The pope was still in danger from Frederick, and disapproved the Vezelay excommunications. In 1167 he thwarted the archbishop by sending legates to Henry, and thus suspending his legative power. The destruction of Frederick's army by pestilence did not enable the pope to act more firmly, for he was forced to remain in exile. In 1169 a meeting took place between Henry and the archbishop at Montmirail in the presence of Louis. The archbishop refused to submit to the judgment of the two kings, except with the condition "saving the honour of God," and no good was done. The same year another meeting took place at Montmartre, and ended in failure, for Henry refused the archbishop the kiss of peace. Alexander was anxious to end the quarrel. He was annoyed by the violence of the archbishop, and excited his indignation by absolving the Bishops of London and Salisbury whom Thomas had excommunicated. Henry, in 1170, caused his eldest son to be crowned by the Archbishop of York. This was a violation of the rights of Canterbury, and Thomas threatened to lay the kingdom under an interdict, which he now had power from the pope to pronounce. Louis was enraged with Henry, and formed a combination against him. [Henry II.] A reconciliation was effected at Fréteval, July 20. Even after this the king and the archbishop were on anything but friendly terms. The king complained because Thomas delayed his return to England, for he was anxious to get him out of France. The archbishop complained of the injuries done to his see. Henry still put off the kiss of peace. The archbishop landed in England December 1, and was greeted with delight by the people. A morbid desire for martyrdom had taken hold of his mind. He came back with no intention of living in peace with his enemies; he would withstand them to the end, and lay down his life for the cause of the Church. He sent before him papal letters suspending and excommunicating the bishops who had taken part in the coronation. He went to London to see his former pupil, Prince Henry, and all the city was moved with joy at his coming. Young Henry refused to see him, and bade him return to his see. His enemies, and especially the family of de Broc, annoyed him in every way in their power; and, on Christmas Day, he uttered a violent

anathema against them. When the king heard of the excommunication of the bishops he spoke the well-known hasty words of anger against the archbishop. Four of his knights, Hugh de Morville, Reginald Fitzurse, William de Tracy, and Richard Brito, acted on these words. They crossed to England, took with them Ranulf de Broc and a band of men, and murdered the archbishop in Canterbury Cathedral, December 29, 1170. The archbishop was canonized 1173, and his festival was appointed for the day of his martyrdom. The impression that the martyrdom made on the popular mind was very deep, and for three centuries after his death his shrine was the favourite place of pilgrimage for Englishmen.

The contemporary Lives; in verse, Garnier, "Vie de Saint Thomas," ed. Hippeau; in prose, William FitzStephen, Herbert of Bosham, Edward Grim, Roger of Pontigny, and John of Salisbury. "Materials for the History of Archbishop Thomas Becket," ed. Canon Robertson (Rolls Series); Canon Robertson, "Becket: a Biography"; W. H. Hutton, "Thomas Becket"; T. F. Tout, "Place of St. Thomas of Canterbury in History." [W. H.]

Beckford, William, Alderman (1709–70), was an extremely wealthy merchant, owning large estates in the West Indies. He became an alderman, and was also returned to parliament for the City of London. Both in parliament and in the common council he was a firm and enthusiastic supporter of Lord Chatham. In 1762 Beckford became lord mayor, and again in 1769. With the city authorities the government was very unpopular, nor had it a fiercer opponent than the lord mayor. A petition from the corporation of London to the king had been treated as unconstitutional and unworthy of an answer. A remonstrance was next sent, to which the king replied with a dignified rebuke. Nevertheless, Beckford, on May 23, laid another remonstrance before the king, and, when the king had expressed his annoyance and displeasure, proceeded to argue with him. "The insolence of Beckford," says an eye-witness, "exceeded all his or the City's past exploits." Within a month he was dead of a fever, which common report said was caused by the excitement of his interview with the king. Beckford's enormous wealth descended to his son William, the eccentric author of "Vathek."

Bedchamber Question, The (1839–1841). On the resignation of Lord Melbourne in 1839, Sir Robert Peel was summoned to form a ministry. On his mentioning incidentally to the queen the changes which he thought it necessary to make in the royal household he received a letter from her majesty saying that the removal of the ladies of her bedchamber would be repugnant to her feelings. Finding that Sir Robert would not give way on this point, the queen summoned Lord Melbourne to her aid. Lord Morpeth's sister and Lady Normanby were the two ladies to whom Peel especially objected. The desire to support the queen induced the Whig statesmen, in spite of their previous humiliations, to return to their posts. In 1841, on the downfall of the Whig ministry, the question arose again. The prince consort, however, arranged that three great Whig ladies should resign the situations which they held in the household of their own accord. This prudent compromise settled the difficulty, and saved the assertion of Peel's principle.

Hansard, "Debates," 3rd series, xlvii, 979, etc.; Spencer Walpole, "History of England from 1815," 1879; "Letters of Queen Victoria," vol. i, 1907.

Bede. [Bæda.]

Bedford first appears in history in 571, when the Britons were defeated there by the Saxons, under Cutha. The castle underwent many sieges. In 1138 it was taken by King Stephen, and in 1215, during the war between John and the barons, it was captured by Falkes de Breauté, who continued to hold it till 1224, when he took prisoner one of the royal justices. Thereupon a force was levied against him, and Bedford was besieged. On its capture, the castle was dismantled. During the Civil War Bedford declared for the Parliament, but in 1643 was captured by the Royalists.

A. R. Goddard, "The Great Siege of Bedford Castle," 1906.

Bedford, Earls and Dukes of. [Russell.]

Bedford, John, Duke of (1389–1435), was the third son of Henry IV, and was created Duke of Bedford in 1414. In 1416 he distinguished himself by defeating the French fleet, and in the next year commanded an expedition to Scotland to avenge the "Foul Raid." During Henry V's absences in France, Bedford was appointed lieutenant of England, and on his death-bed Henry constituted him regent of France. To cement the Burgundian alliance, Bedford, in 1423, married the sister of the Duke of Burgundy, and by the vigour and ability of his administration the English not only succeeded in maintaining their conquests for several years, but even gained ground upon their enemies. In 1424 he won the great victory of Verneuil; but the relief of Orleans interfered with the progress of the English arms, and in revenge for the powerful aid she had given to the enemy, Bedford caused Joan of Arc when she fell into his hands to be burned to death as a witch. In 1432 his wife died, and in the next year he married, without the consent of her overlord, Duke Philip, Jacquetta of Luxemburg, thereby increasing Burgundy's estrangement from the English. In home affairs Bedford was always ready to act as the mediator between Gloucester and Beaufort, returning to England for that purpose in 1426, and by his influence over the former was able to restrain his reckless and extravagant disposition to a certain degree. The latter years of Bedford's life were embittered

by the follies of Gloucester, the successes of the French, and the defection of Burgundy. With him perished all hopes of English supremacy in France, and all chance of retaining even Normandy and Guienne. A brave soldier, a skilful general, a prudent and far-sighted politician, and, taken altogether, a just and merciful governor, Bedford had in him many of the elements of greatness. His misfortune was that he was the champion of a cause which was radically unjust, and which was destined from the beginning to ultimate failure. The greatest blot on Bedford's memory is his treatment of Joan of Arc, which was equally cruel and impolitic. [In point of fact, however, Cardinal Beaufort seems to have been more actively concerned than the duke in the proceedings leading to the Maid's death.] If we except this episode, Bedford was seldom guilty either of harshness or impolicy.

"The Wars of the English in France" (Rolls Series), with Stevenson's valuable introductions; Sir J. H. Ramsay, "Lancaster and York," 1892; Sir C. Oman, "Political History of England," vol. iv. [F. S. P.]

Bedford, Peerage of. In 1138 Hugh de Beaumont, son of Herbert, Count of Meulan, was created Earl of Bedford by Stephen; and in 1316 the title was bestowed upon Enguerrand de Coucy, one of the hostages for King John of France in 1360, who won the favour of Edward III. In 1377 Enguerrand resigned his English honours and returned to France. In 1415 John, third son of Henry IV, was created Duke of Bedford, but the title expired with him. It was in turn enjoyed by George, Lord Nevill (*d.* s.p. 1483) and Jasper Tudor (*d.* 1495), neither of whom founded a family. In 1549 John Russell, lord high steward of England, who had received the lands of the Abbey of Woburn, in Bedfordshire, was created Earl of Bedford. In 1694 William Russell, 7th earl, was created Duke of Bedford.

Bedford Level is the name given to a flat district in the east of England, which comprises the Fen country, and includes parts of Cambridgeshire, Norfolk, Suffolk, Huntingdonshire, Northamptonshire, and Lincolnshire. During the earlier Middle Ages this district was a vast swamp, partly inundated by the sea. Attempts were made to reclaim it in the reigns of Henry VI and Henry VII, and an act was passed for this purpose in 1601. In 1634 Francis, Earl of Bedford, and a number of other landowners of the eastern counties, obtained permission from the Crown to drain the district on condition of receiving 95,000 acres of the reclaimed lands for themselves. The works, however, owing to disagreement with the Crown, and the Civil War, were suspended for some years till 1649, when the undertaking was renewed. In 1664 the company was incorporated by royal charter. The operations of the original projectors have been largely supplemented by drainage works undertaken in more recent times.

Begum, an Indian word for queen, princess, etc., is generally used as the title of wives of a reigning or defunct monarch, or of a woman regnant—e.g., Begum of Bhopal, Begums of Oudh.

Behmeru, The Battle of (November 23, 1841), was one of the disasters which befell the British during the first Afghan War. The British were in cantonments near Kabul; and on November 14 a large force of Afghans, which had assembled with cannon on the Behmeru hills, was dislodged with some difficulty by Brigadier Shelton. On the 22nd they appeared again at Behmeru. On the 23rd a strong force set out before daybreak to dislodge them. The hill was carried without difficulty, but thousands of men quickly swarmed out of the city, and the British were overmatched. The troops, shot down like rabbits, pining with cold and hunger, lost courage and refused to follow their officers. Finally, the whole body of British soldiers abandoned the field and took to flight. [Afghan Wars.]

Sir J. Kaye, "Afghan War," 1851 and 1890.

Beirut (Beyrout), The Bombardment of (1840). A joint British, Austrian, and Turkish squadron in this year sailed to the coast of Syria, and proceeded to bombard Beirut, a seaport at the northern extremity of the Pachalic of Acre, which was held by the troops of the rebellious pasha of Egypt, Mehemet Ali. The town was quickly reduced to ruins.

"Annual Register," 1840.

Bek, Anthony (*d.* 1310), was the son of Walter, Baron of Eresby. He attracted the notice of Edward I, by whom he was made Archdeacon of Durham in the year 1279, and bishop in 1283. In 1290 he was sent by Edward to act in concert with the guardians of Scotland, and with the advice of the Estates as lieutenant for Queen Margaret and her husband; and in 1294 he was employed as ambassador to Adolf of Nassau. He accompanied the king in his expedition to Scotland in 1296, and received the submission of Baliol, commanded a division of the royal forces at Falkirk in 1298, and was present at the siege of Caerlaverock in 1300. In the same year he became engaged in a quarrel with the monks who constituted the chapter, which lasted the rest of his life, and, moreover, embroiled him with Edward I, who, in 1302, seized his temporalities. The bishop made his submission and his lands were restored, only to be confiscated once more in 1305. He obtained the empty but high-sounding title of Patriarch of Jerusalem from Clement V (1306), and in 1307 Edward II restored him to the palatinate and recognized him as king of the Isle of Man. With the new king, Bek was a great favourite and he enjoyed his honours in peace till his death in 1310. Bek represented the baronial party in the Church, which saw in Edward I's consolidating and centralizing policy the overthrow of its own

privileges. He is also a type of the "political" bishop of the day—a veritable "prince of the Church."

Beket, Thomas. [Becket.]

Belasyse, John, Baron (*d.* 1689), was the second son of Lord Fauconberg, and, like his father, took a prominent part on the Royalist side in the Civil War. He was at the battles of Edgehill, Newbury, and Naseby, and the sieges of Reading and Bristol, and was subsequently made governor of York. He was wounded several times, and three times suffered imprisonment in the Tower. He was raised to the peerage in 1644, and at the Restoration was appointed commander of the force in Africa and governor of Tangier, which offices he held till 1666. In the reign of James II he was appointed one of the lords of the treasury.

Belesme, Robert de, one of the Norman followers of William the Conqueror, and eldest son of Roger de Montgomery, Earl of Shrewsbury. He was the leader of the disaffected barons against the Norman kings. In 1077 he joined Robert against his father, in 1087 he opposed William II's accession to the English throne, and in 1101 supported Robert's claims against Henry I. On this latter occasion he was banished from England, to the great joy of the people, and sought refuge in Normandy, where he remained a constant source of trouble. In 1112 he was sent to Henry as an ambassador by the French king, but Henry served him as a rebel and kept him a prisoner till his death, the date of which is unknown. He stands out as one of the worst examples of the feudal baron, and by his treachery and brutality fully justified his nickname of "Robert the Devil." Ordericus Vitalis exclaims, when mentioning his banishment from England in 1101, "Rejoice, King Henry, and give thanks to the Lord God, for you became a free ruler from the day when you banished Robert of Belesme from your realm."

Ordericus Vitalis, 707, etc.; E. A. Freeman, "Reign of William Rufus," 2 vols., 1882.

Belfast was the site of an important Norman castle which was in the possession of the de Burghs, Earls of Ulster, in the thirteenth century. In 1333 William de Burgh was murdered there by the rebellious English of the Pale. The castle subsequently fell into the hands of the O'Neills, from whom it was taken after the rebellion of Shane O'Neill, and forfeited to the Crown. In 1604 the castle and district was granted to Sir Arthur Chichester, who settled there numerous colonists from Devonshire. The castle was rebuilt, and a town speedily grew up round it. In 1613 the town was constituted a borough, and became very flourishing. In 1637 Strafford gave it certain trading privileges which did much to increase its prosperity. The city has ever since continued to increase, and has become the chief manufacturing and commercial town in Ireland. By the Irish Universities Act of 1908, Belfast was granted a university. The town became the capital of Northern Ireland in 1921.

J. Owen, "Short History of the Port of Belfast," 1917.

Belgæ, The, were found by Cæsar in occupation of northern Gaul and Belgium and of south-eastern Britain. They seem to have established themselves in this country in the course of the second century B.C., and represent the last great wave of Celtic invasion. The Belgic inhabitants of Britain included the Atrebates of Berkshire and Surrey, whose name is identical with that of the Atrebates of Artois; and the Catuvellauni of Hertfordshire, Bedfordshire, and Oxfordshire, whose kinsfolk on the other side of the Channel were the Catuvellauni of Châlons; as well as the confederacy of tribes in Hampshire, Wiltshire, and Somersetshire which was called by the racial name of Belgæ. It is highly probable that the Cantii of Kent, the Regni of Sussex, and the Trinobantes of Essex were also of Belgic origin; and some authorities have maintained that the Iceni were members of the same race. The result of the Belgic immigrations was to establish a close political bond between Gaul and Britain, which was the justification for Cæsar's expeditions in 55 and 54 B.C.

Sir C. W. C. Oman, "England Before the Norman Conquest."

Belgaum, The District of, in the Bombay Presidency, lying to the north-east of the Portuguese state of Goa, was ceded to the British by the Peshwa in 1817.

Belgian Question, The (1830–2). The effect of the French Revolution of July 1830, in Europe, was to cause a general uprising of nationalities. Belgium, among others, threw off the yoke of Holland, and all Europe now became interested in the settlement of the difficulty. The Dutch government applied for troops to Lord Aberdeen, who straightway summoned the London Conference. This conference in vain attempted to solve the question. It sat from November 4, 1830, till September 30, 1832, and then dissolved, having effected nothing, the final cause of dissolution being a difference of opinion between the three northern and the two western powers as to the employment of force. A convention was immediately concluded between Great Britain and France for carrying out the stipulations of the treaty of November. This treaty was signed October 22, and on November 6 an embargo was laid on all vessels bearing the Dutch flag in British ports. A French army entered Holland and captured Antwerp; and the war was over. Belgium gained her independence with the capitulation of Antwerp.

C. V. de Bavay, "Histoire de la Révolution Belge," 1873; also Th. Baty in *Quarterly Review*, 1915; the Treaty of London which finally settled the question in 1839 is in Oakes and Mowat, "Great European Treaties of the Nineteenth Century," 1918.

Belle Isle, (1) The Battle of, was fought in October 1747, and resulted in the defeat of the French by the British fleet commanded by Admiral Hawke. Early in the day Hawke fell in with a large fleet of merchant ships bound for the West Indies, and convoyed by nine men-of-war. Without waiting for his ships to fall into line of battle, he vigorously attacked the enemy, and was rewarded with the capture of seven out of the nine men-of-war. The French were completely defeated, and the admiral received the honour of knighthood for the exploit.—(2) The Capture of, took place during the Seven Years' War. In 1761 (June 7) a fleet under Admiral Keppel, conveying 8,000 troops under General Hodgson, arrived before the south-east point of the island. The troops, after being once repulsed, made good their landing, captured Palais, the chief town of the island, and compelled the garrison to capitulate. The island was held till the close of the war (1763).

Bellingham, Sir Edward (*d.* 1549), was sent to Ireland as lord deputy by Somerset in 1548, having previously won fame for himself in Hungary and at Boulogne, as well as in the Isle of Wight, where, in his capacity of governor, he defeated the French in 1545. His short period of rule in Ireland was eminently successful, and was marked by strong, wise, and vigorous administration.

R. Bagwell, "Ireland Under the Tudors," 1885–90.

Benares, The Treaty of (September 1773), was concluded between Warren Hastings and the Vizir of Oudh. Its stipulations were that Hastings should lend the vizir a British force to be used against the Rohillas, and should cede the districts of Corah and Allahabad; that the vizir should give a donation of forty lacs of rupees, and a monthly payment for the services of the troops; and that he should pay additionally for the ceded districts.

Biographies of Hastings.

Benbow, John, Admiral (1653–1702), entered the merchant service very early in life. In 1679 he was master of a ship which traded in the Mediterranean. He is said to have pickled the heads of a crew of Sallee pirates, which he threw down as salt provisions on the table of the Cadiz magistrates. On his return James II placed him in command of a ship in the Royal Navy. William III employed him in checking the Dutch privateers, and in bombarding the French ports, duties which he carried out with courage and success. In 1698 he was sent with a squadron to the West Indies. There he attempted to settle the disputes which had broken out between the Spanish and English settlers owing to the attempted colonization of the isthmus of Darien by the Scots. On his return he was made vice-admiral (1700). He was sent out again in order to engage the Spanish colonies to disown Philip, the French claimant to the crown of Spain; or, if they refused this, to seize their galleons. He arrived at Barbados in 1701 and sailed thence for Jamaica, where he heard that du Casse had arrived with a squadron of French ships in order to crush the English slave trade. On August 19, 1702, Benbow, while cruising off Santa Marta, came in sight of du Casse. He resolved to attack, but the captains of his three best ships, from motives of personal dislike, refused to bring their vessels into action. Benbow, however, with his own ship, fought the enemy for five days. At last the captains addressed a written remonstrance to him, in which they declared that the odds were too great for a continuance of the conflict. Benbow, who was badly wounded, returned to Jamaica to die. Before his death he had the satisfaction of procuring the condemnation of two of his captains, and the dismissal of the third from the service.

Benburb, The Battle of (June 5, 1646), was fought between Owen Roe O'Neill and General Monro with the Scottish and English troops. O'Neill, whose rear and right wing were protected, prevented Monro's brother from coming to the aid of the English, and converted Monro's retreat into a rout by means of a sudden charge, capturing much ammunition and many guns. This battle was the last great victory achieved by an Irish general on Irish soil.

Whitelocke, "Memorials" (ed. Oxford 1853, 4 vols.).

Benedict Biscop was born of a good Northumbrian family, and was probably one of the thegns of King Oswiu. In 653 he went on a pilgrimage to Rome, and on his return laboured hard in missionary work in the north of England. About 665 he undertook a second journey to Rome, and subsequently entered the Benedictine monastery of Lerins, where he took the tonsure, and remained some time. He then went to Rome again, and was commissioned to return to England as assistant and interpreter to Archbishop Theodore. On their arrival in England, Benedict was made abbot of the monastery of St. Peter's, at Canterbury. At the expiration of two years he abandoned this office, and undertook another journey to Rome. On his return he received from Egfrid of Northumbria a grant of land at the mouth of the Wear (674). Here he founded a monastery with a church of stone, and glass windows, and endowed it with numerous books, pictures, and relics, obtained by him on his journeys to Rome. In 682 he founded a second monastery at Jarrow, where Bæda spent most of his life. By the impulse he gave to monasticism and to ecclesiastical art in England, Benedict did work of considerable service to the Anglo-Saxon Church.

Bæda, "Hist. Eccles.," and "Hist. Abbotum"; C. Plummer, "Churches in Britain Before 1000"; Howorth, "Golden Days in the English Church."

Benedictines, The, the most important of the mediæval monastic orders—if, indeed, they can be said to have constituted an order in the accepted sense of the term—owed their foundation to St. Benedict of Nursia (480 ?–542 ?). Before his time there had been little uniformity or permanence in monastic societies. Instead of fluctuating assemblies of individuals, Benedict established stable communities, marked by a careful gradation of ranks and duties under the supreme authority of the abbot. His rule rejected the extremes of Eastern asceticism, and judiciously combined mental and manual labour with contemplation and liturgical exercises; but the vows taken were irrevocable. It was so well adapted to the needs of the West that its spread was rapid. There is little doubt but that it was introduced into England in 597 by St. Augustine, whose companions were monks from the monastery of St. Andrew in Rome. Its influence was, however, rivalled by that of the Celtic monasticism imported from Iona; and it subsequently suffered from intrusive secular tendencies, and from the destructive onslaughts of the Danes. Alfred made some attempt at reform, but it was not until the reign of Edgar that the strict Benedictine rule was restored by Dunstan, Ethelwald and Oswald, by whose inspiration the "Regularis Concordia" was drawn up. A further revival was effected by Lanfranc and Anselm after the Norman Conquest. The Benedictines were by far the richest and most powerful of the monastic orders in England. Their strength lay mainly in their vast landed estates, which, in the case of the pre-Conquest foundations, were usually held in chief on terms similar to those on which the great lay lords held their baronies. All the cathedral convents with the exception of Carlisle, and all the mitred abbeys save those of Waltham and Cirencester, were Benedictine; as also were the great majority of the "parliamentary" abbeys. At the time of the Dissolution there were some 113 Benedictine monasteries, with revenues amounting to over £57,000, besides 73 nunneries whose revenues totalled £8,000. [Monasticism.]

Dugdale, "Monasticon Anglicanum" (ed. Calley, Ellis, and Bandinel); E. C. Butler, "Benedictine Monachism," 1919; F. A. Gasquet, "English Monastic Life," 1924.

Benefice denotes "the right which a clerk has to enjoy certain ecclesiastical revenues on condition of discharging certain services." For the enjoyment of a benefice four things are necessary:—(1) *Ordination* as a priest; a deacon or a layman may be presented, but he must be ordained priest before he can be instituted. (2) *Presentation* by the patron. Self-presentation, where the patron is himself a clerk, is forbidden by the act of 1923. (3) *Institution* to the cure of souls by the bishop, if satisfied of the sufficiency of the clerk. For the remedies, in cases where the bishop refuses to institute, vide supra under Advowson. When the bishop is himself patron, there is neither presentation nor institution, but *collation*. (4) *Induction* to the temporalities by the archdeacon or a neighbouring clergyman upon the bishop's mandate. The papal power of granting dispensation from that canon of the Lateran Council of 1215 which forbade the holding of two benefices by the same person, was transferred at the Reformation to the Archbishop of Canterbury. But the evils of pluralism were so great that by the Acts 1 and 2 Vict., c. 106, 13 and 14 Vict., c. 98, and 48 and 49 Vict., c. 54, it was forbidden to hold two benefices unless the churches were within four miles of one another, and the value of one was not greater than £200. Vicarages, rectories, perpetual curacies, and chaplaincies are termed benefices, in contradistinction to dignities such as bishoprics. The holder of a benefice is called the incumbent or minister.

Benefit of Clergy. In the twelfth century the Church claimed for all clergy exemption from any kind of secular jurisdiction. Henry II, in the Constitutions of Clarendon (q.v.), attempted, in the interests of law and order, to secure to the lay courts a measure of control over "criminous clerks." All clerics accused of a felony were to appear in the first instance before the temporal court, there to plead their clergy. They were then to be sent to the ecclesiastical court to be tried in the presence of a royal officer. If found guilty they were to be degraded and afterwards surrendered once more to the secular arm to receive the appropriate layman's punishment. The murder of Becket prevented the execution of this scheme in its entirety. The temporal courts waived their claim to punish the criminous clerk found guilty in the courts Christian, but maintained the principle that all clergy accused of felony should appear in the first instance before them. This gave rise to the Privilege or Benefit of Clergy. During the Middle Ages cases in which it might be urged were such as affected the life or limbs of the offender, with the exception of high treason. It was at first restricted to *bona fide* clerics, but was subsequently extended to all who could read a verse in the Psalter, known as the neck-verse, generally out of the 51st Psalm. Should it be declared by the bishop's commissary that the prisoner read like a clerk, he was delivered over to the ecclesiastical jurisdiction. It was, however, an indictable offence at common law to teach a felon to read in order that he might claim benefit of clergy. The abuse of this custom was very great, and in the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries it provoked constant disputes between the judges and ordinaries. Henry VII in 1488 restricted it by declaring that it should not be allowed more than once to persons not actually in orders; and under Henry VIII and later the privilege was abolished altogether in a large number of cases. The practice of handing over

to the ecclesiastical court the person who successfully pleaded his clergy was abandoned in the later sixteenth century. Thus the original character of benefit of clergy was entirely lost sight of, and it became simply a complicated set of rules exempting from capital punishment certain persons found guilty of certain felonies. In Queen Anne's reign (1705) the neck-verse was no longer required to be read; but benefit of clergy was not finally abolished until 1827 (7, 8 George IV, c. 28). The privilege did not extend to women, with the exception of professed religious, until they were specially included by a statute of 1692 (4 William and Mary, c. 9).

W. S. Holdsworth, "History of English Law," vol. iii, 1922; Hale, "Pleas of the Crown"; Blackstone, "Commentaries."

Benevolences, a means of raising money by nominally voluntary gifts, were first used *eo nomine* by Edward IV. In earlier times the practice of expecting and even asking for "free-will offerings" was not unusual on the part of kings. [Such payments were frequently exacted by the early Plantagenets, especially from the clergy, under the title of *dona*.] Edward II and Richard II seem to have used similar methods of levying money. But Edward IV raised it to a system, and by his popular manners was wonderfully successful in dealing with that large number of his subjects who did not know how to refuse a king's request. Such a method of using personal pressure was, of course, unconstitutional, and gave the king a dangerous means of raising money without parliament. Under Richard III, in 1483, an act of parliament was passed abolishing benevolences as "new and unlawful inventions"; but Henry VII revived them, and obtained a quasi-parliamentary sanction by an act of 1495, which enforced the payment of arrears of money promised by private persons to the king. It was often argued seriously that the law of Richard III, being the act of a "usurper," was not valid. Henry's chancellor, Archbishop Morton, used to beg for his master, and is traditionally credited with the invention of a dilemma which was known as "Morton's fork." If a man lived handsomely he told him that he clearly had money to spare; if he lived plainly, that he was saving money, and must be rich enough to help the king. Henry VIII, who levied two benevolences, one in 1528 and another in 1545, appointed in the latter year commissioners who were to move men to grant to the king twenty pence in the pound on the value of their lands: those who refused were to be summoned to answer before the privy council. [An alternative to the benevolence was the forced loan, of which the most familiar example is the so-called "Amicable Loan" of 1525, which provoked a successful opposition led by London.] Elizabeth at times solicited loans, but she was frugal, and generally repaid them in time. James I, in 1614, had recourse to this, amongst other schemes for raising money. The council wrote to the sheriffs requesting them to solicit subscriptions in their counties. Bacon defended the proceeding, saying that it asked for a free gift, and had nothing in common with the extortions of previous times. So many protests, however, were made against this exaction, and so little money was raised by it, that it was not again used by the Crown. Even Charles I, in his worst straits, rejected proposals for reviving so unpopular a usage.

L. Stratford, "Edward IV," 1910; J. R. Tanner, "Tudor Constitutional Documents," 1923; S. R. Gardiner, "History of England, 1603–42," edn. 1900. [F. S. P.]

Bengal. The province of British India which lies about the lower portions and the deltas of the Ganges and Brahmaputra. The provinces of Bengal proper, Bihar, Orissa, and Chota Nagpur, were included in it until 1905, when certain districts were detached and added to Assam. This partition was revoked in 1911. The population numbers over forty-six millions, or eighty millions with those of Bihar and Orissa. Bengal was conquered by the Mohammedans in the thirteenth century, and was subsequently ruled by Mussulman viceroys appointed by the various reigning dynasties. In the eighteenth century the Nawab of Bengal was a deputy of the Mogul at Delhi. The first English settlements were formed between the years 1620 and 1640. In 1696 the British bought a small district at the mouth of the Ganges, on which Fort William (Calcutta) was erected. For many years the British were involved in frequent disputes with the native governors, culminating in Suraj-ud-Dowlah's massacre of the Europeans in 1756. [Black Hole.] This was followed by Clive's great victory at Plassey, and some years of fighting. [Clive.] In 1765 the dewani of Bengal, Bihar, and Orissa was ceded to the East India Company, and the Nawab, Mir Jafar, was pensioned off. A native dewan was, however, appointed to collect the revenues. In 1773 Warren Hastings abolished the double government, and placed the administration directly in the hands of the company. The governor-general of India was also governor of Bengal till 1854, when the offices were separated, and Bengal was placed under a lieutenant-governor. In 1793 Lord Cornwallis effected the "Permanent Settlement," by which the *zemindars*, or tax collectors, were recognized as proprietors on payment of a land tax to the government; but the rights of the cultivators were recognized and extended by the Bengal Land Law of 1859. The province suffered from an earthquake in 1897, and severe plagues in 1900 and 1904.

W. W. Hunter, "Orissa," 1872, and "Annals of Rural Bengal," 1868; Stewart, "History of Bengal"; Sir J. Bourdillon, "Partition of Bengal," 1905; F. J. Monahan, "Early History of Bengal," 1924; R. C. Dutt, "History of Bengal," 1893. [B. C. S.]

Bengal Mutiny, The (1795–6), resulted from the reforms of Lord Cornwallis's administration, which had abolished sinecures in both branches of the service and increased the salaries of civilians without increasing those of the army. Delegates assembled accordingly from the different regiments and drafted a series of demands—among them promotion by seniority and the restoration of old allowances—a refusal to comply with which would lead to violence. During the governorship of Sir John Shore the question was mismanaged, but the arrival of the Marquis Wellesley in 1798 put an end to the crisis.

"Life of Lord Teignmouth," by his son Charles, 1843.

Benkulen, in Sumatra, was held by the East India Company as a trading settlement from 1682 to 1824. It was attacked and laid in ruins by the French in 1760. In 1824 it was given up to the Dutch in exchange for their Malacca settlements.

Bennet, Henry, Earl of Arlington (1618–85), was originally intended to take orders, but on the outbreak of the Civil War he joined the Royalist army as a volunteer. After the death of Charles I, he joined Charles II, and was employed by him as ambassador to Madrid. In 1662 he was made one of the secretaries of state, and in 1663 was created a baron. In 1667 he joined the Cabal ministry. Next year he arranged the Triple Alliance (q.v.), and in 1670 was privy to the Treaty of Dover. In 1674 he was impeached by the House of Commons, and sold his office to Sir J. Williamson, purchasing in his turn the post of lord chamberlain, which he held till 1681. Arlington was a Catholic, but never showed himself very zealous for his religion. Sharing the want of political principle, and "the cosmopolitan indifference to constitutions and religions" which distinguished the politicians with whom he was associated, Arlington was nevertheless superior to most of them, both in morals and in culture, and is said to have been regarded as "the man in England who least overstepped the line of good conduct." [Cabal.]

Arlington's "Letters to Sir W. Temple" (published 1701); Miss V. Barbour, "Life of Henry Bennet," 1915.

Bennington, The Battle of (August 16, 1777), fought during the American War of Independence, took place at Bennington, in New Hampshire, where the Americans had stored large supplies. Burgoyne had detached a considerable force, under Colonel Baum, to seize the magazines at Bennington, and thence to march on to Albany and join the main army there. Finding the place stronger than he expected, Baum entrenched himself, and sent for reinforcements. General Stark, with the New Hampshire men, in vain offered him battle, and on being reinforced, determined himself to attack. The movement was conducted with great skill, and Baum's position was secretly surrounded before he was aware of an intended attack. The entrenchments were gallantly held until ammunition failed the defenders, who then made a bold attempt to cut their way through the American lines. Baum, however, was shot, and the rest of the force laid down its arms.

J. W. Fortescue, "History of the British Army," vol. iii, 1902.

Bensington, in Oxfordshire, near Wallingford, although now a village, was in early times a place of considerable importance. It was one of the four towns that Cutha took from the Britons in 571; and in 777 or 779 Offa defeated Cynewulf of Wessex here, and took the town from him.

"Victoria County History: Oxfordshire."

Bentham, Jeremy (1748–1832), educated at Westminster and Queen's College, Oxford, was originally intended for the bar, but being possessed of private means, he determined to devote his life to the reformation, rather than the practice, of the law, and wrote numerous works with this object. In spite of their unequal value, his books remain a storehouse for the politician and the law reformer. Indeed, there are few administrative reforms which have not been suggested wholly or in part by Bentham's writings. But his value does not only consist in being a suggester of reform on the details of legislation and procedure; he is also one of the fathers of English jurisprudence. His place in that science is midway between Hobbes and Austin. Hobbes had first discerned the doctrine that whatever be the form of government the sovereign authority is ultimately absolute; but he had deduced from this the theory of non-resistance. Bentham perceived the fallacy in this deduction, and separated clearly the *legal* necessity for obedience from the *political* duty of resistance. The test of the propriety of political resistance Bentham held to be "Utility," in the sense of the greatest happiness of the greatest number. This maxim, whatever may be its value as the basis of a philosophy, furnishes an excellent rule for practical action. In fact, as Sir Henry Maine has pointed out, by thus making the good of the community take precedence of every other object, Bentham offered a clear rule of reform, and gave a distinct object to aim at in the pursuit of improvement. In this respect his influence may be compared with that of the *jus naturæ* in Roman law.

Bentham's works, which are very numerous, have been collected by his disciple, Bowring (London, 1837), who has prefixed to the collection a sketch of Bentham's method. Those of his writings which will best repay perusal are "The Fragment on Government," 1776, in answer to Blackstone; "The Book of Fallacies," and "The Tract on Usury." His theory of punishments is contained in "The Principles of Morals and Legislation" (published separately by the Clarendon Press), and in a translation from the French of his disciple Dumont, entitled "The Theory of Legislation." For criticisms of Bentham's philosophy, see preface to Green and Grose's edition of "Hume," and W. L. Courtney, "Criticism on the Philosophy of J. S. Mill"; W. L. Davidson, "Political Thought in England, the Utilitarians." [B. R. W.]

Bentinck, Lord George (1802–48), acted for some time as secretary to Canning, and in 1826 entered parliament for King's Lynn. He was chiefly occupied in sporting matters till within a few years of his death. He came prominently forward in the ranks of the opposition in 1846, after Sir Robert Peel abandoned the cause of protection. Identifying himself with the protectionists, he quickly became their chief, and led them in the bitter campaign which followed against Peel. In this position he displayed an energy, determination, and organizing power which seemed to mark him out for high distinction as a political leader. He, however, died suddenly from heart disease, within three years of the time when he had first come prominently before the public.

B. Disraeli, "Lord George Bentinck: a Political Biography," 1851.

Bentinck, Lord William (1774–1839), entered the army in 1791, and was attached to the head-quarters of Marshal Suwaroff during the campaign of 1799–1801. In April 1803 he quitted England as governor of Madras, which post he filled till January 1808. In August of that year he was appointed on the staff of the army in Portugal under Sir Harry Burrard (q.v.). He was at the battle of Corunna, and later was appointed minister at the court of Sicily and commander-in-chief of all his Majesty's forces in the island. At the head of an expedition he landed in Catalonia (1813), and, after some successes, was repulsed at the bridge of Ordal (Villafranca del Panades). In 1814 he left Sicily, repaired to Tuscany, and incited the Italians to throw off the French yoke. In 1827 he went to Bengal as governor-general. He arrived in 1828, and was compelled to enter at once on the unpopular duty of retrenchment, owing to the deficit caused by the Burmese War. All allowances were reduced, and an order was issued (November 1828) to curtail the batta allowances at all stations within 400 miles of Calcutta. This impolitic and unjust order nearly produced a mutiny, but was forced on Lord William by the directors. The revenue was augmented by increasing the opium trade, and by resuming all lands fraudulently alienated from the state. In 1832, on the murder of the Raja of Cachar (a little province on the north-east frontier of Bengal), Lord William annexed it, in accordance with the general wish of the people; and in 1834 Coorg was also annexed. In other respects Lord William based his policy on the principle of non-intervention. The assumption of the government of Mysore was, however, forced upon him by the incompetence of its ruler. Attempts were also made to establish a connexion with the independent states beyond the company's territories, and to form defensive alliances with the Amirs of Sind and Ranjit Singh, of Lahore, with whom Lord William concluded treaties in 1831. The civil administration of Lord William stands high in the history of British India as an era of progress. The reform of the law courts and the laws, the admission of native Christians to office, the settlement of the North-west Provinces, the abolition of suttee and the suppression of the Thugs, the introduction of steam communication, and the encouragement of education, serve to mark the period of his rule with distinction. In 1835 Lord William returned to England. He was elected M.P. for Glasgow in 1836 and 1837, but he did not take any prominent part in home politics.

Bentinck, William, Earl (afterwards Duke) of Portland (1649–1709), was a member of a noble Dutch family, and a close friend of William III. His friendship with William of Orange is said to have originated from his nursing the prince through a severe attack of small-pox. On the discovery of the Rye House Plot he was sent by William of Orange to England to congratulate Charles II and the Duke of York on their escape. He was sent to England in 1687 in order to confer with the leaders of the opposition. He accompanied William to England. In 1689 he was in favour of William's sole claim to the throne, and had a violent dispute with Burnet on the subject. In 1690 he was sent by William to Holland in order to calm Amsterdam, where the citizens refused to allow William to nominate the magistrates. He had been created Earl of Portland, and groom of the stole in 1689. He accompanied the king to Ireland, and commanded a troop of Dutch horse. In January 1691 he sailed with William for Holland. William had given him large grants of land in Wales, but the hostility of the Commons compelled him to revoke the grant (1695). In July 1697 a series of informal interviews took place between him and Marshal Boufflers at Hull, while the conference was sitting at Ryswick, with a view to terms of peace. It was through these interviews that the Treaty of Ryswick (q.v.) was eventually concluded (September 1697). Meanwhile the friendship between Portland and William was growing cold, for the former showed an unworthy jealousy of the king's new favourite, Arnold Van Keppel. Next year, therefore, the king sent him to Paris at the head of a magnificent embassy. Portland executed his duties with fidelity. Together with Marshal Tallard, he laid down the lines of the Partition Treaty (q.v.). Portland returned to England, and early in 1699 surprised everyone by resigning his office as chamberlain. His jealousy of Keppel seems still to have been the motive that influenced him. The quarrel between Portland and Albemarle grew in intensity, and at length he retired altogether from court. In 1701 he came forward to defend the second Partition Treaty. Together with Somers he was impeached for his share in the matter, and the Commons requested that

he might be removed from the king's councils. There were additional charges against him for grants and dilapidations of the royal revenue. But the Commons, who refused to appear at the trial of Somers, allowed the impeachments to drop. He was present at the death-bed of William, and in his last moments the king took the hand of his old friend and pressed it tenderly to his heart. Portland lived in retirement for the remainder of his life.

M. S. Grew, "William Bentinck and William III," 1924.

Bentinck, William Henry Cavendish, 3rd Duke of Portland (1738–1809), eldest son of the 2nd duke, was educated at Eton and Oxford, and entered parliament as member for Weobly in 1760, succeeding to the dukedom of Portland two years later. Under Rockingham he was lord chamberlain of the household and became a privy councillor (1765), retiring a year later with the Rockingham Whigs and violently attacking the Duke of Grafton and Lord North. In the second Rockingham ministry (1782) Portland was lord-lieutenant of Ireland. In April 1783 he became prime minister himself in succession to Shelburne, with Fox and North as secretaries of state, and held office till December, when his government was defeated on Fox's India Bill. In the panic period of 1790–7 brought about by the French Revolution, Portland and the Rockingham Whigs rallied round Pitt in the matter of repressive legislation at home. As a result of his new alliance the duke became home secretary, a knight of the Garter, and lord-lieutenant of Nottinghamshire (1794). He continued as home secretary till the fall of the ministry in 1801, and remained in the cabinet under Addington as lord president of the council, which office he retained during Pitt's second ministry (1803), surrendering it, however, to Addington (Lord Sidmouth) out of friendship for the prime minister. In 1807, on the fall of the Ministry of All the Talents (q.v.), the Duke of Portland became prime minister a second time, though by now an aged man; and in 1709 he died of grief at the dissensions in his cabinet—in particular, the duel between Canning and Castlereagh.

[A. C. F. B.]

Beorn (*d.* 1049), earl of the Middle Angles, was the son of Ulf the Dane, and consequently the nephew of Gytha, wife of Earl Godwin. He attached himself to the fortunes of his uncle, and probably about the year 1045 received an earldom which seems to have included all the country between the Humber and the Nene with the counties of Hertford, Bedford, Huntingdon, and Buckingham. On the outlawry of Swegen in 1046, part of his earldom was granted to Beorn. On Swegen's return Beorn consented to intercede for him with the king, but Swegen, having lured him on board his ship, murdered him and buried his body at Dartmouth. His remains were subsequently translated with great pomp to Winchester.

E. A. Freeman, "Norman Conquest," 1867–71.

Berengaria, Queen (*d.* c. 1230), was the daughter of Sancho VI of Navarre, and in 1191 was married at Cyprus to Richard I, whom she accompanied to the Holy Land. It was due in part to discourtesy shown to her at Cyprus that Richard I attacked and conquered the island. After the death of her husband, she resided chiefly in the dower city of Le Mans, and compounded with King John for her dower lands in England, receiving in return a promise of 2,000 marks a year, which was very irregularly kept. She retired in 1230 to the abbey of L'Espau, to which she was a great benefactress, and here she is supposed to have died shortly afterwards.

K. Norgate, "Richard Cœur de Lion," 1924.

Beresford, Admiral Lord Charles William de la Poer (1846–1919), entered the navy at thirteen. He accompanied the Prince of Wales (afterwards Edward VII) to India as naval aide-de-camp. As commander of the *Condor* he rendered brilliant services at the bombardment of Alexandria in 1882. Three years later he took part in Lord Wolseley's expedition for the relief of Gordon. In 1886 he was made a lord commissioner of the admiralty, but resigned in 1888 on the question of the strength of the fleet. He commanded the Mediterranean Fleet, 1905–6, was made admiral and commander-in-chief of the Channel Fleet in 1906. In 1909 he resigned his command, and a committee of inquiry on the question of naval administration followed his resignation. He was made a peer in 1916, and died in 1919. The title became extinct.

Beresford, William Carr, 1st Viscount (1768–1854). [Carr.]

Bering Sea Arbitration (1893), was the result of a dispute between Great Britain and the United States over the fur-seal fishery in the Bering Sea. The United States had purchased from Russia all her territorial rights in Alaska and adjacent islands (1867), and had leased to the Alaska Commercial Company the right of killing seals in the Bering Sea. The dispute with Great Britain originated in the capture by the United States of several British sealers found, according to the United States' interpretation of the phrase "adjacent waters," within the boundaries of Alaska. Futile negotiations were carried on between the three powers concerned (1887–90), until by the Treaty of Washington, February 29, 1892, the question was submitted to arbitration, each party naming two arbitrators. The award, given in August 1893, was in favour of Great Britain.

R. B. Mowat, "Diplomatic Relations of Great Britain and the United States," 1925.

Berlin, The Treaty of (1878), was concluded between Great Britain, Germany, Austria, France, Italy, Russia, and Turkey, for the settlement of affairs in the East after the war between Russia and Turkey. Its chief provisions were, that Bulgaria should be an autonomous and tributary principality under the suzerainty of the Sultan, to be ruled by a Christian government and a prince freely elected, and provisionally administered by a Russian commissary; and that Eastern Rumelia should remain under the direct political and military authority of the Sultan, under conditions of administrative autonomy, and should have a Christian governor-general, to be nominated by the Porte with the assent of the powers. In the event of the Porte and Greece being unable to agree as to the rectification of their frontier, the powers would mediate. Bosnia and Herzegovina were to be occupied and administered by Austria-Hungary. They were subsequently annexed in 1908. The independence of Serbia, Rumania, and Montenegro was recognized. Ardahan, Kars, Batum, and other portions of Armenia were ceded to Russia, as was also the part of Bessarabia ceded to Rumania in 1856. [Crimean War.] Complete toleration, equality, and protection of all religions were guaranteed in Turkey. The plenipotentiaries who represented Great Britain in the congress held under the presidency of Prince Bismarck, which preceded the treaty, were the Earl of Beaconsfield and the Marquis of Salisbury. They obtained for Great Britain the right to administer Cyprus.

Text of Treaty is in Oakes and Mowat, "Great European Treaties of the Nineteenth Century," 1918; see also J. A. R. Marriott, "Eastern Question," 1917.

Bermingham, John, Earl of Louth (*d.* 1329), was descended from the lords of Athenry, and was nominated, in 1318, commander-in-chief of the English forces in Ireland. He won the battle of Foughart near Dundalk, and sent Edward Bruce's head to Edward III. As a reward for this service, and for his prowess in fighting the O'Connors, he was made Earl of Louth. He was afterwards engaged as the ally of the Butlers and of the Earl of Desmond in their feud with the houses of de Burgh and le Poer. In 1329, together with some 160 noblemen and gentlemen, he was treacherously murdered at Braganstown.

Bermudas, The, or Somers Islands, were discovered in 1527 by a Spaniard named Burmudez, who gave his name to the islands. They are about three hundred in number, though about twenty only are inhabited. In 1609 Sir George Somers, who was wrecked there on his way to Virginia, took possession of the Bermudas for the Crown, and settlers soon began to arrive from England. In 1615 a Bermuda Company was formed and bought out the Virginia Company grant of 1612. The islands submitted to the Commonwealth in 1652 in spite of the presence of many Royalist settlers. The company was abolished in 1684 and the government taken over by the Crown. It is vested in a governor, an executive council of four official and three other members appointed by the Crown, a legislative council of three official and six others, and a House of Assembly of thirty-six members.

Sir J. H. Lefroy, "Memorials of the Bermudas," 2 vols., 1877–9; J. Ogilvy, "Bermuda, Past and Present," 1883; T. L. Godet, "The Bermudas," 1860; Sir J. H. Lefroy, "Historye of the Bermudaes," Hakluyt Society, 1882.

Bernard's Case (1858). On January 14, 1858, a desperate attempt was made by a man named Orsini, and others, to murder the Emperor of the French, by throwing bombs filled with explosives at him near the Opera-house in Paris [Orsini]. The attempt failed, but many persons were injured and some killed. Dr. Simon Bernard was indicted in England as an accessory before the fact. He was probably an accomplice. But a good deal of political feeling had been imported into the matter. The French foreign office had addressed a dispatch to Great Britain on the subject of the conspiracy; this had caused great irritation, which was increased by the insulting language towards Great Britain used by some of the French officers in their address of congratulation to the Emperor Napoleon. It was felt that the conviction of Bernard would be a mark of subservience on the part of Great Britain, and a triumph for the unconstitutional government of the French emperor. The trial took place at the Central Criminal Court on April 14; and after a six days' hearing the jury returned a verdict of Not Guilty.

"Annual Register," 1858.

Berners, Sir John Bourchier, Lord (c. 1467–1533). [Bourchier.]

Bernicia was the name of the Anglian kingdom stretching between the Tees or Tyne and the Forth. The several settlements in which it originated appear to have been welded together in the first instance by Ida in 547. His successor Ethelric annexed the neighbouring kingdom of Deira (588). After being dispossessed in 617 by Edwin of Deira, the Bernician royal house was restored to power in 634 in the person of Oswald, and finally established in the rule of a united Northumbria in 655 with the accession of Oswy. When Deira was conquered by the Danes in the later ninth century Bernicia appears to have retained a precarious independence under its native dynasty, until in 954 it sank to the status of an earldom under the supremacy of the West Saxon kings. Henceforward it suffered chiefly from the ravages of the Scots, who in the later tenth century captured Edinburgh, and in 1018 overran the whole district of Lothian. For the next century and a half Bernicia persisted, sometimes as a separate earldom, sometimes as part of the larger earldom of Northumbria. The political

significance of the name disappeared after the Conqueror's devastation of the north in 1069. [Deira: Northumbria.]

Bertha (Bercta), Queen, was the daughter of Charibert, King of Paris, and the wife of Ethelbert of Kent. On her marriage it was stipulated that she should be allowed to profess Christianity and worship as she pleased. She brought with her to England as her chaplain Liudhard, Bishop of Senlis, and the little Roman church of St. Martin at Canterbury was set apart for her use. Her influence was of great service to Augustine in his missionary work. [Augustine.]

Bæda, "Hist. Eccles.," i, c. 25.

Berthwald (Brihtwald) (c. 650–731), Archbishop of Canterbury (693–731), is said to have belonged to the royal house of Mercia. During his archbishopric the much-vexed question of the celebration of Easter was settled by almost all the British bishops adopting the Roman practice. This period also saw the beginning of missionary enterprise abroad, and the English engaged in preaching the Gospel to their heathen kinsmen in Germany.

Bæda, "Hist. Eccles."; Plummer, "The Churches in Britain Before 1000"; Howorth, "Golden Days of the English Church."

Bertric (Beorhtric) (*d.* 802), King of Wessex, succeeded on Cynewulf's death. He married Eadburgh, daughter of Offa, and is said to have met his death by drinking a cup of poison prepared by her hands for another person. His reign is chiefly remarkable for the banishment of Ecgbert and the first appearance of the Danes on the English coast. Peace was secured by the practical acknowledgment on the part of Wessex of the supremacy of Mercia. [Wessex.]

Berwick, James Fitz-James, Duke of (1670–1734). [Fitz-James.]

Berwick, The Pacification of (1639), was the name given to the agreement concluded between Charles I and five Scots commissioners, the terms being that the Scots and the Royalist armies should be disbanded, ecclesiastical matters referred to a free general assembly, and civil matters to a parliament.

P. Hume Brown, "History of Scotland," 1911.

Berwick, The Treaty of (January 1560), was concluded between Queen Elizabeth (represented by the Duke of Norfolk) and the Lords of the Congregation. Its object was the expulsion of the French garrisons and troops from Scotland, Elizabeth engaging to send troops to the north for that purpose.

P. Hume Brown, "History of Scotland," 1911.

Berwick-upon-Tweed was one of the fortresses delivered to the English in 1174, as security for the fulfilment of the conditions of the Treaty of Falaise, and it remained in their hands till 1189. It was one of the four royal burghs of Scotland (Edinburgh, Roxburgh, and Stirling being the others), and from its importance and wealth was for centuries a thorn in the side of England. In March 1296 it was taken by Edward I, and most of the townsmen put to the sword, but it was recaptured by Wallace in September 1297. Having fallen again into the hands of the English, it was taken by Bruce in 1318, and held by the Scots until after the battle of Halidon Hill, 1333, when it was seized by Edward III. From this time it was rarely in the hands of the Scots until it was surrendered by Henry VI, in 1461, in order to secure a refuge in Scotland. It became again an English possession in 1482. It was made independent both of England and Scotland in 1551. In 1836 it was created a county of itself.

J. Scott, "Berwick," 1888.

Bessborough, John William Ponsonby, 4th Earl of (1781–1847). [Ponsonby.]

Bethell, Richard, 1st Lord Westbury (1800–73), was the son of a physician at Bristol; he was educated at Wadham College, Oxford. He was called to the bar (1823), and soon acquired an extensive practice. He obtained distinguished success as advocate for Brasenose College in a suit which brought him a continually increasing practice, and in 1840 he became a queen's counsel. In 1847 he unsuccessfully contested Shaftesbury in the Liberal interest. In 1845 he was more successful, and was returned for Aylesbury as a "Liberal, favourable to the ballot and the abolition of Church rates." In 1859 he was elected for Wolverhampton, which he continued to represent till he was called to the Upper House. In December 1852 he became solicitor-general under the coalition government of Lord Aberdeen. His services at this time were of much use to Gladstone in carrying the Succession Duty Bill, many of the points in which were so intricate and so strictly technical that no one but an equity lawyer could have explained them properly to the House. Bethell also took an active part about the same time in carrying the bills for reforming the University of Oxford, and for abolishing the ecclesiastical courts. In the winter of 1856–7 Sir Richard became attorney-general. It became his duty to introduce and carry through the House the Probate and Administration Act and the Divorce Act. When the new Court of Probate and Matrimonial Causes was formed, the judgeship was first offered by Lord Palmerston to Sir Richard Bethell, who, however, refused it. In 1857 he carried through the House of Commons the Fraudulent Trustees Bill. He had a large share in the preparation of the Conspiracy to Murder Bill of 1858, which caused the retirement of Lord Palmerston's cabinet from office. In 1861, on the death of Lord Campbell, the great seal was offered to Sir Richard, and he took his seat in the House of Lords as Lord Westbury, having previously carried the Bankruptcy Bill of 1861 through the

Lower House. In the summer of 1865 some scandalous proceedings which it was thought he ought to have detected and checked were brought to light in connexion with the Leeds Bankruptcy Court, and in consequence of these, and of an adverse motion in the House of Commons, he resigned the great seal in the July of that year. From that date until his death, Lord Westbury constantly took part in the decision of appeals brought before the House of Lords, and as arbitrator in delicate and important commercial cases.

Biography by T. A. Nash, 1888.

Bexley, Nicholas Vansittart, Lord (1766–1851). [Vansittart.]

Bharatpur. A native state of Rajputana. The town of Bharatpur has been twice besieged by the British. (1) In 1805, the Bharatpur raja having taken part with the Mahrattas, General Lake determined on investing the place. It was a town and fortress, eight miles in circumference, surrounded by a lofty mud wall of great thickness, and protected by numerous bastions, and a deep ditch filled with water. It was garrisoned by about 8,000 of the raja's troops and the remnant of Holkar's infantry. Without a sufficient siege train, Lake resolved at once to carry the town by assault. Four unsuccessful assaults were made, entailing the loss of 3,200 men in killed and wounded, and the British finally were compelled to withdraw. This memorable siege lasted from January 4 to April 21. (2) In the year 1825 a disputed succession to the throne of Bharatpur occurred. The expelled prince had been under British protection, and so, though Lord Amherst was at first inclined for non-intervention, Lord Combermere, the commander-in-chief, undertook to reduce the hitherto impregnable stronghold. Having demanded the dismissal of the women and children, which was refused, he proceeded to bombard the town. After two months' siege, the assault was given, and in two hours the town was taken; the fortress was then razed to the ground, and the rightful prince restored.

Jvalasahaya of Sohna, "History of Bharatpur," 1898.

Bhawalpur, or Doodpoutra, is a native state of the Punjab governed by a prince called the Bhawal Khan, with Bhawalpur as his capital. His dominions extended at one time across the Sutlej to the Upper Indus, but he was a tributary of the Durani monarch. Ranjit Singh demanded the same tribute, and, on failure of payment, seized the territory between the rivers. The Amirs of Sind also took from the Bhawal Khan a large district on the left bank of the Lower Indus. Thus pressed, he readily accepted, in 1838, the protection of the British, by whom his dominions were guaranteed against further encroachments on the part of his powerful neighbours.

Bhonsla was the family name of the Rajas of Nagpur or Berar. [Mahrattas.]

Bhopal is a small Indian native principality in Malwa, in the valley of the Narbada. In 1778 the reigning prince was the only chief in Central India who afforded any support to General Goddard in his adventurous march across the peninsula. This created an undying friendship between the Bhopal dynasty and the British, who protected Bhopal against the Mahrattas. In 1817, during the Mahratta War, Lord Hastings concluded a defensive alliance with this state, and granted it five valuable provinces which had been taken from the Peshwa. The Bhopal state has long been governed by female rulers or begums, who have displayed great capacity for administration. The principality is said to be the best governed of the Indian native states. In the Indian Mutiny the Begum of Bhopal gave great assistance to the British, and both she and her daughter and successor were created knights of the Star of India.

J. C. Grant Duff, "Mahrattas," 1826 and 1921.

Bhutan War, The (1864–5). In the year 1862 a quarrel arose between the independent Bhutan state in the eastern Himalayas and the British government with reference to some frontier territories in Assam. Various outrages were committed by the Bhutias on British subjects, and in 1863 an embassy under the Hon. Ashley Eden was insulted and ill-treated. War was declared in November 1864. The Bhutias struggled desperately, but finally were compelled to sue for peace; they ceded the frontier districts of Assam, for which the British agreed to pay a yearly grant of 25,000 rupees.

"Annual Register," 1864–5.

Bible, English Translations of the. In the early times of English Church history translations of portions of the Scriptures were undertaken for the use of the less learned priests. Bishop Aldhelm, of Sherborne (who died in 709), is said to have translated the Psalter. Bæda translated the Gospel of St. John, and finished the work on his deathbed in 735. King Alfred encouraged, if he did not actually undertake, the translation of the Gospels which was current in the tenth century. Towards the end of that century a Benedictine scholar, Elfric (who died Archbishop of Canterbury in 1005), translated parts of the Books of Moses, together with Joshua, Judges, Kings, Esther, Job, Maccabees, and Judith. After the Norman Conquest the early form of the English language gradually altered, and these translations became obsolete. In the middle of the thirteenth century a version of the whole Bible in Norman-French was current amongst the nobles. In the early fourteenth century two translations of the Psalms into English appeared almost at the same time. One was

formerly erroneously ascribed to William of Shoreham, a Kentish priest; the other was by Robert Rolle, who is known as the Hermit of Hampole. The end of the fourteenth century saw the first complete version of the Bible into English, a work directed by John Wyclif (q.v.). Besides being a philosopher and theologian, Wyclif was also a fervent and diligent pastor. He was struck by the popular ignorance of the Bible, and resolved to remedy it. He himself, it has been thought, undertook the New Testament, while his friend and follower, Nicolas de Herford, began the translation of the Old Testament. Nicolas advanced in his work as far as the Book of Baruch, when he was called to account for a sermon which he had preached at Oxford. Wyclif perhaps completed the unfinished work, but it is more probable that the task was shared among several translators. It would seem that this translation was done by the end of 1382, and was rapidly disseminated among the people by itinerant preachers. The translation was made from the Latin version of St. Jerome, known as the Vulgate. There was a great difference in style between the work of the two chief translators. Nicolas de Herford gave a literal rendering of the Latin in a stiff and bald manner. Wyclif was less a slave to the original, and showed a power of forcible and idiomatic writing which sets his translation as the highest point in the development of Middle English prose. No sooner was the work done than Wyclif was aware that it needed revision. This task he at once began, and it was carried on after his death by his follower, John Purvey, who probably finished the revision in 1388, and thereby gave greater uniformity and precision to the work. The circulation of the Wyclifite versions in manuscript amongst the people did much to prepare the way for the doctrinal changes which the influence of the German reformers introduced amongst a growing party in the English Church. But Wyclif's translation existed only in manuscript, and the printing-press had begun to work its change in the spread of literature. A printed Bible was necessary, and this work was undertaken by a Cambridge scholar, William Tyndale (q.v.). He did not adopt Wyclif's version, because its language was by this time antiquated, and it was a translation of the Vulgate, whereas the knowledge of the Greek text had in his day made considerable progress amongst learned men. Tyndale translated the New Testament from the Greek text of Erasmus, but was obliged to withdraw to the continent for the purpose of printing it. In 1526 this translation, which was printed at Worms in 1525, was secretly introduced into England, and was largely circulated, though efforts were made by the bishops to seize the copies and commit them to the flames. Tyndale next began the translation of the Old Testament, and published, in 1530, an English version of the Pentateuch. He was continuing his labours when, in 1535, he was imprisoned at Antwerp, and was put to death as a heretic in the following year by the order of the Emperor Charles V. At his death his translation had advanced as far as the end of the Books of Chronicles. His work was revised by his friend and fellow-labourer, John Rogers, and its publication, under the name of Thomas Matthew (probably a wealthy merchant who found the funds for the undertaking), was begun secretly in Antwerp. Meanwhile, another English translation of the Bible was in progress at the hands of Miles Coverdale (q.v.), who was favoured by Cromwell. This translation was not made from the original, but was the result of a comparison of the Vulgate and the German translations. It was published secretly (probably at Zurich) in 1535, and dedicated to Henry VIII, to whom it was presented by Cranmer and Cromwell. Tyndale's version, as edited by Rogers, was completed from Coverdale's translation. It was published by Grafton, an English printer, in 1537, and received the king's licence. The royal sanction given to this transaction marked the final victory of the party which was in favour of doctrinal reform. From this time the knowledge of the Scriptures was no longer regarded as dangerous for the people, but was expressly sanctioned. The circulation of translations of the Scriptures was eagerly promoted. In 1539 was published at London an edition of Matthew's Bible, slightly revised by R. Taverner. In 1540 a considerable revision of this version was made under Cranmer's direction, and Cranmer's Bible, known also as the Great Bible, was the first "appointed to be read in churches" by royal command. In 1542 a reaction set in. The Roman party objected to Cranmer's Bible, and endeavoured to obtain a revision in their own favour. Henry VIII, by act of parliament, forbade the perusal of the New Testament in English to women, labourers, and uneducated persons. During the reigns of Edward VI and Mary nothing more was done in the way of translation. But at the beginning of the reign of Elizabeth appeared a new version, known as the Genevan Bible, because it was the work of English exiles at Geneva, where it was first published in 1560. Chief among the translators were Goodman, Whittingham, and Knox. It was translated from the Hebrew and the Greek, but, as was to be expected, betrayed leanings towards the theology of Calvin. In consequence of the existence of these various translations, Archbishop Parker thought it desirable to establish a uniform and amended edition. He accordingly distributed the various books of the Bible, as they stood in Cranmer's edition, amongst the bishops for revision, desiring them not to change the text save where it varied manifestly from the Hebrew or Greek original. The result of two years of revision was the

publication, in 1568, of the Bishops' Bible. The Convocation of 1571 ordered that all Church officers should provide copies for use in their churches. Finally, the English Bible assumed its present form in the reign of James I. For the purpose of securing a complete revision, forty-seven of the most learned men in the kingdom were selected for the task. They divided themselves into three companies, which met at Westminster, Oxford, and Cambridge. Twenty-five undertook the Old Testament, fifteen the New Testament, and seven the Apocrypha. They worked under rules laid down by the king for their guidance. They were bidden to take as their basis the Bishops' Bible, and depart from it only when necessary. The work done by the separate committees was afterwards supervised and reduced to regularity by a committee of six persons. After three years' labour the version known as the Authorized Version was produced (1611). Some doubt, however, exists as to the nature of the authorization. It bears on its title-page the words "appointed to be read in churches"; but there exists no record of any authoritative or exclusive authorization. However, either by royal authority or by natural selection, the version of 1611 has ousted its predecessors, and for two centuries and a half was exclusively used in England. In 1870 the conviction that increased knowledge both of the text and of the language of the original, required an alteration of the Authorized Version found expression in the Convocation of the Province of Canterbury. Two companies for the revision of the Authorized Version were appointed, one for the Old Testament, the other for the New. The members were chosen from Biblical scholars of various Protestant denominations, and committees were formed in America for the purpose of acting with the English revisers. Following previous precedent, the object of the revisers was the revision of the Authorized Version with as few changes as was consistent with faithfulness. The Revised Version of the New Testament was completed in 1881, the Old Testament in 1884, and the Apocrypha only in 1895. The work, which was conceived on a most ambitious scale, gave rise to much controversy and unfavourable criticism, but the storm in recent years has died down, and the use of the new version has become general.

J. Eadie, "The English Bible," 2 vols., 1876; B. F. Westcott, "History of the English Bible," 1905; Madden and Forshall, "Wyclifite Versions," 1850; Margaret Dranesley, "The Lollard Bible"; The Two-version Edition of the Bible, 1900. [M. C.]

Bidassoa, The Passage of the (October 7, 1813), by the British in the Peninsular War, was a well-planned surprise of a remarkably strong position. The French held the heights of a lofty mountain group—the Rhune, the Commissari, and the Bayonette—and they had also strengthened their position by artificial works. Wellington, with great skill, concealed the real point of his attack. Suddenly, in the early morning of October 7, the columns of attack forded the river with such celerity that the French had hardly fired a gun before the troops formed up on the right bank. One after another the three ridges—the Bayonette, Commissari, and Puerto de Vera—were successively carried; but Clausel fell back on the Rhune, the strongest of all, and held it during the night. On the next day he retreated and concentrated his forces on the ridge behind Sarre.

Sir C. Oman, "Peninsular War," 1902–20.

Bigod, Family of. The first person bearing the name of Bigod to appear in English history is a certain Robert, described as a poor Norman knight in the service of William the Conqueror. Later we find a Roger Bigod (perhaps the son of the above) receiving a grant of many of the forfeited estates of Ralph de Guader, Earl of East Anglia (or Norfolk), together with the office of "dapifer" or steward in the king's household. This Roger died in 1107 and was succeeded by his son William, who, however, was drowned in the *White Ship* (1120). His younger son, Hugh, obtained the earldom of Norfolk from Stephen (date uncertain), and was confirmed in it by Henry II. He took part in the revolt of 1173, but made his submission in the next year. His son Roger, 2nd earl, and his grandson Hugh (afterwards 3rd earl), were among the twenty-five executors of Magna Carta. Hugh married Maud, eldest co-heiress of William Marshall, Earl of Pembroke, and had two sons —Roger, 4th earl, who inherited the marshalship of England through his mother, and died without issue; and Hugh, who was appointed justiciar by the barons in 1258, and whose son Roger (q.v.) succeeded his uncle in the earldom in 1270.

Bigod, Roger, 5th Earl of Norfolk and Marshal of England (1246–1306) is well known as a leader of the opposition to the arbitrary taxation of Edward I's later years. He was, with Humphrey Bohun (q.v.), the constable, the hero of the famous altercation over the king's demand for service in Gascony in 1297. As hereditary leaders of the feudal host the earls refused to cross to France unless accompanied by the king in person. Edward departed to Flanders without them, and in his absence Bohun and Bigod, who had collected a large force, compelled the regent to agree to a confirmation of the Charters which was subsequently ratified by the king himself. In 1301 a further confirmation was extorted from Edward in the form of the "Articuli Super Cartas" (q.v.); but Bohun had died in 1298 and the power of Bigod was already declining. In 1302 he surrendered his lands to the king, receiving them back in tail; and on his death in 1306 without male issue they reverted to the Crown and the earldom became extinct in the Bigod family.

Billeting soldiers in private houses had become such an oppressive burden under Charles I that one of the clauses in the Petition of Right (q.v.) was expressly directed against the practice of quartering soldiers or mariners on private individuals against their will. The practice, however, still continued until an act passed in 1681 provided that "no officer, military or civil, or other persons, shall quarter or billet any soldier upon any inhabitant of the realm of any degree, quality, or profession without his consent." This act was suspended annually by the Mutiny Act, which allowed soldiers to be billeted on innkeepers and victuallers, until replaced by the Army Act of 1881, and supplemented by the Army (Annual) Act of 1909, which latter provided for the billeting of Territorial forces in cases of national emergency. A Naval Billeting Act was passed in 1914.

Bills, PARLIAMENTARY, are either public, dealing with matters of public policy, or private, being such as concern personal or local interests. The system by which legislation was founded on petition made it possible to alter the terms of the petition so that the statute should not really answer to the request, and even to found a statute on a petition in which the Commons had not concurred. These evils were remedied in the reign of Henry VI, when bills in the form of statutes began to be passed by both Houses. As the Commons have the sole right of taxation, the larger number of bills must originate with them. Bills on certain subjects, such as religion and trade, must originate in committee of the whole House. The mode of procedure with reference to bills is nearly the same in both Houses. In the Commons, however, a member has to obtain leave to bring in a bill, but this is not the case in the Lords. When leave is moved for, the title of the bill is read and its object is usually stated. If the motion is agreed to, the bill is ordered. It is then presented, and the question is put that it be *now* read the first time. This question must be decided without amendment or debate. If it is negatived, the bill disappears from the orders, but the question may be again brought forward. If it is carried, the question is put that it be read a second time, a day is fixed for the second reading, and the bill is printed. When the day comes the bill appears in the orders, and the question is put that it be *now* read a second time. This is the critical stage, and the whole principle can now be made a matter of debate. A bill may be opposed at all its stages, but as it is at this point that opposition is generally made, it is well to speak of this subject here. It is usual, in opposing a bill, to do so by an amendment of postponement for three or six months, or by some resolution contrary to the tenor of the measure. "The previous question" may also be moved. By this means, however, the bill is not extinguished and can be ordered for another day, while the postponement of a bill to a time when parliament will not be sitting, or the adoption of an adverse resolution, puts an end to it for the session. It is unusual to reject a bill in direct terms, and such a course would imply that it contained matter offensive to the House. When the bill has been read a second time, it is brought before the committee of the whole House, and receives any amendments which may be made to it. When it has received its final shape it is reported to the House. It has then to be read a third time, and after that the question is put "That this bill do pass," and on this it is not usual to divide. It is then sent up to the Lords or down to the Commons, as the case may be, and may be amended or rejected by the House which receives it. If it is amended, it is again sent to the House in which it originated, and if the amendments are disagreed upon, it is usual to send a message to state the reasons of the disagreement, or to desire a conference. When the bill is passed by both Houses it receives the royal assent, which may be given by commission, in the words, "Le roy le veult." The form of dissent, "Le roy s'avisera," has not been used since 1707, so that the Crown may be said in effect to have relinquished its right in this matter. The principle was early established that all money bills must originate with the Commons, and, though the Lords might until recently reject a money bill, they might not amend it. This gave rise to the unconstitutional practice of "tacking," by which, when the House of Commons wished to force a measure on the Lords, it was tacked on to a money bill, so that the Lords had to pass the bill entire or refuse the supply. This plan was adopted on the questions of the Irish Forfeitures, 1699, and of the Occasional Conformity Bill, 1705. The rejection by the Lords of the bill repealing the paper duty, May 21, 1860, was viewed with much jealousy by the Commons, and such rejection was made almost impossible for the future by including the whole financial scheme of the budget in a single act. In 1909 the question of the financial powers of the Lords was raised again in an acute form, when Mr. Lloyd George's budget was rejected by the Upper House. The result was the Parliament Act of 1911 (q.v.), which deprived the Lords of the last vestiges of control in financial affairs, and further provided that any bill, other than a money bill, which passed the Commons in three successive sessions should become law irrespective of the consent of the Upper House.

Petitions to parliament on private matters occasioned the appointment of Receivers and Triers of Petitions. These officers, if they found no redress for the wrong complained of in the courts, referred the matter to parliament. Petitions to the Commons are frequent from the reign of Henry IV. From these

petitions private bills took their rise. These pass through the same stages as public bills. In dealing with them the judicial functions of parliament are especially prominent. Private bills are brought in on petition and at the expense of the promoters. Before a private bill is brought in, it is subjected to examiners of both Houses, who see that the standing orders are complied with. The second reading of a private bill affirms the claim, but only on the supposition that the facts stated in the preamble can be made good. It is referred, if opposed, to a select or special committee to decide on this, and by this committee the question between the petitioners and their opponents is heard and determined. [PARLIAMENT.]

See the authorities given under PARLIAMENT.

[W. H.]

Bingham, SIR RICHARD (1528–99), who was employed in Ireland, 1579, was one of Elizabeth's most able naval officers. In 1586 he was employed on service in Ireland, and cut to pieces a Scots force which had landed to join the rebels on the banks of the Moy. As governor of Connaught, he gained considerable notoriety by putting to death all the Spaniards who were wrecked on the coast of Ireland after the dispersion of the Armada in 1588.

R. Bagwell, "Ireland Under the Tudors," vol. iii, 1890.

Birinus (*d.* 650), the apostle of Wessex, was perhaps Irish by birth, and was commissioned by Pope Honorius to "scatter the seeds of the holy faith in those farthest inland territories of the English which no teacher had yet visited." Landing in Wessex in 634, he found the people still pagan, and accordingly preached the Gospel there. Thanks to the influence of Oswald of Northumbria, the ally and probably also the overlord of Wessex, he met with immediate success. The king, Cynegils, and perhaps also his son Cwichelm, were baptized, and Birinus was made first Bishop of Dorchester (on the Thames), whence he "went up and down among the West Saxons—that is, from Dorset to Buckinghamshire, from Surrey to the Severn—preaching, catechizing, baptizing, calling many people to the Lord, and building and dedicating churches."

"Anglo-Saxon Chronicle"; Bæda, "Hist. Eccles."; Plummer, "The Churches in Britain Before 1000"; Howorth, "Golden Days of the Early English Church," i.

Birmingham, as a market town, is of considerable antiquity. Previous to the Conquest it formed part of the possessions of a family of the same name, and the manor continued to belong to the Birminghams till the sixteenth century. In Leland's time it was already known for its cutlery and hardware manufactures. During the Civil War Prince Rupert's passage through the town, in 1643, was resolutely opposed by the inhabitants, and a sharp skirmish took place. Birmingham shared largely in the industrial movement at the close of the eighteenth century, and rapidly reached a position of importance among English towns. Its inhabitants took a very prominent share in the transactions which led to the Reform Bill of 1832. It received the franchise by that measure, and in 1838 was granted a municipal constitution under the Municipal Corporations Act of 1835. The university received its charter in 1900, and a bishopric of Birmingham was created in 1904. Since 1910 the population has increased greatly in size, and Birmingham now ranks as the third largest city in Great Britain. Under the act of 1918 it sends twelve members to parliament.

"Victoria County History: Warwick"; J. H. Muirhead, "Birmingham Institutions," 1911; W. Haywood, "Development of Birmingham," 1918.

Birmingham Political Union, THE, was an association formed in the beginning of 1830. Its original purpose was to obtain a repeal of the act of 1819 for the resumption of cash payments; but it soon adopted the programme of parliamentary reform, and became the centre of the agitation for that purpose. As early as February 1830 it was noticed and denounced in the House of Commons by Huskisson. Its leading member was Thomas Attwood (q.v.), who afterwards sat in the reformed parliament for Birmingham. The original design was "to form a general political union between the lower and middle classes of the people"; and as the political unions of many other places were affiliated to that of Birmingham, it may be said that the reform agitators of that town were practically at the head of the movement. When the House of Lords showed a disposition to reject the bill, immense meetings were held under the auspices of the Birmingham Union, in which threats of refusal to pay taxes, and even of open violence, were freely used. In 1831 a proclamation was issued against political unions, and, in consequence, the Birmingham Union considerably modified its organization. It continued, however, to display great activity, and on May 10, 1832, all the unions of the Midland counties assembled at Newhall Hill, Birmingham, to the number of 150,000 members. Such proofs of the determination of the country had their effect on the House of Lords, and brought about the final acceptance of the bill.

Wakefield's Life of Attwood, 1885.

Birmingham Riots (1791) arose out of the intolerant party spirit which was largely evoked in England by the events of the French Revolution of 1789. In many places associations had been formed for the celebration of July 14 as the anniversary of the Revolution. The extreme Tories, who styled themselves "the friends of order," everywhere took alarm; and in Birmingham a handbill was circulated in which the principles and objects

of the association were grossly exaggerated or misrepresented. The association at once denied its authenticity, and at first thought of giving up the meeting in consequence of the feeling excited by the circular. This opinion was, however, overruled; and the meeting took place on July 14. While the members of the association were at dinner, the hotel was surrounded by a mob, who, after shouting "Church and King!" for half an hour, retired only to return in redoubled force. They then broke into the house, but found that the members had fled. Baffled and disappointed, they diverted their fury upon two Dissenting chapels, which they demolished. They next attacked the house of Dr. Priestley, and setting fire to it burnt it, together with the valuable library of its owner; and for two days and nights they carried on the work of destruction against the property of prominent Dissenters. On the third day their efforts slackened, and on the fourth several squadrons of cavalry coming into the town soon restored order.

Langford, "Birmingham," 1880.

Bishop. The highest order of clergy in the Church. The early British Church was organized under bishops, three of whom are said to have been present at the Council of Arles in 314. Christianity, which died away before the invasion of the English, was brought back in southern England by the Roman missionary Augustine, who, under the direction of Pope Gregory I, established bishops to direct the ecclesiastical affairs of his converts. In Northumbria the Columban missionaries had monastic bishops after their custom. When the conversion of England was completed, and the Church united under the Roman organization, Archbishop Theodore (668–93) carried out the work of diocesan arrangement. The whole of England was divided into dioceses which were the sphere of administration of a bishop. England was also divided into two ecclesiastical provinces, over each of which was set an archbishop. The mode of electing bishops seems to have varied; sometimes the clergy appointed, sometimes the king in the witenagemot. The bishops sat in the witenagemot, and also in the shiremoots; they had temporal jurisdiction within their own lands; moreover, they exercised a penitential discipline over moral offenders, and judged the offences of the clergy. The connexion between Church and State was close, and we find no disputes between the ecclesiastical and secular jurisdiction. Similarly, national or provincial councils made canons for the Church, frequently in the presence of the king and ealdormen. Bishops soon showed themselves statesmen, and Dunstan may be reckoned as the first great English minister. After the Norman Conquest William I recognized the political importance of bishops by dispossessing the English occupants of their sees and setting Normans in their stead. Archbishop Lanfranc was in all things William I's chief adviser, and by his influence the ecclesiastical courts were separated from the secular courts. The bishops no longer held pleas in the hundred court or shire court, but in courts of their own, which alone decided spiritual cases according to canon law. William II applied to the lands of bishops the full rigour of feudal extortion, and kept bishoprics vacant that he might himself receive their revenues. Under Henry I Anselm raised the question of investitures—he refused to receive at the hands of the king investiture to a spiritual office. The result of this conflict was a compromise (of Bec) [Anselm], by which it was agreed that bishops were to receive the emblems of their spiritual office from spiritual persons, and were to do homage to the king for their temporalities. By this change the bishops were not really benefited; their constitutional position was made more like that of barons, and lost much of its distinctive character. The election to bishoprics, according to the canons, was invested in the chapter of the cathedral churches; but practically their right was exercised in accordance with the royal will. The methods of capitular elections frequently led to disputes, which were referred to the decision of the pope. In 1206 Pope Innocent III rejected both the nominee of the king and of the chapter of Canterbury, and appointed Stephen Langton archbishop. From this time the popes frequently appointed, and appeals were common. The system of provisions was in the next century extended to bishoprics. But as the Crown grew stronger in the next century the king nominated, and the pope appointed the same person by provision. Papal interference was strong enough to overthrow the rights of chapters, but was powerless against a strong king.

The bishops of the twelfth and thirteenth centuries were a strong element in the resistance to the royal oppression, and rank amongst the staunchest upholders of English liberties. But the growth of Lollardism in the fourteenth century led them to support the Crown, and under Henry VIII they were unable to oppose the royal will. The alternations of religious policy in the reigns of Edward VI, Mary, and Elizabeth, led to frequent deprivations, imprisonment, and in the case of Cranmer, Ridley, and Latimer, to the execution of bishops. In the reigns of Edward VI and Elizabeth the rapacity of courtiers despoiled the sees of many of their possessions. Elizabeth showed her bishops scant courtesy, suspended them at her pleasure, and even threatened them with deposition. From that time, with the exception of the reign of Charles I, bishops exercised little political influence. Under the Commonwealth episcopacy was abolished, and bishops were dispossessed of their sees till the Restoration. The petition of the Seven Bishops (q.v.) to James II against

his Declaration of Indulgence, and their subsequent trial for libel and acquittal, is the last time when the action of bishops materially affected the course of English history.

At present a bishop is the head of the clergy within his diocese. He has the power of ordaining priests and deacons, of consecrating churches, and performing certain ecclesiastical acts according to the law of the Church; he is an ecclesiastical judge in certain cases within his diocese, and exercises disciplinary power over his clergy. [There are at present (1926) two archbishops and thirty-six bishops in England and one archbishop and five bishops in Wales; but two new sees are already in process of creation.] The archbishops of Canterbury and York, and the bishops of London, Durham, and Winchester, always sit as lords spiritual in the House of Lords; of the other bishops, twenty-one are summoned (apart from suffragans) in order of seniority of creation. The Bishop of Sodor and Man is in no case a lord spiritual, and by an act of 1847 it was enacted that the number of lords spiritual should not be increased by the creation of new bishoprics. [The bishops form the upper house of Convocation in the two provinces of York and Canterbury and the House of Bishops in the National Assembly as constituted in 1919.] The election to bishoprics was settled by an act of 1544; providing that the king send to the dean and chapter his licence to elect, called his *congé d'élire*, which is always accompanied by a statement of the person whom he would have them elect; if they delay above twelve days the king may nominate. In the year 1848 the dean and chapter of Hereford elected, according to the royal *congé d'élire*, Dr. Hampden; but at the time of his confirmation objections against him were tendered. The Court of Queen's Bench decided that these objections need not be received, as the *congé d'élire* was imperative. Thus the appointment to bishoprics is practically vested in the Crown, which acts on the advice of its ministers.

Stubbs, "Constitutional History"; Phillimore, "Ecclesiastical Law"; Halsbury, "The Laws of England"; Stephens and Hunt, "History of the English Church," 1899–1904; F. Makower, "Constitutional History of the Church of England," 1896. [M. C.]

Bishopric. The sphere within which a bishop exercises his authority. In the British Church there seem to have been three bishoprics (at London, Lincoln, and York) corresponding to the three provinces into which Britain was divided by the Romans. When in 597 Pope Gregory I sent Augustine to evangelize England, his scheme for ecclesiastical organization was that London and York should be the centres of the island. Augustine was to be Bishop of London with twelve suffragans, and was to send another to York, who was in turn to have twelve suffragans. This scheme was not fully carried out; but the formation of sees marks the progress of the conversion of England, and the sees followed the divisions of kingdoms or tribes. Augustine at Canterbury was Bishop of Kent; in 604 he set up Justus at Rochester as Bishop of West Kent, and Mellitus at London as Bishop of the East Saxons. In 625 Paulinus was ordained bishop of the Northumbrians with his see at York; but the work of Paulinus did not last, and Northumbria received Christianity from the Columban monks of Iona, one of whom, Aidan, was made Bishop of Lindisfarne in 635. In 630 Felix created the see of East Anglia at Dunwich. In 634 the West Saxons received as bishop Birinus, who fixed his seat at Dorchester. The see of Mercia was, in 656, set up at Lichfield. Thus the early kingdoms received bishops, and were converted into ecclesiastical dioceses. The further organization of England was due to the energy of the Archbishop of Canterbury, Theodore, a monk of Tarsus, who laboured from 669 to 693. He broke up the large dioceses, but in so doing followed the lines of tribal arrangements that were earlier than the seven kingdoms. He divided East Anglia into north and south, and set a bishop over the northern part at Elmham in 673. He established a see for the Hecanas at Hereford in 676, and for the Lindiswaras at Sidnachester in 678. The Northumbrian Church had before this conformed to the Roman use. Its large extent was divided by the recognition of York as the see of the Deirans, while Bernicia was divided between Lindisfarne and Hexham, which was made a see in 678; in 681 the Northumbrian dominions in Strathclyde received a bishop at Whithern. In 680 the Hwiccas had a bishop at Worcester, and the Middle-Angles at Leicester. In 681 a mission see for the South Saxons was set up at Selsey, and in 705 Wessex was divided by a new see at Sherborne. In 909 King Edward the Elder divided the see of Sherborne, and gave the men of Somerset a bishop at Wells, and the men of Devon a bishop at Crediton. The troubles of Northumbria affected its episcopal arrangements; after 814 no bishop of Hexham was appointed, and through the ravages of the Picts the bishopric of Whithern ceased about 810. In 875 the monks of Lindisfarne were driven to quit their monastery, carrying with them the body of St. Cuthbert; they settled at Chester-le-Street, whence they were again driven in 990, and finally settled at Durham in 995.

At the time of the Norman Conquest episcopal sees were transferred from villages to cities, as being more convenient. Already in 1050 the see of Crediton had been changed to Exeter. In 1075 the see of Sherborne was removed to Old Sarum, that of Selsey to Chichester, and that of Lichfield to Chester and then to Coventry. The see of Dorchester was removed to Lincoln in 1085. In 1088 the see of Wells was transferred to Bath; that of Elmham, which had been transferred to Thet-

ford in 1078, was finally established in Norwich in 1101. With the gradual conquest of South Wales the British Church lost its independence, and received Norman bishops. The Archbishop of St. David's (who had never perhaps exercised any practical authority over the other Welsh bishops) became a suffragan of the province of Canterbury in 1115; Bangor and Llandaff soon afterwards; and the see of St. Asaph was established (or possibly only re-established) in 1143. Moreover, Henry I cared for the interests of the Church in England by subdividing the huge diocese of Lincoln in 1109, and setting a bishop over the great minster of Ely. In like manner the allegiance of the new English possession of Cumberland was strengthened by the appointment of a Bishop of Carlisle in 1133.

From this time till the Reformation no new sees were created. After the dissolution of the monasteries, Henry VIII made some show of restoring the goods of the Church by the creation of six new bishoprics—Westminster in 1540, Gloucester, Chester, Peterborough, and Oxford in 1541, Bristol in 1542. The see of Westminster did not long continue. Its first occupant, Thomas Thirlby, wasted its possessions; he was translated to Norwich in 1550, and the see was dissolved. In 1542 the ancient see of Sodor and Man, which was founded by Pope Gregory IV, was annexed to the province of York; but as the island of Man did not come into the possession of the Crown till 1825, its bishop was never a lord of parliament. No further creations were made till the increase of population in the nineteenth century led to the formation of the see of Ripon in 1836, and of Manchester in 1847. In 1836 the sees of Gloucester and Bristol were united, but were again separated in 1897. Several new sees were created by voluntary effort, according to the provision of an act of parliament. The sees of Truro and St. Albans were founded in 1877, that of Liverpool in 1880, that of Newcastle in 1882, that of Southwell in 1883, that of Wakefield in 1884, that of Southwark in 1905, and that of Birmingham in 1904.

[In 1914 Chelmsford, St. Edmundsbury and Ipswich, and Sheffield were created bishoprics; in 1918 Coventry was made an independent see; and in 1920 a new diocese was established at Bradford. In 1926 considerable changes were again inaugurated and bishoprics were erected at Leicester, Blackburn, Guildford, and Portsmouth. In Wales, since the Disestablishment Act of 1914, new sees have been created at Monmouth, Swansea and Brecon.] [M. C.]

Bishopric, The, was a special title given to the patrimony of St. Cuthbert, which was ruled by the Bishops of Durham. On Cuthbert's consecration as Bishop of Lindisfarne in 683, Egfrid, the Northumbrian king, made him large grants of land round Lindisfarne, as well as the vill of Craik near York, and the town of Carlisle. In 883 the monks of Lindisfarne were fleeing with the body of their patron saint before the Danish invaders. The Danish king was dead, and his host was without a leader. According to tradition, St. Cuthbert appeared in a vision to Abbot Eadred, and bade him tell the Danes to take as their king a young captive who was a slave. The Danes obeyed the admonition, and their new king, Guthred, aided by the advice of Alfred the Great, showed his gratitude by conferring on St. Cuthbert the land between the Tyne and the Wear. Over this new grant, and the old lands of the church of Lindisfarne, the bishop was given the rights and dignities of the king. Bishop Cutheard (900–15) purchased the ancient parish of Bedlington north of the Tyne, with an area of thirty square miles, and received a grant of similar jurisdiction over it. It is probable that William the Conqueror, finding this state of things, considered it desirable to leave it unchanged. In the thirteenth century the process was completed and the lands of the church of Durham were finally organized as a county palatine. [Counties Palatine.] The *bishopric* was not co-extensive with the *diocese* of Durham. It consisted of the modern county of Durham, and the districts known as Bedlingtonshire, Islandshire, and Norhamshire. Within this the bishop held his own courts and appointed his own officers; writs ran in his name, and he had his own mint. The men of the bishopric were similarly privileged, and went by the name of *Haliwerefolc*, men for the defence of St. Cuthbert and his patrimony. This exceptional position continued till the Ecclesiastical Commissioners recommended its abolition in 1833, and with the death of Bishop van Mildert, in 1836, the Bishopric came to an end.

Surtees, "History of Durham"; Raine, "History of North Durham"; G. Lapsley, "The County Palatine of Durham." [M. C.]

Bishops, Suffragan. In 1534 an act was passed indicating twenty-six new bishops suffragan in place of the Roman bishops *in partibus infidelium* who had previously assisted the English bishops in their dioceses. Seven bishops were appointed under it, but the movement was then dropped until 1871, when the act was revived as a means of affording assistance to the bishops of populous dioceses.

Bishops, The Seven, is the appellation usually given to the prelates who were tried for their resistance to James II's Declaration of Indulgence (q.v.). On April 27, 1688, the king issued his second Declaration of Indulgence, and on May 4 an order in council enjoined that it should be read in all churches on two successive Sundays, the bishops being required to distribute copies of it in their dioceses. The Primate Sancroft and six bishops (Ken of Bath and Wells, White of

Peterborough, Lloyd of St. Asaph, Trelawny of Bristol, Lake of Chichester, and Turner of Ely) drew up and presented a petition, declaring the loyalty of the Church, but begging to be excused from reading in divine service an illegal declaration, since parliament had declared that the sovereign had no power to dispense with statutes. "This is the standard of rebellion," James said as he read it; and, when only four churches in London obeyed the order, he determined to take his revenge by trying the bishops for publishing a seditious libel. The bishops, after having at the king's command acknowledged their writing, were committed to the Tower, where they were visited by many Whig peers and a deputation of Nonconformist sympathizers. When the trial came on (June 8) the handwriting was proved by the clerk, who had heard the bishops' confession; and Sunderland, whom they had begged to present it, proved the publishing. Among the counsel for the defence was Somers, afterwards chancellor, whose speech on this occasion created his reputation. After some hours' disputing, the king's brewer, who was on the jury, was persuaded to risk the loss of royal patronage, and a verdict of not guilty was returned (June 30). The action of the king in this matter lost him the active support of the Church, and disposed it to acquiesce in the measures of William of Orange.

T. B. Macaulay, "History of England," ch. viii, 1858–61.

Bismarck Archipelago. [New Guinea.]

Black Act, The (1722), was the name given to an act passed to check the outrages committed by persons with their faces blackened or otherwise disguised, who appeared in Epping Forest, near Waltham, and destroyed the deer. The penalty of death was imposed on all such transgressors of the law. The act was made perpetual in 1758, but was repealed in 1827.

Black Assize. [Assizes, the Black.]

Black Death, The. This name has been given to an epidemic disease of fearful destructiveness which devastated England, in common with the rest of Europe, in 1348–9, and burst forth anew in 1361–2, and again in 1369. In contemporary and later literature it is usually called the "Pestilence," or the "Great Pestilence," under the former of which expressions it is mentioned by both Chaucer and Langland. It is regarded as having been merely an aggravated outburst of the bubonic and pneumonic plague. Whether disturbances of nature were answerable for the visitation may be questioned; but there is abundance of evidence to prove their actual occurrence, and the ablest scientific writer on the subject —Hecker—has no doubt of the connexion between the adulteration of the air that followed them and the virulence of the pestilence. "This disease," he says, "was a consequence of violent commotions in the earth's organism —if any disease of cosmical origin can be so considered." It would be safe at least to suspect that the lingering traces of the epidemic of 1342, and the general physical demoralization produced by the disturbance of the conditions of life, left men's bodies an easier prey to the malignant agency. The quickening power, however, came from the East. [Its place of origin has never been satisfactorily determined. "Russian records place it in India, Greek in Scythia, English in India and Asiatic Turkey, Arabian in Tartary and the land of darkness. According to Indian tradition it originated in Cathay, to the north of China, and spread in every direction from that focus; northward by Bokhara and Tartary to the Black Sea; to India and the towns south of the Caspian, and to Asia Minor; and by way of Baghdad through Arabia and Egypt to the north of Africa" (Dr. Crawfurd). It appears to have arrived from the Levant in ships calling at the Mediterranean ports, notably Genoa and Marseilles. Early in 1348 it had established itself in France and Italy. In papal Avignon it broke out with unsparing fury, and in the heat of summer, Clement VII, with fires roaring in the hearths of his palace, "strove with rare energy to give peace to a distracted world."] It advanced to Spain, and early in April appeared at Florence, where it came under the observation of Boccaccio, who has left a detailed account of its action. Passing through France and visiting, but not as yet ravaging, Germany, it made its way to England. This country it entered at Weymouth, where it cut down its first English victims in August 1348. Thence it travelled —by way of Devon and Somerset, of Bristol, Gloucester, and Oxford—to London, but so slowly that winter had begun before it reached the capital. Soon it embraced the whole kingdom. Its chief symptoms in this country were spitting, in some cases actual vomiting, of blood, the breaking out of inflammatory boils in parts, or over the whole, of the body, and the appearance of those dark blotches upon the skin which suggested its most startling name. Some of its victims died almost on the first attack, some in twelve hours, some in two days, almost all within the first three. Before it medical skill was powerless; few recovered, until, as the plague drew towards its close, men bethought them of opening the hard, dry boils—a treatment that relieved the system of the venom and saved many lives. Contagion bore it everywhere; the clothes, the breath, everything the patient touched, the very air that surrounded him, were thought to be poisoned with it; even a glance of his eye, men fancied, might strike down the onlooker. [Bubonic plague is now regarded as being chiefly conveyed by rats, bugs, and fleas; hence the great virulence of the Black Death among the very poor.] Its career in England

on this visitation lasted for about a year; but its destructive energy would seem to have been at its height between May 1349 and the following Michaelmas, the summer heats doubtless stimulating its fury. The havoc it made in the population far exceeded that made by any similar scourge recorded in history; the exaggerations of a contemporary annalist, gross as they are, help us to realize its extent. "Towns, once close packed with men, were stripped of their inhabitants; and to so pernicious a power did the plague rise that the living were scarce able to bury the dead. In certain religious houses, out of twenty inmates there hardly survived two. By several it was reckoned that barely a tenth part of the population had been left alive." It is stated that it slew 100,000 human beings in London—50,000 of whom were buried in a plot of ground which Sir Walter Manny had bought for the purpose, a space now covered by Smithfield—nearly 60,000 in Norwich, and proportionate numbers in Bristol and other leading cities. These numbers are thought incredible; but one scrupulously careful writer has found evidence which satisfies him that at least half the population died by this outbreak, whilst another, of equal industry, admits that the full sum of the victims cannot have been less than a third. And the leaning of historians is generally towards the higher reckoning, by which the actual carnage would amount, at highest, to 2,500,000, at lowest to 1,500,000, for the estimates of the population at the time range from 3,000,000 to 5,000,000. [Although recent research has been unable to establish any more definite statistics of mortality, it yet seems probable that the very high figures accepted by nineteenth-century historians should be regarded with caution, since our information only refers to certain classes of persons, and recent inquiry has shown that some localities suffered very little loss.] For obvious reasons, the mortality was greatest among the clergy and the humbler classes; yet the contagion reached even the highest. A newly-elected primate, Bradwardine, and Edward III's daughter, Joan, caught it and perished. For a time its progress seemed arrested by the Scottish border, and "the foul death of the English" is said to have been a favourite oath with the Scots, who felt a malicious pleasure in their enemies' misfortunes; but the scoffers soon involved themselves in the same disasters by making a foolish raid into England, and the work of death went forward in Scotland also. The disease passed over to Ireland, where, if report can be trusted, it discriminated between the intruding English and the natives; the former were taken and the latter left. Its immediate effects on society were of the kind usual in such frightful calamities. Humanity showed itself at its worst and its best; there was much reckless profligacy and revolting selfishness, but not a few examples of self-sacrificing devotion. The terror-stricken rushed to religion for comfort and help; many gave up lands and goods, and sought a haven in monasteries; an earlier and fierce fanaticism —that of the Flagellants (q.v.)—was reorganized, and fascinated or horrified men by its ghastly ritual. [Yet the cult failed to make the same way among the sober English as it was achieving on the continent.] The permanent impression that the Black Death made on the human memory is shown in several ways—in this conspicuously, that it was set up as a fixed mark to reckon time from; it was long a practice to date charters and legal instruments from it. The visitations of 1361–2 and 1369 were also formidable in the extent of their ravages, yet mild as compared with their terrible predecessor. They may be regarded as stages in the gradual settling down of the "great mortality" into the endemic state that it remained in for centuries. [The effects of the plague on rural economy have for long been the subject of intense interest among historians, whose opinions have swung from the view that it produced a cataclysmic change and was the chief factor in the break-down of manorial organization, to the contention that its effects were ephemeral and generally negligible from the standpoint of agrarian development. A diminution in the total population of something between a third and a half must have raised considerably the amount of money per head of population. In the same way the amount of labour required from each worker, if the normal production of food were to be maintained, was also increased. Hired labour naturally became scarce for a year or two. It could demand an increase in wage rates of nearly 50 per cent. beyond what was paid before the pestilence, and manorial lords on whose estates the tendency (working side by side with the progress of commutation) had for some time been to hire workers in increasing numbers, found themselves crippled in many cases by their swollen wage-bill. One of the results of their dissatisfaction was the promotion of the Statutes of Labourers (q.v.), measures which attempted to reimpose the old rates of wages and commodity prices, and to put a check on the increasing mobility of free labour. There is evidence to show that survivors among the villein tenantry often found sufficient incentive elsewhere to tempt them to flee from the manor to which they were tied, and either to join the class of hired wage-earners or to find a new holding in an area where the landlord was prepared to offer more favourable terms. There seems to be little doubt that the Black Death stimulated landlords in many districts to rent out their demesne either in whole or in part, a movement which much impressed Thorold Rogers, who saw in the stock-and-land lease of this period a potent factor in the break-up of the manor. Certainly, where such a modification of the manorial scheme was adopted, the new conditions would

lead the lord to commute for money rents those services which had previously been employed in the cultivation of the land in question; and thus it may be argued that the Black Death was a hastening influence in the progress of commutation. On the whole, recent study of manorial records has not produced the evidence required to prove the existence of any marked alteration in the rate of commutation attributable to the pestilence.

It should be remembered that the economic changes under discussion should not be given the same importance in the country north of the Trent (where the manorial system of the south had never had such strong roots), and in the western counties, where commutation of services was already almost complete.] [Commutation; Labourers, Statutes of; Peasants' Revolt.]

C. Creighton, "A History of Epidemics in England"; Cardinal Gasquet, "The Great Pestilence"; R. Crawfurd, "Plague and Pestilence"; "Encyclopædia Britannica," art. *Plague*; A. E. Levett, "The Black Death on the Estates of the See of Winchester"; T. F. Tout, "Political History of England, 1216–1377"; E. Power in *History*, July 1918; "Proceedings of the Royal Society of Medicine," vol. ix, 1916; A. G. Little in "English History Review," 1890. [J. R.; A. V. J.]

Black Friday is the name given (*a*) to May 11, 1866, when a commercial panic was at its height in London, occasioned by the failure of Overend, Gurney and Co.; (*b*) to April 15, 1921, the day on which the Triple Industrial Alliance strike (q.v.) came to an end.

Black Hole of Calcutta, The (June 20, 1756). Suraj-ud-Dowlah, the Nawab of Bengal, a young man, cruel, effeminate, and debauched, who succeeded Ali Vardi Khan early in 1756, was greatly enraged with the British at Calcutta for concealing a fugitive from him. He marched down on Calcutta on June 18 on the pretence that the British had erected some new fortifications without consulting him. The town was ill-prepared to resist an assault, and was moreover weakened by the disgraceful desertion of Mr. Drake, the governor, with the military commandant, who slipped off unperceived, and rowed down to the ships. Mr. Holwell was thereupon placed in command by common consent, and the fort was gallantly held for forty-eight hours, when it became necessary to surrender. The Nawab gave Holwell every assurance of protection, and retired about dusk to his encampment. In spite of this the prisoners, 156 in number, were thrust into a narrow chamber, some twenty feet square, which had been used as the prison of the garrison, and, however suited for the confinement of a few turbulent soldiers, meant simply death to the crowd thrust into it at the sword's point in one of the hottest nights of the most sultry season of the year. The agonies endured during this terrible night were horrible beyond expression. The night was intensely hot, and as the torments of thirst and suffocation came upon them, the prisoners struggled with one another for a mouthful of fresh air at the windows. They insulted the guards to induce them to fire on them. The majority died in raving madness; and the few who survived owed their lives to the freer ventilation obtained by standing on the bodies of their dead or dying companions. Twenty-three ghastly survivors alone were dragged out the next morning. Mr. Holwell was so broken that he had to be carried before the Nawab, who manifested no compunction at the results of his infamous cruelty.

J. Z. Holwell's "Genuine Narrative," etc., 1758; and the striking account in Macaulay's essay on Clive.

Black Mountain War, The (1868). The Hassanzai tribe of Afghans, inhabiting the Agror Valley in the Black Mountain range, broke out into hostilities and attacked a police station. As they showed no disposition to submit, General Wilde was sent against them, September 26, and after various operations, which lasted till November 7, reduced the insurgents, who submitted, and the force was withdrawn on November 10. [Lawrence, Lord.]

"Life of Lord Lawrence," by Sir R. Temple, 1889.

Black Prince. [Edward the Black Prince.]

Black Rod, or "Gentleman Usher of the House of Lords," is an official instituted in 1350, appointed by letters patent and responsible for the maintenance of order in the House of Lords. He has also the duty of summoning the Commons and the Speaker to the House of Lords to hear a speech from the throne or the royal assent to bills. On such occasions the door of the House of Commons is closed against him, and he strikes on it three times. On being admitted he advances to the bar and delivers his summons. This procedure dates from the attempt of Charles I to arrest the five members in 1642.

Black Sea Conference, The. In 1871, in consequence of a declaration by Russia that she would no longer be bound by the Treaty of Paris of 1856 with regard to the navigation of the Black Sea, a conference of the powers was invited to meet at London to settle the questions. In assuming a right to abolish her own treaty engagements, there can be no doubt that Russia counted upon some general understanding she had arrived at with Prussia, to the effect that the latter power would assist her in effecting her wishes. Some delay arose in the assembling of the conference owing to the anomalous position of France, but on December 18 Lord Granville received a formal intimation that a French plenipotentiary would present himself at the conference. The emergency at Paris, however, prevented this, and the representatives of the other powers proceeded (January 17) to deliberate without France; but the Duc

de Broglie, the French plenipotentiary, eventually appeared on March 13. As the result of the conference the Treaty of London was concluded. Its provisions were that articles XI, XIII, and XIV of the Treaty of Paris, 1856, should be abrogated; that the principle of closing the Dardanelles and Bosporus should be maintained with power to the Sultan to open the said straits to the fleets of friendly and allied powers, in the event that the execution of the stipulations of the Treaty of Paris should require it; and that the commission for managing the navigation of the Danube should be continued in its existing form for a further period of twelve years. The result of this treaty was to open the Black Sea to Russian ships of war, and to allow the Sultan to open the Dardanelles to foreign ships of war if the defence of his throne required it.

Treaty of London is given in Oakes and Mowat, "Great European Treaties of the Nineteenth Century," 1918.

Blackburn Riots, The (1826), were a demonstration by the weavers of Lancashire against the use of machinery. In April a large number of persons assembled at Henfield and proceeded to Accrington, where they demolished the machinery in several mills. The mob then proceeded to Blackburn, and, though a party of dragoons arrived there as soon as the rioters, they could not prevent them from breaking into the factory of Messrs. Bannister, Eccles and Co. A collision occurred; stones and fire-arms were freely used by the mob; and the Riot Act was read. A great deal of Messrs. Eccles's machinery was destroyed, and much damage done all through the town; and the excitement became so dangerous that the dragoons were ordered to clear the streets. The following day a great deal of destruction was completed, and another collision occurred between the rioters and the military, in which the former were finally routed by a discharge of musketry, nine persons being killed and several wounded. Similar riots broke out next day in Manchester. Troops, however, quickly poured into the disturbed districts, and the riotous assemblages were at an end.

W. A. Abram, "History of Blackburn," 1897.

Blackheath, The Battle of (June 22, 1497), was fought between the troops of Henry VII and the Cornish rebels. The rebels had taken up a strong position on a hill at Blackheath, within sight of London. The king had recalled the troops destined for service against Scotland, and had collected together at London a large army composed of all the fighting men in the neighbouring counties. He stationed one portion of his army (under his personal command) in St. George's Fields. A second detachment, under the command of the Earls of Oxford and Suffolk, was ordered to make a circuitous march round the hill occupied by the rebels, and take up as strong a position as possible in their rear. The remainder of his forces, under Lord Daubeny, he sent forward to attack the rebels in front. The Cornishmen fought bravely; but ill-armed, ill-led, they were unable to offer any long resistance to the disciplined, well-equipped troops who attacked them in front and rear simultaneously. Two thousand of their number were slain, and the remainder surrendered. Among the large number of prisoners were the rebel leaders Lord Audley, Michael Joseph, and Thomas Flamank, who were put to death.

Gladys Temperley, "Henry VII," 1917.

Blacklow Hill, an eminence between Warwick and Coventry, was the scene of the execution of Piers Gaveston by the revolted barons under the Earls of Lancaster and Warwick in 1312.

W. P. Dodge, "Gaveston," 1899.

Blackmail was the compulsory payment exacted by the border chieftains from the dwellers in the more civilized districts on the English side in return for the protection of their cattle and goods. The levy of blackmail was made a felony by 43 Eliz. c. 13 (1601). The name was also given to the payment made to the chiefs of some of the Highland clans by those who lived in their neighbourhood in return for the immunity of their cattle from capture. It did not entirely cease till 1745.

Blackstone, Sir William (1723–1780), legal writer and judge, was the posthumous son of a Cheapside silk-mercer, and was educated at the Charterhouse and Pembroke College, Oxford. He obtained a fellowship at All Souls, and was called to the bar by the Middle Temple in 1746. As bursar of All Souls he showed administrative skill and zeal for reform; and the building of the Codrington Library was mainly due to his exertions. In 1757 he was elected to a fellowship at Queen's College, and a year later he was elected to the newly-founded Vinerian Professorship of Law. In this capacity he delivered the lectures which were subsequently (1765) embodied in the "Commentaries." In 1761 he was appointed principal of New Inn Hall, a post which he held for five years in the vain hope of establishing at Oxford a college for legal education. He also during this period sat in parliament for Hendon and Westbury. From 1770 until his death he was one of the judges of the Common Pleas.

See "Commentaries on the Laws of England," of which numerous editions have appeared. The "Commentaries" have been rearranged with doubtful advantage by R. M. Kerr and Mr. Serjeant Stephen. Clitherow, "Life," prefixed to Blackstone's "Reports," 1781; a biography and list of works by Douglas, 1782; Burrows, "Worthies of All Souls."

Blackwater, The Battle of (1598), was fought near the fort of that name in Tyrone. Hugh O'Neill, called the "arch rebel," here defeated the English marshal, Sir Henry Bagenal, who had marched to the

relief of the fort. O'Neill killed the English leader with his own hands. One thousand two hundred of the English fell, and all their stores and ammunition were captured by the Irish, as well as the fort itself. The forces engaged on each side amounted to something like 5,000 men. This victory led at the time to an almost general revolt of the natives.

"Sydney Papers."

Bladensburg, The Battle of (August 24, 1814), fought during the American War, took its name from a small village on the left bank of the eastern branch of the Potomac. This position commanded the only bridge over the river; and here the American general, Winder, prepared to oppose the advance of the British, under General Ross, upon Washington. To effect their object it was necessary for the British to carry the bridge and the commanding position of the Americans. Ross accordingly formed his forces into two columns, one under Thornton, the other commanded by Brooke. The attack was entrusted to the former; and so fierce an onslaught did his column make upon the defenders of the bridge that it was carried immediately. On the other side of the river, Thornton's column was joined by Brooke's men, and a general attack was made upon the American position. One impetuous charge carried it, and the American army broke in confusion, and, flying through Washington, never stopped till they had taken up a position on the heights of Georgetown. The British entered Washington without encountering any further opposition.

R. Johnson, "American War of 1812–15," 1882.

Blake, Robert (1599–1657), was born at Bridgwater and educated at Oxford. He sat in the Long Parliament as member for Bridgwater. At the outbreak of the Civil War he raised a regiment, took part in the defence of Bristol, and successfully held Taunton against the Royalists. In 1649 Colonel Blake was appointed one of the commanders of the navy, and shortly afterwards warden of the Cinque Ports. He was eminently successful as a naval commander. He drove Prince Rupert from the British seas to take refuge in the Tagus, and in January 1651 destroyed almost the entire Royalist fleet in Malaga harbour. Later in the year he recovered the Channel Island fortresses from the Royalists, and was made a member of the council of state. In May 1652 he fought a sharp but indecisive action with the Dutch in the Strait of Dover; and on September 18 defeated them in the Downs. In November he fought a terrible engagement against the Dutch under Van Tromp, whose forces were greatly superior. The English were defeated and compelled to take refuge in the Thames. Blake was present in the bloody and obstinate engagements in February and June 1653, but, owing to ill-health, took no part in the great English victory of July 31, in which Van Tromp was killed. When war broke out between England and Spain in 1656, Blake was appointed to command the English fleet in the Mediterranean. In April 1657 he performed the daring feat of sailing into the harbour of Tenerife in spite of the fire from the forts, and captured a large fleet of galleons which lay at anchor there. He died the year following, just as he was entering Plymouth Sound. He was buried in Westminster Abbey, but after the Restoration his remains were disinterred and hung at Tyburn. Clarendon speaks in very high terms of his ability as a naval commander. "He was the first man that declined the old track, and made it manifest that the science might be attained in less time than was imagined; and despised those rules which had been long in practice, to keep his ship and his men out of danger, which had been held in former times a point of great ability and circumspection; as if the principal art requisite in the captain of a ship had been to be sure to come safe home again."

Clarendon, "History of the Rebellion"; Whitelocke, "Memorials" (ed. Oxford, 1853); C. H. Firth, "Cromwell," 1890; D. Hannay, "Robert Blake," 1886. [F. S. P.]

Blanche, Daughter of Henry IV (1392–1409), was married in 1403 to Louis of Bavaria, eldest son of the Emperor Rupert.

Blanche of Lancaster. [Lancaster, The House of.]

Blanche of Navarre, wife of Edmund Crouchback (second son of Henry III), and mother of Thomas of Lancaster (q.v.), was the daughter of Robert of Artois, brother of St. Louis, and the widow of Henry, King of Navarre.

Bland, John (*d.* 1555), the rector of Adisham in Kent, was one of the martyrs of the Protestant persecution of Mary's reign. Being convicted of heresy by a commission composed of Thorneden, Bishop of Dover, Collins, the deputy of Cardinal Pole, and Nicholas Harpsfeld, the archdeacon, he was burnt at Canterbury.

J. A. Muller, "Gardiner and the Tudor Reaction," 1926.

Bland's Case (1585). John Bland, a currier of London, was brought to the bar of the House of Commons for using slanderous language, saying that the curriers could get no justice in the House, and that the shoemakers were unjustly favoured. On account of his poverty he was dismissed upon making his submission on his knees, and paying twenty shillings to the serjeant. This is an important precedent for the power of the House of Commons to punish even non-members for offences against its privileges.

D'Ewes, "Journals of the Parliaments of Queen Elizabeth," 1682, p. 366.

Blanketeers. The name given to a body of Manchester workmen who met at

St. Peter's Field, March 10, 1817, each man carrying a blanket or great-coat with him. It was intended to join the Derby rioters, and march on London; but the attempt proved completely abortive.

Spencer Walpole, "History of England from 1815," 1879.

Blasphemy. Before the Reformation, offences against religion, of which blasphemy was one, were almost exclusively dealt with in the ecclesiastical courts, and several statutes, passed in the fifteenth century, gave the bishops power to deal with the offence. These powers were not finally dropped till the temporary suppression of the ecclesiastical courts in 1640, and their revival after the Restoration without the *ex-officio* oath. In 1676 the common law writ, *de hæretico comburendo*, was abolished by parliament; but the judges of King's Bench, like the Star Chamber, had already begun to treat blasphemy as a criminal misdemeanour at common law. It has been held to consist of denial of the being and providence of God, or uttering contumelious reproaches against Jesus Christ or the Holy Ghost, or denying the truth of Christianity. According to the celebrated judgment of Sir Matthew Hale in the case of Rex v. Taylor, "Christianity is parcel of the law of England, and therefore to reproach the Christian religion is to speak in subversion of the law" (1676). This rule was acted on for the next 150 years, and was extended from blasphemous words to blasphemous libels; but in the nineteenth century it was held (e.g., by Lord Coleridge in the case of Reg. v. Foote and Ramsay, in 1883) that a person may attack the fundamentals of religion without being guilty of a blasphemous libel "if the decencies of controversy are observed"; and this view has since been confirmed. Penalties against blasphemy were enacted by 9 and 10 Will. III, c. 32, by 53 Geo. III, c. 160, and by 60 Geo. III, c. 8; but no one has been debarred from office under the first of these acts, or banished according to the last, which was repealed in 1830. In Scotland a statute of 1661 prescribed the penalty of death for blasphemy, which was mitigated to fines and imprisonment by 6 Geo. IV, and 7 Will. IV, and 1 Vict., c. 5. If the blasphemy is published otherwise than by word of mouth, it is called a blasphemous libel.

Sir J. Stephen, "History of the Criminal Law"; Halsbury, "Laws of England"; Odger, "Digest of the Law of Libel and Slander."

Blenheim, The Battle of (August 13, 1704), was fought during the third campaign in the War of the Spanish Succession. Louis XIV had determined to menace Vienna, hoping to strike at the heart of the Austrian power, and at the same time to make full use of the assistance of his Bavarian ally. Marlborough, however, perceived his object and effected a junction with Prince Eugene, who commanded the Imperial forces in Würtemberg. They were hampered by their colleague, Prince Louis of Baden, a general of the old formal school. The Schellenberg, a hill above Donauwörth, was stormed, and the Bavarians driven from it. Next day Marshal Tallard effected a junction with the armies of Marshal Marsin and the Elector of Bavaria. Marlborough and Eugene got rid of Louis of Baden by persuading him to attack the fortress of Ingolstadt, and prepared for a decisive battle near Blindheim or Blenheim. This village was situated on the northern bank of the Danube, near the place where it is joined by a little brook, the Nebel. About two miles away, and nearly parallel to the river, is a range of low wooded hills. The small stream of the Nebel runs from these hills. The Nebel divided the two armies. Marlborough commanded the left of the allied forces, Eugene the right. Tallard was opposed to Marlborough, the Elector of Bavaria and Marsin to Eugene. Tallard committed the great error of throwing all his best troops into Blenheim, thereby weakening the centre. The attack of Lord Cutts on the village was repulsed. Marlborough, seeing the weakness of the French centre, threw his cavalry across the Nebel, and after a terrific struggle cut the French line in two. Meanwhile, on the right, Eugene only saved the battle by the steadiness of his Prussian infantry. He had been greatly hampered by the difficulties of the ground. Marlborough's cavalry charge on the French centre had won the day. The French cavalry fled; Tallard was taken prisoner. The French troops in Blenheim were surrounded, and surrendered after a gallant resistance; but the forces opposed to Eugene retreated in good order. The allies are computed to have lost 11,000 men out of an army of 52,000, the French altogether 40,000 out of 60,000, including 14,000 prisoners. The broken army of the enemy retreated with extreme rapidity, and withdrew beyond the Rhine.

Marlborough's "Correspondence"; biographies of Marlborough.

Bligh, Captain William (1754–1817), well known in connexion with the mutiny on the *Bounty*, in April 1789, which was caused by his tyrannical conduct, was in 1805 appointed governor of New South Wales, but his appointment was so unpopular, and his conduct so harsh and despotic, that in January 1808 he was deposed by the colonists and the other civil and military officers of the colony, and sent back to England. [Pitcairn Island.]

Sir J. Barrow, "Mutiny of the *Bounty*," 1831 and 1914.

Blockade. [Neutrality; Armed Neutrality; Paris, The Declaration of.]

Blockade, The American. It is a principle of international law that a state cannot blockade its own ports. When, therefore, the American Civil War broke out in 1861, President Lincoln had to choose between the blockade or the declaration that the Con-

federate ships were pirates. The American government chose the former, and in April declared the ports of the revolted provinces to be blockaded. This practically acknowledged the existence of war with the Confederates, and the British government were therefore justified in recognizing the Southern states as belligerents, which was done May 14, 1861. The Federal government protested that the recognition by Great Britain was an unfriendly act, but subsequent writers on international law, both American and British, are agreed that Great Britain was acting strictly according to the recognized principles of the law of nations.

Wheaton, "International Law"; Phillimore, "International Law"; J. F. Rhodes, "History of the Civil War, 1861–5," 1917.

Bloet, Robert, Bishop of Lincoln (*d.* 1123), though born of obscure parentage, was chancellor to both William the Conqueror and William Rufus until his appointment to the see of Lincoln in 1093. Under Henry I he was made justiciar and was that king's most trusted adviser. In 1102 he besieged Robert of Belesme's castle of Tickhill for the king. Later he lost the king's favour and retired from public life. His see of Lincoln was partitioned in 1109, when Ely was made a bishopric.

Henry of Huntingdon, "Hist. Anglor.," p. 300 (Rolls Series).

Blois, Peter of (*d.* 1200), was descended from a noble family of Brittany, and studied at Paris and Bologna. Subsequently he taught at Paris, and was invited to England by Henry II. He became "cancellarius" to Richard, Archbishop of Canterbury, and afterwards to Baldwin, and archdeacon of Bath about 1175. For his support of William Longchamp he was deprived of the latter office about 1191. Afterwards, however, he was made archdeacon of London and prebendary of St. Paul's. He was the author of numerous letters, more than 200 of which are extant. Many of them are very valuable for their notices of the politics and manners of the writer's age. Peter was long credited with a Continuation of the spurious Chronicle of Ingulf; but the work is a manifest forgery.

Hardy, "Descriptive Catalogue," ii, 128; for the Letters see Giles, "Patres Ecclesiæ Anglicanæ," 1847; Migne, "Patrologia," vol. 207.

Blondel, or Blondian, de Nesle, was a celebrated French trouveur who became attached to the court of Richard I. He is said to have discovered the place of the king's imprisonment in Austria by singing the king's own favourite lays before each keep and fortress till the unfinished song was at length taken up and answered from the windows of the castle of Dürenstein, where Richard was imprisoned. The story, however, does not appear until some seventy years after the events it purports to describe and has been generally rejected as mythical. The searchers officially sent from England were the Abbots of Boxley and Robertsbridge, who eventually discovered the king at the castle of Ochsenfurt on his way to the emperor's presence at Spire.

K. Norgate, "Richard Cœur de Lion," 1924.

Blood, Colonel Thomas (*d.* 1680), was an Irish soldier of fortune remarkable for his reckless audacity. In 1663 he joined a conspiracy to seize Dublin Castle, but the plot being discovered, he fled. In 1670 he seized the Duke of Ormonde in the streets of London with the intention of hanging him at Tyburn, but the duke fortunately escaped. In the next year Blood distinguished himself by attempting to carry off the regalia from the Tower, and very nearly succeeded in his object. Charles II, however, pardoned him, and gave him an estate worth £500 a year.

"Essay on Colonel Blood" by W. C. Abbott, 1915.

Bloody Assizes. [Assizes, The Bloody.]

Blore Heath, The Battle of (1459), was fought, during the Wars of the Roses, between the Lancastrians, under Lord Audley, and the Yorkists, who were commanded by the Earl of Salisbury. The latter was marching southwards with the intention of effecting a junction with the Duke of York, and Lord Audley was dispatched to intercept him. They met on Blore Heath, about two miles and a half from Market Drayton, in Staffordshire. The Yorkists, though inferior in numbers, were completely victorious. Lord Audley, and many other leading men on the same side, were killed, and a large number of prisoners were taken. Salisbury's further march was uninterrupted, and he effected a junction with the Duke of York at Ludlow.

R. B. Mowat, "Wars of the Roses," 1914.

Blount, Charles, Earl of Devon (1563–1606), was the second son of the 6th Lord Mountjoy. Having won the favour of Queen Elizabeth, he became a rival of Essex, with whom he fought a duel, though afterwards the two became great friends. In 1594 Blount, who had now become Lord Mountjoy by the death of his brother, was made governor of Portsmouth, and three years later accompanied Essex on his unfortunate expedition to the Azores. In 1601 he was made lord deputy of Ireland, and successfully crushed the rebellion of Tyrone, after storming Kinsale (December 1601). He was created Earl of Devon by James I in 1603, and died in 1606.

Blount, Elizabeth, Lady Tailbois (*d.* 1540 ?), was the daughter of Sir John Blount, and the wife of Sir Gilbert Tailbois (*d.* 1530), at one time governor of Calais. She was one of Henry VIII's favourite mistresses, and the son (Henry Fitzroy) whom she bore him was specially distinguished by the marks of his father's regard, being created successively Earl of Nottingham and Duke of Richmond and Somerset.

Blue Books, or the reports and documents printed by order of parliament, covered

usually with blue paper, were first issued in 1681, and first sold to the public in 1836 at the rate of a halfpenny per sheet of four pages. They correspond to the French Yellow Books, Italian Green Books, etc.

Board of Trade, etc. [TRADE, BOARD OF, etc.]

Bocher, JOAN (Joan of Kent) (*d.* 1550), was an Anabaptist who was condemned by the commissioners appointed to inquire into heresy in 1549. Their report being that she held heretical and erroneous opinions on the nature of the incarnation, she was burnt at Smithfield, May 2, 1550.

Bocland, in Anglo-Saxon legal phraseology, was land held by "book" or charter, as distinguished from "folkland," or land held by folk-right (national custom). Bocland could only be created in virtue of a formal act of the king and his witan. From the seventh century onward the practice of "bocking" land (especially churches and monasteries) became increasingly prevalent, and it early became customary to include in the charter a clause of exemption or immunity freeing the land from some or all of the services and dues with which it had been burdened. In some cases it was even exempted from the "trinoda necessitas." Land held by book was held in full ownership and was alienable by gift or will. [LAND TENURE.]

F. W. Maitland, "Domesday Book and Beyond," 3rd edn., 1921; P. Vinogradoff, "Growth of the Manor," 1905.

Boer War, THE, is the name given to the struggle which lasted from October 1899 to May 1902 between Great Britain and the Boer republics of the Transvaal and the Orange Free State. The Boers first attacked Natal, were checked at Talana Hill and beaten by French at Elandslaagte. But Ladysmith and Kimberley were besieged by the Boers, and Buller had to defer his attack on the Orange Free State. Methuen's column to relieve Kimberley was defeated at Magersfontein, and Buller repulsed at Tugela River in December. Immediately Buller was replaced as commander-in-chief by Roberts with Kitchener as chief of staff, and volunteers were enrolled for the war. French was holding De Wet and De la Rey at Colesberg, and in spite of two reverses with which Buller met at Spion Kop and Vaalkrantz, French was able to relieve Kimberley and Roberts to advance on the Orange Free State by February. Cronje surrendered at Paardeberg, after being cut off, and the war changed from one of attack to one of guerrilla warfare waged by Boer farmer squadrons in their own country. Buller succeeded in fighting through to Ladysmith, which was relieved on February 28, 1900. The Boers evacuated Natal, Roberts occupied Bloemfontein, Mafeking was relieved on May 17, and on May 24 the Orange Free State was annexed. Pretoria was occupied immediately, and Prinsloo surrendered two months afterwards. Roberts and Buller joined forces, and after the flight of Kruger and the occupation of Koomati Poort (September 25), Roberts sailed for home, having annexed the Transvaal.

Then followed eighteen months of vigorous guerrilla warfare which even spread to disaffected Cape Dutch. Thirty thousand more troops were dispatched to South Africa, large tracts of land were devastated, and Kitchener organized systematic extirpation of the worst areas. De Wet's invasion of the Cape in February 1901 had failed, and Kitchener organized a series of cavalry drives from a base of fortified block-houses, clearing vast areas of inhabitants, placing women and children in concentration camps, and fighting or capturing the men. At a mass meeting of representative burghers at Vereeniging, a majority decided on surrender; and after some discussion peace was signed at Pretoria on May 31, 1902, and proclaimed the day following. Among the conditions of peace the following were the most important. All burghers to have complete immunity on laying down their arms and taking the oath of allegiance to King Edward; the Dutch language to be taught in schools at the request of parents, and to be allowed in law courts; the Boers to be permitted to own sporting rifles; martial law to be replaced as soon as possible by civil administration, representative government to follow in due course; the question of native franchise not to be considered until such government be granted; £3,000,000 to be given to the farmers as compensation for damage done to their farms; and a commission to be formed to repatriate burghers. Subsequently in the Imperial parliament the sum of £8,000,000 was voted, to be apportioned for grants to burghers to aid them in resuming their normal employments; for grants in respect of losses incurred through the operations of war; for supplementary loans, to be repaid after a term of years at 3 per cent. interest. The first and second amounts were to be charged on Imperial funds; the third on the colonial governments. On the British side 5,774 officers and men were killed in action, and 22,829 wounded; of the Boers about 4,000 were killed, while the number of their wounded is uncertain. There were 40,000 Boer prisoners at the end of the war. At least 250,000 British troops were on duty in 1902, and over 20,000 died of diseases.

Sir A. Conan Doyle, "The Great Boer War," 1902; "*The Times* History of the War in South Africa," 1900–9; Sir F. Maurice, "The Official History," 1906–10; "The German Staff History," English translation, 1905.

Bohemia, RELATIONS WITH. Dealings between England and Bohemia begin with the grant of the Emperor Henry VII to his son John, which established a German line of kings in Bohemia, and involved it in Western

politics. John constantly resided in France, and, as the opponent of Louis of Bavaria and the friend of Philip of Valois, was led by his restless chivalry to take part in the war against England, which ended by his death at Crecy (1346). His son, Charles IV, was of a more practical temperament; and the same Diet at Metz which accepted the Golden Bull witnessed his attempted mediation between France and England. In time more intimate relations grew up on the marriage of Anne of Bohemia, his daughter, with Richard II. Under Wenzel, her brother, still more than under Charles, the Luxemburg house had become national kings of Bohemia at the expense of the Imperial dignity, which degenerated into a mere title. Hence close dealings between Bohemia and England; and as Catholicism and the papacy were associated with the hated German influence, the Bohemian national party greedily listened to the doctrines of Wyclif, which all the Bohemians at Richard's court had ample opportunities of learning. What in England was mere abstract dialectic, and at best the expression of inarticulate discontent, was turned by Bohemian patriotism into the watchwords of a national party of religious Puritanism. Prague became a more popular Oxford. Jerome of Prague actually brought Wyclif's teaching from the Thames to the Moldau. The direction taken by Huss was entirely the result of English influence. In one library there are still five treatises of Wyclif copied out in his own hand, with copious notes. Henry V had already become intimately allied to Sigismund by their common efforts to restore the unity of Christendom. A fresh link of orthodox antagonism to heresy united the sovereigns if it separated the peoples. The Council of Constance marked the time of their closest approximation. With the suppression of the national movement, Bohemia sank into insignificance or dependence. Ferdinand I united its crown with the Austrian house. Only on the last attempt at the assertion of Bohemian nationality, which in 1618 led to the endeavour to set aside Ferdinand of Styria for Frederick of the Palatinate, the son-in-law of James I, were direct relations between the two states renewed. But though the cause of the Protestant Pfalzgraf was exceedingly popular in England, James refused to support him until it was too late. The battle on the Weissberg (1620) destroyed at once the fortunes of Frederick and Elizabeth, and the nationality and independence of the Czech kingdom.

Creighton's "History of the Papacy" (Bk. II, ch. iii and iv) brings out very clearly the connexion between Huss and Wyclif. Cf. Milman, "Latin Christianity" (vol. viii); Count F. Lutzow, "History of Bohemia," 1896 and 1920. [T. F. T.]

Bohun, The Family of, was founded by a certain Humphrey de Bohun, said to have been a kinsman of William I. In 1200 Henry de Bohun was created Earl of Hereford by John. He inherited the office of hereditary constable from his father Humphrey, whose mother was the daughter of Miles, Earl of Hereford and lord high constable. He married the daughter of Geoffrey Fitz-Peter, Earl of Essex, and upon the death of his brother-in-law William, the last Earl of Essex of the house of Mandeville, succeeded to his estates. His son Humphrey, 2nd Earl of Hereford, was created Earl of Essex about 1236. William de Bohun—who fought at Crecy—fourth son of the 4th Earl of Hereford, was created Earl of Northampton 1337. His son succeeded to the earldoms of Hereford, Essex, and Northampton, and died 1372, leaving two daughters, Eleanor—who married Thomas of Woodstock, Duke of Gloucester—and Mary—who married Henry of Bolingbroke (afterwards Henry IV), who thus gained the earldoms of Hereford, Essex, and Northampton.

Bohun, Eleanor de, Duchess of Gloucester. [Gloucester, Thomas of Woodstock, Duke of.]

Bohun, Humphrey de, 3rd Earl of Hereford, 2nd Earl of Essex (*d.* 1298), lord high constable of England, succeeded to his grandfather's title and estates in the year 1275. His father had been a supporter of Simon de Montfort, and the son inherited the traditions of the baronial party. This Earl of Hereford is chiefly remarkable for having headed with Roger Bigod the marshal (q.v.) the opposition to Edward I's demands in 1297, and refused to serve the king abroad. Their alliance was instrumental in securing the confirmation of the Charters in 1297 and again in 1300. Hereford's conduct on this occasion was probably actuated by a desire for revenge for his imprisonment in 1292.

Bohun, Humphrey de, 4th Earl of Hereford and 3rd Earl of Essex (*d.* 1322), was the son of the above, and married Elizabeth, the seventh daughter of Edward I. He inherited something of the spirit of his father, and was one of the Ordainers in 1310. Eight years later he was appointed one of the four earls in the permanent council of 1318. In 1321 he was forbidden to attend a meeting of the aggrieved lords, at which he meditated exposing his wrongs. His great cause of complaint was the power of the Despensers, who were threatening his influence on the Welsh Marches. In the same year he was the chief prosecutor of the Despensers in parliament, and was formally pardoned for the part he took in these proceedings. Edward, however, took prompt action in defence of his favourites, and next year Bohun was slain at the battle of Boroughbridge (1322).

Bois-le-Duc, The Battle of (November 12, 1794), was fought during the campaign of the allies with the British contingent under the Duke of York, in Flanders. For some time great preparations had been pushed forward by Moreau in obedience to the in-

structions of the Committee of Public Safety at Paris, who were resolved on subjugating Holland while the severity of the winter had neutralized the defensive advantages of the country. To carry out this project, the first step was to cross the Meuse, and, with this object in view, boats for a bridge had been collected at Fort Crèvecœur on that river. When all preparations had been completed, the passage was attempted at daybreak on November 12. But the firm resistance of the allies, under the Duke of York, prevented all the attempts of the French; and at length, seeing that it was impossible to carry the passage, Moreau desisted from the attempt, and placed his troops in winter quarters between the Meuse and the Rhine.

J. W. Fortescue, "History of the British Army," vol. iv, 1906; Sir W. Alison, "History of Europe."

Boleyn, Anne (1507–36). [Anne Boleyn.]

Boleyn, George, Viscount Rochford (*d.* 1536), was ennobled immediately after the marriage of his sister Anne with Henry VIII (February 1533). In 1536 he was accused of immoral intercourse with his sister, and executed on May 17. His wife was executed with Catherine Howard (February 13, 1542), on the charge of having been an accomplice in that queen's treason.

Boleyn, Mary. An elder sister of Anne Boleyn, second queen of Henry VIII, and at one time herself an object of the king's passionate admiration. This, however, was one of Henry's earlier attachments, and took place at a period when his affection for Katharine of Aragon was still sufficiently strong to prevent his seriously entertaining any idea of a second marriage by means of a divorce. Mary Boleyn married, in July 1521, Sir William Pavey, a descendant of the Beaufort family; and disappearing for a while from the vicinity of the court, was spared any renewal of the king's attentions.

Biographies of Anne Bolcyn.

Boleyn, Sir Thomas, Earl of Wiltshire (1477–1539), was the father of the ill-fated Anne Boleyn. When first made aware of the king's passion for his daughter, he does not appear to have given Henry's wishes any sort of encouragement. On the contrary, when the king, after breaking off the courtship then going on between Anne Boleyn and Lord Henry Percy, visited him suddenly at his house at Hever, Sir Thomas Boleyn, though fully aware of the real object of Henry's visit, did not give him any opportunity of seeing or conversing with his daughter. In course of time, however, both he and his daughter yielded to the king's perseverance, and Sir Thomas, in view of his future greatness as father-in-law of the king, was made successively Viscount Rochford and Earl of Wiltshire. [Anne Boleyn.]

Bolingbroke, Henry. [Henry IV.]

Bolingbroke, Henry St. John, Viscount (1678–1751). [St. John.]

Bolingbroke, Roger (*d.* 1441), a chaplain of Humphrey, Duke of Gloucester, was executed for having conspired with Eleanor Cobham, Duchess of Gloucester, to destroy King Henry VI by magical incantations.

M. R. James, "Henry VI," 1919.

Bolton Castle, in the West Riding of Yorkshire, was the scene of Mary Stuart's imprisonment, 1568. The intrigues of the Queen of Scots caused her to be removed in the following year to the "straiter custody" of the Earl of Shrewsbury at Tutbury.

Bombay. A presidency and governorship of British India. The town and island of Bombay were ceded to England in 1661, as part of the dowry of Catherine of Braganza on her marriage with Charles II. A few years afterwards it was handed over to the East India Company in return for a nominal annual payment. In 1687 Bombay was constituted a separate presidency; but in 1753 it was under the authority of the Calcutta government. The dominions of the presidency were very limited in extent until the wars with the Mahrattas, comprehending only the town and island of Bombay, with Salsette and Bassein; by the end of the administration of the Marquis of Hastings it included Surat, Broach, Ahmednuggur, Belgaum, Sholapur, and the whole dominions which had belonged to the Poona state, with the exception of Sattara, which was annexed in 1848. In 1843, on the conquest of Sind, that province was also placed under the governor of Bombay.

Bond of Association (1584). [Association.]

Boniface of Savoy (*d.* 1270), Archbishop of Canterbury (1241–70), was the son of Thomas, Count of Savoy, and consequently uncle to Eleanor of Provence, wife of Henry III. To this connexion he owed his appointment to the archbishopric. He was one of the most unclerical and most unpopular of our archbishops; his sympathies were with the foreigners at Henry III's court, and his tastes were military. At times when his interests seemed to be opposed by the Poitevins he sided with the barons, but his policy was a purely selfish one, and seen through by all parties. During the Barons' War he was absent from England, but returned after the battle of Evesham, and accompanied Prince Edward on his Crusade.

K. Norgate, "Minority of Henry III," 1912.

Boniface, Saint (680–755), the apostle of Germany, was born probably at Crediton, and became a monk first at Exeter and later at Nursling. His original name was Winfrith. After an abortive visit to Frisia in 716 he set out two years later for Rome, and received a commission from Gregory II to preach to the

heathen nations of Germany. His earnest missionary labours met with the greatest success in Bavaria, Thuringia, Hessia, and Frisia, and immense numbers were converted. He laboured in Central Germany under the patronage of Charles Martel for more than thirty years, establishing among others the bishoprics of Salzburg, Passau, Freising, Ratisbon, Würzburg, and Erfurt, and a very large number of monasteries. His influence in civilizing and evangelizing the wilder parts of Germany was very great. Besides labouring as a missionary, and organizing the newly converted districts, Boniface was entrusted by the pope with the reformation of the Frankish Church. He became Archbishop of Mainz, and his efforts made that see the Canterbury of Germany. He was assisted by numerous missionaries, whom he sent for from England, and was high in favour with the Carolingian princes. Pepin is said to have been crowned king by Boniface at Soissons. In 755 he made his last missionary journey into Friesland; but near Dokkeim he was attacked and slain by a band of the pagans. His remains were buried in one of the most famous of his abbeys—that of Fulda.

"Works," ed. Giles (London, 1842). See also "Vita S. Bonifacii" in Mabillon, vol. iv; Browne, "Boniface of Crediton and his Companions"; G. W. Robinson (ed.), "Willibrod's Life of Boniface," 1916.

Bonner, Edmund (c. 1500–69), successively Bishop of Hereford and of London, said to have been the natural son of a priest named Savage, studied at Broadgates Hall, Oxford, and became one of Wolsey's chaplains. He subsequently attached himself to Cromwell, and in 1532 was sent on a mission to the pope concerning the divorce question. According to Burnet, his demeanour greatly enraged Clement, "who talked of throwing him into a cauldron of melted lead, or of burning him alive." In 1538 he was made Bishop of Hereford, and in 1539 translated to London. During Henry VIII's reign Bonner was a leading member of the Anglican Conservative party led by Gardiner and Norfolk, but on the accession of Edward VI he declined to follow the advanced Reformers, and protested against Cranmer's homilies and injunctions. For this he was committed to the Fleet, and, although soon liberated, was tried by a special commission in 1549, deprived of his bishopric, and imprisoned in the Marshalsea. He was restored by Queen Mary, and was one of the most active agents in carrying out her reactionary policy. He restored the Mass in St. Paul's even before the publication of the royal ordinance which commanded it, accepted the restoration of the papal authority, despite his former policy, and his diocese was distinguished by the number of persons burnt in it, and the vindictive energy with which the bishop pushed on the work of persecution. At the accession of Queen Elizabeth, when he appeared before the queen to tender his allegiance, she shrank from him with undisguised aversion. In May 1559, refusing to take the oath of supremacy, he was deprived and indicted for *præmunire*. He was committed to the Marshalsea, where he passed the remainder of his life.

Book of Common Prayer. [Prayer Book.]

Book of Discipline. [Discipline, Book of.]

Book of Sports, etc. [Sports, Book of, etc.]

Booth, Henry, Lord Delamere (1652–94), sat as member for Chester in the reign of James II, after being accused of taking part in the Rye House Plot and Monmouth's rebellion, and tried in the Lord High Steward's Court. Although Jeffreys, whom Delamere had formerly called a "drunken jack-pudding," employed all his brutality against him, Delamere was acquitted. The verdict was most popular. On the arrival of the Prince of Orange in England, Delamere rose for him at the head of his tenants in Cheshire, and marched to Manchester. He was one of the messengers sent by the House of Lords to James, requesting him to retire to Ham on the Thames. He was placed on the treasury bench and made chancellor of the exchequer. He soon quarrelled with his colleagues, Mordaunt and Godolphin, and attempted to drive Halifax from office. On the appointment of Carmarthen as chief minister, he retired from office, and was created Earl of Warrington (1690). Large grants of lands belonging to Jesuits were made to him, and a large sum paid him for expenses incurred at the time of the Revolution. Nevertheless, he complained bitterly of the injustice of his treatment. He is supposed to have written a bitter pamphlet when Tory lord-lieutenants were substituted for Whigs. He protested against the rejection of the Place Bill of 1692. "He was," says Macaulay, "a zealous Whig . . . gloomy and acrimonious."

Booth, Lawrence (*d.* 1480), Archbishop of York (1476–80), after holding several minor preferments, was in 1457 appointed Bishop of Durham. He sided with the Lancastrians, and his temporalities were seized by Edward IV, but he subsequently reconciled himself with the king, and from 1473 to 1474 acted as chancellor during the illness of Bishop Stillington. He was appointed to the archbishopric of York in 1476.

Booth, William (1829–1912), was the founder of the Salvation Army, which originated in the East London Revival Society (1864) and took its present name in 1878. Booth organized it on the lines of the regular army. Under his leadership the movement was extended to the United States, Australia, India, and throughout Europe.

Biography by W. Booth, 1912.

Borders, The. The English invasion established in the north-east of Britain the

kingdom of Northumberland, which extended from the Humber to the Forth. West of this the Celtic kingdom of Strathclyde extended from the Dee to the Clyde. North were the Celtic kingdoms of the Picts and Scots. In 829 Northumbria submitted to the supremacy of Ecgbert, King of Wessex, and after the repulse of the Danes that supremacy was still further extended. In 919 the princes of Northumbria, Strathclyde, and Scotland submitted to Edward the Elder. In 945 the kingdom of Strathclyde or, more probably, the Scandinavian settlement in Cumbria, was conquered by Edmund, but subsequently granted by him to the Scottish king. Similarly, Lothian was granted to the Scottish king by Canute. In 1092 William II took Cumberland, and from that time the boundaries between England and Scotland were the Solway, the Cheviot Hills, and the River Tweed. At the time of the Norman Conquest, Scotland became the refuge of many of the English, and Lothian remained the most purely English part of the two kingdoms. William I, finding it difficult to keep his hold on the northern part of England, resorted in 1069 to the savage measure of ravaging Northumberland. The northern counties were laid waste, and the subsequent inroads of the Scottish king completed the work of devastation. The northern counties are omitted in the Domesday Survey, probably because they were not considered worth the trouble of examining. The disputes between England and Scotland exposed the Border to perpetual ravages. But attempts were made to introduce order, and the thirteenth century saw Cumberland and Northumberland tolerably prosperous in agricultural pursuits. It is probable that the necessities of constant defence enabled the men of the Borders to retain many of the old English customs more definitely than was the case elsewhere. The township organization was not superseded by the manor, and traces of its existence till recent times are frequent. In 1249 an attempt was made to promote peace on the Borders by the issue of Border laws, which were determined by an inquest of twelve English and twelve Scottish knights. They related to the trial of malefactors who fled across the Borders, and the redress of grievances amongst the Borderers themselves. They recognized courts to be held on the Marches, at which English and Scots were to meet and try their respective criminals. Peace and prosperity were, however, destroyed by the Scottish wars of Edward I. From that time England and Scotland stood in avowed hostility, and a perpetual warfare was waged on the Borders of the two kingdoms. The land was divided into three Marches, the Eastern, the Western, and the Middle, and over each was set a warden to provide for its defence. The chief military road was along the east coast, from Newcastle through Berwick or Coldstream, and along this the chief battles between English and Scots were fought. But the passes by the valley which runs from the Cheviots were mostly used for the incessant plundering raids that marked Border life. Along the valleys of the Jed, the Teviot, the Coquet, the Tyne, and the Rede freebooters from both countries were perpetually ravaging. The state of life along the Borders is sufficiently seen in the aspect of the country. It is rich in ruined castles, vast fortified piles in strong positions, dating in their main parts from the fourteenth century. Besides these are ruins of monastic buildings (those along the Tweed being especially famous) which were the sole abodes of peace, yet even they bear traces of careful fortification, and were generally under the shelter of a neighbouring castle. The only other buildings of any antiquity are low square towers, called *peil towers*, which sufficed as shelter against a sudden raid of robbers. They probably stood in an enclosure, which contained the cattle hastily driven away. Some of the older churches have towers of the same kind, which were used for defence. The dwellings of the people were mere hovels, and their possessions were nothing but arms and cattle. Of Border frays, the battle of Otterburn (1388) (q.v.) is the most famous, and has passed into legend under the name of "Chevy Chase." The great families on the Borders grew to be important men. The Percys, Greys, Dacres, and Umfravilles are famous in English history; and the Douglases, Hepburns, Lindsays, and Durbans are no less famous in the history of Scotland. Moreover, families of freebooters formed themselves into powerful clans, and waged hereditary feuds amongst themselves—the Armstrongs, Elliots, Charltons, and the like. After the battle of Flodden Field (1513) (q.v.) Scotland was greatly weakened, and Henry VIII made use of the robber warfare along the Borders as a means of still further reducing the Scottish power. The records of plunder and bloodshed which have been preserved show almost incredible barbarity. The result of this long-continued warfare was an entire lawlessness among the Borderers: they regarded plunder as their trade, and bloodshed as an episode in their life. When peace was made between England and Scotland in 1549, it became an object of importance for both countries to bring their Borders into order. Regulations were made for that purpose; but they could not be enforced. A watch was set along the English Borders; each hamlet sent its men to keep guard by night, and the news of a Scottish inroad was flashed by beacon light from place to place. The Wardens' Courts were regularly held, and the balance of bloodshed and rapine was adjusted between the two countries. But how difficult it was to keep the peace was shown in 1575, when, at a Wardens' Court held at Redeguise,

some disagreement led to an appeal to arms, and the English warden was carried away prisoner. This occurrence threatened to lead to a breach between the two countries, and gave rise to long negotiations. The carefulness of Elizabeth's government is nowhere seen more clearly than in the steady attempt to introduce order into the English Border. The union of the crowns of England and Scotland in the person of James I increased the general desire to pacify the Border. There was no longer war between England and Scotland; but theft and murder had become hereditary. The dwellers of one valley were the immemorial foes of those in another. It was necessary to root out blood-feuds and robbery by strict justice, and Lord William Howard, known as "Belted Will," did much to make the law respected. The rudiments of civilization had to be introduced, and the bad habits of the past were slow in dying away. Redesdale, Tynedale, Liddesdale, and Teviotdale were wild and lawless places, and retained traces of their old characteristics up to the beginning of the nineteenth century. Now there are no more orderly people than those of the Borders, and nowhere is agricultural enterprise and prosperity more marked.

Bishop Nicholson, "Leges Marchiarum"; C. Ridpath, "Border History," 1776; Hodgson, "History of Northumberland"; Sir W. Scott, "Border Antiquities"; Raine, "History of North Durham"; H. Maxwell, "History of Dumfries and Galloway," 1896; G. Douglas, "History of the Border Counties," 1899; "Victoria County History: Cumberland, Durham"; H. Pease, "The Lord Wardens of the Marches of England and Scotland," 1913.

[M. C.]

Borh. [Frankpledge.]

Born, Bertrand de (*d.* c. 1210), one of the most famous troubadours, played an important part in the quarrels between Henry II and his sons. He took up the cause of Eleanor of Guienne, and subsequently joined the Poitevin rebellion against Richard, inciting by his verses the young Prince Henry against his father. Taken prisoner at Limoges, he was set at liberty by Henry II, and eventually ended his days in the monastery of Citeaux.

Borneo, a large island of the Malay Archipelago (293,496 sq. miles), is divided into four political areas: British North Borneo, Brunei, Sarawak, and Dutch Borneo. The island has never been a political unit. It became known to Europeans in 1511, when Albuquerq sent d'Abreu on a voyage, but was first visited in 1522 by some of Magellan's survivors. In 1580 Spain obtained permission to trade there, but was soon followed by Dutch trading posts (1604) and by the British East India Company (1609), who in 1698 set up a British settlement at Banjermasin. British interest was negligible, in spite of Dalrymple's concession in 1759, until the advent of Sir James Brooke (q.v.). During the Napoleonic wars the Dutch had abandoned the island (1809), but were left in undisputed possession, with the restoration of Java in 1816. Brooke became Raja of Sarawak in 1842, and Dutch and British boundaries were defined in 1891 by treaty. Exploration of the island was hazardous, owing to both nature and the Dyak head hunters, but Dalrymple (1769), Tobias, Hartmann, and Müller in the eighteen-twenties, Henrici and Horner in the eighteen-thirties, followed by the ubiquitous Dr. Schwaner (1844–7), Von Gaffron, and Ida Pfeifer, by 1850 had made known much of the interior.

British North Borneo is a Moslem state of some 260,000 inhabitants, exploited and administered by the British North Borneo Company which was incorporated in 1882. Labuan had been occupied as a Crown colony in 1848, and in 1872 the Labuan Trading Company established a branch in Sandakan. Six years later Dent negotiated with the Sultan of Sulu the transference of all the trading rights in North Borneo to a syndicate of which he was a member. In 1881 the British North Borneo Provisional Association took over this concession and was incorporated as the British North Borneo Company in 1882. After various accessions, the company's territory in 1885 became, by agreement with the state of North Borneo, a British protectorate administered by the company. This was formally acknowledged in 1888. In 1890 Labuan was added to its sphere and direction, but was at its own request in 1905 transferred to the Straits Settlements. In 1898 a cession from the Sultan of Brunei rounded off the company's territory, but in the following years a campaign had to be fought against the natives. An exchange of territory in 1904 with Sarawak obtained for the company coaling rights on Brunei Bay. The governor is appointed by the company with the approval of the secretary of state, and is advised by a nominated legislative council of seven officials and five other members. The law is based on Indian criminal and civil procedure, while a separate court exists for Moslems.

Brunei is a native state under British protection since 1888. It was once a state of great power and its pirates were renowned among the sailors of the Eastern Archipelago. In 1906 a British resident was accepted by the governor to assist him in the administration. The resident is responsible to the governor of the Straits Settlements, who acts as high commissioner, and he is virtually the ruler of the country.

Sarawak is a protected state ruled by an hereditary British raja, assisted by a supreme council of four Europeans and five Malay magistrates, and a triennial general council of fifty European and Malay officials and native chiefs. The raja has an advisory council in England, consisting of his heir and three others, and appoints, to administer the government, a civil service of Englishmen. Sir James Brooke obtained in 1841 from the Sultan of Borneo the government of Sarawak, of which he became raja in 1842, and to which he greatly added by

concession. Great Britain has the right to decide succession disputes, and control foreign relations, but must not interfere in the internal administration.

C. Bock, "Head Hunters of Borneo," 1881; F. Hatton, "North Borneo," 1885; O. Rutter, "British North Borneo," 1922; S. Baring-Gould and C. A. Bamfylde, "The History of Sarawak, 1839–1908," 1909; Rance of Sarawak, "My Life in Sarawak," 1913; C. Bruce, "Twenty Years in Borneo," 1924; C. Hose and W. MacDougall, "Pagan Tribes of Borneo," 1912; "Handbook of the State of British North Borneo," 1921; Sir C. Brooke, "Ten Years in Sarawak, 1853–63"; J. Willis, "Early Relations of England with Borneo to 1805," 1922. [H. R.]

Boroughbridge, The Battle of (1322), during the barons' revolt in Edward II's reign, was fought between the royalists under the command of the king and Sir Andrew Harclay, and the baronial forces headed by the Earls of Lancaster and Hereford. The barons were routed, the Earl of Hereford slain, and the Earl of Lancaster taken prisoner and subsequently executed at Pontefract.

Biographies of Edward II.

Borough-English was the name given in England to a not unusual custom in certain manors "that lands shall descend to the youngest son, or, in default of issue, to the younger brother of the owner." Certain analogous extensions of the custom which, for example, gives rights of succession to the youngest daughter or sister, though not strictly included in the recognized custom of borough-English, may be roughly grouped with it under such a term as "ultimogeniture" (suggested by the Real Property Commissioners), "junior-right," or "juniority" (Elton). The foreign "Droit de Maineté," "Juveignerie," and "Jüngsten Recht," are closely analogous to borough-English. Concerning its origin we can only guess. The theory of the old lawyers that the youngest was naturally the weakest and wanted most attention, is obviously inadequate to explain it. Neither does Sir Henry Maine's view—that it sprang from the "patria potestas," and the youngest son inherited because the least likely to have forfeited his rights by emancipation—wholly cover the ground. Elton, while admitting that the problem is difficult, perhaps insoluble, suggested the theory that the custom might be a survival of very early times, perhaps pre-Aryan, certainly before Celt, Teuton, and Slav had branched off from their common parent stock. Just as primogeniture sprang from the Aryan domestic worship which it was the special function of the eldest to conduct, so "ultimogeniture" might be, he thought, a survival of ancestor-worship in a race that saw no pre-eminence in the eldest. The widespread nature of the custom has been held to support this view. Maitland believed, however, that it more probably had its origin in the will and interest of the lord; who was able to dictate a rule of inheritance to his dependent peasants which should safeguard the impartibility of the tenement by guaranteeing it to the "fireside" child. We read of it in England as far back as Glanvil's time, and by its modern name in the Year-book of the I Edward I. The custom occurs especially in the south-east of England, Kent, Surrey, and Sussex, and the environs of London, and less so in the eastern counties. It is also common in Somerset, but rare in the Midlands, and unknown north of the Humber. A very early form of the custom appears in the Welsh laws of the tenth century, and also in Brittany and other Celtic districts. It was also common in North France, Friesland, Westphalia, and, in modern times, in South Russia.

Elton, "Origins of English History"; Corner, "Borough-English in Sussex"; "Ancient Laws and Institutes of Wales" (Rolls Series); "Cod. Dim.," ii, 23, and "Cod. Vened.," ii, 12, 16; Pollock and Maitland, "History of English Law"; W. S. Holdsworth, "History of English Law," 1922, etc.

Boroughs. The origin and early development of this English social institution are still largely matters of speculation. We have to rely on a few valuable hints scattered here and there in our sources until the twelfth and thirteenth centuries, when information becomes easier to obtain. The mediæval borough was predominantly the sphere of activity of an association of merchants, often grouped together in a club or "hansa" known as the gild merchant [Gilds], which it is occasionally impossible, and often difficult, to distinguish from the government or control exercised by the burgesses of the town. As has often been pointed out, the agricultural element in the mediæval borough was strong, and the majority of the town's inhabitants were much concerned with the cultivation of their fields, the pasturing of their beasts within and without the walls, and the great annual occasion of the harvest; but the government of the borough was in the hands of an aristocracy of traders for whom agrarian questions scarcely existed, and these men gave the borough its mercantile stamp. It is not improbable that most of the English boroughs owed their early elevation to a level of jurisdiction and importance above that of the ordinary township to the possession of a market, thus becoming the nucleus of the trade of the locality. Motives other than trade sometimes led to the growth of a borough. In Anglo-Saxon times there were *burhs* which were specially associated with the residence of the king, places where his special *burhgrith*, "a severe and exalted peace," reigned. Some boroughs grew up, or rather, were definitely established, as military strongholds, and in after days the liability of the burgesses for watch and ward marked the survival of their responsibilities. A large monastery naturally attracted artisans and traders to its neighbourhood. The companions of the Conqueror not only added to the security and importance of the trading centres with their keeps and fortifications, but

they probably brought with them a following of Norman townsmen who helped to swell the number of burghers. The Danish invasion was a stimulus to town life. The value of stout timber defences was realized; for the fortified *burh* could serve as a stronghold when the locality was invaded. A special town government existed under a port-reeve, and the burghal tenants attended assemblies three times a year. We find that a highly organized police system existed in London in the tenth century, controlled by a court of local officials. From the "Burghal Hidage" and the "Anglo-Saxon Chronicle" we learn of the existence of about fifty *burhs*. Under Edward the Confessor trade was extended, and though it suffered a temporary set-back at the Conquest, we can regard the borough from the early twelfth century onwards as essentially a place of industry and business. This was the first characteristic of the mediæval borough. The second was the existence of a borough court. The third was the holding of land and dwellings under a special form of tenure among the inhabitants. [Burgess.] Fourthly, the borough generally freed itself from the interference of the royal officers in financial matters by "farming" the revenues of the borough. The "firma burgi" was a composition made with the Crown in the form of a fixed money rent by the burgesses for such dues as market-tolls, the profits of justice and the burgage rents, which would otherwise be collected by the sheriff or king's bailiff. Further privileges granted by charters from the twelfth century onwards to a large number of new boroughs, and to many of the old boroughs which remained, included immunities from outside jurisdiction for the possessors of all tenements in the borough, power to elect mayors and other officers, and permission to form a merchant gild with an alderman and other officers, a court, and a code of rules. It is usual to distinguish between three classes of boroughs: (1) Towns on the royal demesne. This is the largest and most important class. The king was chiefly concerned with his financial relations with his boroughs. If these were satisfactory he was prepared to grant wide liberties in self-government and jurisdiction—for a consideration. Moreover the king was not averse to the weakening of the sheriff's power. If the king granted a borough to a tenant-in-chief, it was not usual for any considerable reaction to set in, since demesne lands retained some part of their old privileges even when alienated from the Crown. (2) The mediate boroughs on baronial estates. Here freedom was harder to obtain, since the local lord was not anxious to part with his authority by making grants of privileges. Nevertheless there were towns in mediate ownership which bought liberty and the foundations of prosperity from their lords, in spite of circumstances. (3) The third group consisted of towns connected with the Church. Here the struggle for independence was longest, hardest, and least successful. There were flourishing towns under the control of abbots which were so restricted that they were unable to achieve burghal status. At the very end of the Middle Ages the Church seemed often to be the victor. A famous example of monastic control is that of Bury St. Edmunds.

As the growth of the town constitutions was never uniform, but varied in each individual case, we must be content with indicating their broad features. "In England the development of the boroughs is conditioned at every point by common law and royal power" (Maitland). In most of the commercial towns the gilds or associations of merchants rapidly assumed importance. They became practically the governing bodies of the towns: all the more as their members would also be the members of the township courts and courts leet. Their chiefs were the aldermen, and their chief functions were to regulate trade. At the same time the communa or corporation appears alongside of the gild, with the mayor as its representative officer. The first mayor of whom we have any historical knowledge was Fitz-Alwyn, the mayor of London in the reign of Richard I, and in 1215 John granted the citizens the right of electing their mayor annually, which, after a severe struggle with the royal power, they succeeded in making good. The provincial towns, in most cases, lagged behind the capital, and we do not find a mayor in Leicester, for instance, until 1246. By an obscure process of amalgamation a municipality was evolved out of the three elements of the borough, the original township, representing the primitive landowning community, the gild, or voluntary association of merchants, with its alderman, and the communa, with its mayor, until by the fifteenth century we have a close corporation of mayor, aldermen, and council, whose numbers and organization are defined by charter. These corporate officers acquired under Richard II the right of exercising the functions of justices of the peace, and the right of each chartered borough or city to send members to parliament, which had been practically acquired during or before the reign of Edward III, was definitely recognized by charter in the case of Wenlock in the reign of Edward IV. By this time, too, the internal struggle for municipal privileges, which had been going on in some cases for nearly three centuries between the trading element and the newer craft gilds, or trading companies which had sprung up in later times, was over. The crafts had established their own right to form part of the municipal governing oligarchy. In the fifteenth century and under the Tudors a policy of strengthening the power of the municipal corporations at the expense of the inhabitants was followed. In the fifteenth century a system of close election and irresponsible government was recognized by charter in many cases, the mayor and councils being in the first instance nominated by the Crown, and subsequently self-

elected by co-optation. It often happened also that the power of electing the borough members of parliament was made over to the corporation by charter, to the material injury of the power of the burgesses. Under Charles II and James II the last remnants of popular representation, by the exercise of which the towns still stoutly opposed the personal power of the Crown, were vigorously attacked. In 1683 the corporation of London was remodelled in a way that made it the creature of the court, no mayor or sheriff being admitted until approved by the king, and *quo warranto* informations were soon afterwards brought against other towns by Judge Jeffreys, many of which hastened to meet the government by a voluntary surrender. The corporations were then remodelled on an oligarchical plan, by which the king was reserved the right of appointing the first members. The object of this aggression was, of course, to control the return of members of parliament, a course of action which had already been inaugurated under the Tudors by the profuse creation of boroughs. After the Revolution the old charters of the remodelled corporations were for the most part restored to them, and they continued to exercise their narrow independence. The parliamentary side of the question now came exclusively to the front, and the incompetency of the close corporations for the purposes of local government were forgotten, while attention was turned to the system by which pocket boroughs flourished, and the franchise was limited to small bodies of freemen. After this abuse was remedied by the great Reform Act of 1832, reformers began to probe the corruption of municipal institutions. The report of the royal commission appointed in 1832 revealed an incredible amount of jobbery and corruption, municipal councils being for the most part self-elective, and holding office for life, while the freemen, who often formed a very small fraction of the population, alone had any share in the local administration. The result of this state of affairs was that finance was managed most negligently and dishonestly, and that justice became a matter of political partisanship. By the Municipal Corporations Act of 1835, framed on the report of the commission, these abuses were swept away, and a uniform system of government established in the 183 boroughs to which it applied. The government was placed in the hands of the mayor, aldermen, and councillors, forming a council. They were to be elected by the burgesses, i.e., the resident ratepayers, freemen as such having no rights as burgesses, though they were entitled to parliamentary franchise. The qualification for a vote, at first three years' payment of rates, was afterwards reduced to one. Twenty of the largest boroughs were to be divided by the king in council into wards, and a certain number of common councilmen were attached to each ward. Separate committees of burgesses were to manage the charity estates, and, should an adequate salary be provided, a recorder, who was to be a barrister of five years' standing, might be appointed. There was also a provision by which new municipalities might be created by charter on the petition of a certain unspecified number of resident householders, but only about seventy towns have since availed themselves of it, partly because of the cumbersome nature of the process, and partly because of the opposition of the local authorities. The Municipal Corporations Act has since been frequently amended, and the whole legislation bearing on the subject has been consolidated by the Municipal Corporations Act of 1882. London was specially exempted from the act of 1835, and was allowed to retain its old constitution. [London.] In Scotland, where the history of the boroughs is closely akin to that of England, the corporations were reformed in 1833. Those of Ireland were regulated, and many of them abolished, by the Irish Corporations Act of 1840. [Burgess; Gilds; Farm.]

Madox, "Firma Burgi"; Lipson, "Economic History," i; Pirenne, "Medieval Cities"; Pollock and Maitland, "History of English Law"; Maitland, "Domesday Book and Beyond," "Township and Borough"; Hemmeon, "Burgage Tenure in England"; Ballard, and Ballard and Tait, "British Borough Charters" (2 vols.); Bateson, "Borough Customs"; Denton, "England in the Fifteenth Century"; Green, "Town Life in the Fifteenth Century"; Gross, "The Gild Merchant"; Unwin, "Gilds and Companies of London"; Hearnshaw, "Southampton Court Leet Records"; Dormer-Harris, Introduction to "Coventry Leet Book" (E.E.T.S.); Stephenson in "American Historical Review," October 1926; Porritt, "The Unreformed House of Commons"; Webb, "English Local Government."

Boscawen, Edward (1711–61), first distinguished himself at the attack on Porto Bello in 1740. He was appointed commander-in-chief of an expedition to the East Indies (1747). In 1755 Boscawen received the thanks of parliament for the capture of two French ships, and became vice-admiral, and in the following year admiral. In that year he commanded the expedition to Cape Breton Island, and took the town of Louisburg. In the following year he defeated the French fleet in Lagos Bay, and received the thanks of parliament. In 1759 he was sworn of the privy council. Boscawen's career was brief, but he was not the least remarkable of the naval heroes who won such triumphs on the sea during the closing period of George II's reign.

Boscobel, in Shropshire, the house of John Giffard, was the hiding-place of Charles II after the battle of Worcester in 1651. The fugitive king was committed by Lord Derby to the charge of some woodcutters named Penderell. Here he remained in concealment for some days, and at one time it was even thought necessary that he should pass some time in an oak-tree in the Boscobel woods, so hot had the pursuit become. The

king eventually effected his escape. From his hiding in the oak, the fashion of wearing oak-leaves on the day of the Restoration (May 29) originated.

T. Blount, "Boscobel," ed. C. G. Thomas, 1894.

Boston, in Lincolnshire, is said in the Anglo-Saxon Chronicle to have been founded by St. Botolph. It rose to great importance in the twelfth century, and was one of the chief ports in the kingdom. Edward III made it one of the wool staples in 1369, and its prosperity continued till the early part of the sixteenth century, from which time it gradually declined.

"Victoria County History: Lincolnshire."

Boston, in Massachusetts, was settled in 1630 by John Winthrop, most of the earliest colonists coming from Lincolnshire. During the Civil War the settlers sided with the Parliament, and even received two of the regicides with rejoicing in 1660. The town was on bad terms with the royal government all through the latter half of the seventeenth century, and in 1689 a rebellion broke out, and the governor, Sir Edmund Andros, was compelled to quit the country. The Boston people warmly supported the revolution of 1688. The town increased greatly in wealth and consequence, and was noted for the stern Puritanism of its inhabitants, and their sturdy spirit of independence. Boston took the lead in resisting the attempt of the British government to apply its revenue system to the colonies. On March 5, 1770, the riot known as "the Boston Massacre" took place, and in December 1773 the attack on the tea ships was made in Boston harbour. For a time the trade of the town was nearly ruined by the Boston Port Act (q.v.), and a large number of British troops were sent to garrison the port. The town was surrounded (1775) by an American force, between whom and the British the battle of Bunker Hill (q.v.) was fought, June 17. The British abandoned the place in March 1776. After the war Boston became one of the chief cities in the United States, and the centre of art, literature, and education. During the quarter of a century preceding 1860, Boston was the head-quarters of the movement for the abolition of negro slavery.

A. French, "Siege of Boston," 1911; J. Winsor, "History of Boston," 4 vols., 1882.

Boston Port Act, The (1774), is important as being one of the immediate causes of the outbreak of the American War of Independence. In the year 1773, in order to find a market for the accumulated stores of the East India Company, Lord North withdrew the whole of the duty payable in Great Britain on any teas exported to America by the company. The teas, however, were still subject to a colonial tax of threepence on the pound. On December 16, 1773, the people of Boston, excited by the speeches of Samuel Adams and others, proceeded to the wharf where three tea ships lay, and threw their cargoes, valued at £18,000, into the water. Popular indignation was aroused throughout Great Britain by this act, and it was resolved to make an example of the little port. On March 14, 1774, Lord North brought in the Boston Port Bill. The preamble set forth that in the present condition of Boston, the commerce of his majesty's subjects could not be safely carried on, nor the customs be duly collected there; and it was therefore proposed that from and after June 1 it should not be lawful for any person to lade or unlade, to ship or unship, any goods within the harbour. The king in council was to have the power, when peace and order should be established at Boston, and full compensation paid for the teas destroyed, to restore the town to its former position. Some opposition was offered to the measure by Dowdeswell, Burke, and Charles Fox, but on the whole it was approved both by parliament and the country. The bill, accompanied as it was by the Massachusetts Government Bill, was received with great indignation in America. June 1—the day appointed for the Boston Port Act to come into force—was set apart as a solemn fast. On the meeting of the Massachusetts Assembly, General Gage found the spirit of resistance so unanimous among the delegates that he felt compelled to dissolve it immediately.

"Parliamentary History," xvii; "Chatham Correspondence"; Bancroft, "History of America."

Bosworth Field, The Battle of (August 22, 1485), was fought between Richard III and Henry, Earl of Richmond, afterwards Henry VII. On August 7 Henry landed at Milford Haven and passed on without opposition to Shrewsbury, being joined by a large number of Welshmen. He then marched on to Tamworth, where he arrived on the 18th. On the 20th he was at Atherstone, where he was met by Lord Stanley and by Sir William Stanley, who both promised to desert Richard during the battle. Meanwhile Richard, having mustered his forces at Nottingham, marched to Leicester and encamped at Bosworth on the 21st. On the next morning the two armies met between Bosworth and Atherstone at a place known as Whitemoors, near the village of Sutton Cheney. The battle was mainly a hand-to-hand encounter, the Stanleys for some time keeping aloof from the fight till, at a critical moment, they joined Richmond. Richard, perceiving that he was betrayed, and crying out, "Treason, treason!" endeavoured only to sell his life as dearly as possible, and refused to leave the field till, overpowered by numbers, he fell dead in the midst of his enemies. The crown was picked up on the field of battle and placed by Lord Stanley on the head of Richmond, who was at once saluted king by the whole army. Among those who perished on Richard's side were the Duke of Norfolk, Lord

Ferrers, Sir Richard Ratcliffe, and Sir Robert Brackenbury, while the only person of note in Henry's army who was slain was his standard-bearer, Sir William Brandon, who is said to have been killed by Richard himself.

Continuator of the Croyland Chronicle, 571; Hall, "Chronicle," 418; J. Gairdner, "Richard III," 1878 and 1898.

Bót was a word which signified amends, reparation, either in the simple sense, as *burh bót* —i.e., repair of fortresses—or more often in the sense of money compensation for wrongdoing. In the earlier laws of the various Teutonic tribes, most offences are regarded as involving a breach of the general peace, and as putting the offender in outlawry and at feud with the community, till at any rate he has come to terms with the injured party; some less grave offences regarded as merely wrongs to the individual have a fixed composition attached to them; while in some cases is seen the idea of crime as demanding punishment. It is indisputable that these conceptions belong to very different stages of thought, and respectively succeed each other. Any offence, it is clear, originally put the offender at feud with all, and exposed him to his victim's vengeance. The right of vengeance then became limited by the growth of fixed compositions. And lastly, in the most developed codes, the idea of punishment has intruded upon the region of composition payments. In the code of Alfred, a discrimination is made, and in ordinary cases homicides paid according to the wergild of the slain, while in extraordinary cases, such as wilful murder of a lord, the crime is to be punished by death. The bót, then, or money payment, represents the view of a misdeed which regards it as so much damage to the individual, reparable by payment at a fixed tariff. For less grave offences the amends must, by Anglo-Saxon law, be accepted. In graver offences only, if the amends be not paid or be unsatisfactory to the party injured, does he re-enter on his right of feud, under certain legal limitations. These two are the "bót-worthy" class of offences. And even in the "bót-less" offences, the king can at pleasure accept an amends in money for them; for instance, the perjurer is to have his hand cut off, but the king can allow him to redeem it at half his wergild. In case of treason against a lord, Alfred says "the king and his witan dare not grant mercy." The relation of the "bót" to the "wite" is very irregular, and indeed inexplicable. The amount of the bót itself is equally perplexing; 6s. is the amends for knocking out a front tooth, only 3s. for breaking a rib; 6s. for breaking an arm, but 11s. for destroying the little finger, and 20s. for cutting off the beard. On the whole it appears that the payment was on an estimate of the part affected, and its value or appearance, the degree of the affront, and the social position of the injured party, or even that of the offender. The chief peculiarities of this Anglo-Saxon system compared with that of other Teutonic tribes are—(i) the strict maintenance of rights of private property by severe treatment of theft and stringent enactments to secure bail; (ii) the great attention paid to the privileges of the Church and the enforcement of its precepts; (iii) the rapid growth of the kingly power and its recognition as the source of justice. There are many minute variations between West-Saxon and Anglian law as to the ratios of the payments of bót.

F. L. Attenborough, "Laws of the Earliest English Kings"; H. J. Robertson, "Laws of the Kings of England from Edmund to Henry I," 1925; H. M. Chadwick, "Studies in Anglo-Saxon Institutions," 1918; R. W. Chambers, "England Before the Norman Conquest," 1925. [A. L. S.]

Botany Bay, an inlet in the coast of New South Wales near Sydney, was visited by Captain Cook in 1770, and was used as a penal settlement by the British government from 1787 to 1840.

Botha, Louis (1862–1919), Boer general, commanded the Boers at the battles of Colenso and Spion Kop (1899) and originated the subsequent guerrilla warfare. In 1907, however, he formed a loyalist government in the Transvaal and attended the Imperial Conference in London. He did much to promote better feeling between the British and Dutch in South Africa. During the Great War he conquered German South-west Africa.

H. Spender, "General Botha," 1919.

Bothwell, Francis Stewart, 5th Earl of (*d.* 1624). [Stewart.]

Bothwell, James Hepburn, 4th Earl of (1536–78). [Hepburn.]

Bothwell Bridge, The Battle of (June 22, 1679), was fought between the royalist troops, commanded by the Duke of Monmouth, and the forces of the revolted Conventiclers, or Covenanters. The insurgents occupied a strong position, with the Clyde between them and the enemy; but, as they attempted to defend instead of destroying the bridge, Monmouth cleared the passage of the river by his artillery. The insurgents were forced to retire to a hill near by, known as Hamilton Heath, where they were attacked by the royal troops and completely routed. Bothwell Bridge is in Lanarkshire, near Hamilton.

P. Hume Brown, "History of Scotland," 1911.

Bottle Plot, The (1823). This name was given by Canning to a riot in a Dublin theatre, got up by the Orangemen, when a rattle and a bottle were thrown into the box of Lord Wellesley, the then lord-lieutenant, who was supposed to favour the Catholics. The grand jury threw out the bill for conspiracy with intent to murder which was brought in against those arrested.

Boudicca (*d.* 62), was the widow of Prasutagus, chief of the Iceni, and was the leader of the great revolt against the Romans

in the time of Suetonius Paulinus. The tyranny and oppression of the conquerors had been brought to a climax by the atrocious treatment to which Boudicca and her daughters were subjected, and the revolt she headed included most of the peoples of central and eastern Britain. Her success at first was very great. The ninth legion was defeated and virtually destroyed, and the important towns of Camulodunum, Londinium, and Verulamium were captured and sacked. But the return of Suetonius and his veterans from North Wales turned the tide, and the British were signally defeated in a great battle, the site of which is unknown. According to Tacitus, Boudicca committed suicide, but Dio Cassius asserts, with less probability, that she died a natural death. Her revolt taught the Romans that the Britons were still capable of resistance to oppression, and the recall of Suetonius in the next year was the inauguration of a milder and more conciliatory policy.

Tacitus, "Annals," xiv, 31, etc.; "Agricola," 15; Dio Cassius, xii, 1, 12; biography by M. Trevelyan, 1900.

Boulah Common, in County Tipperary, was the place where, on July 29, 1848, Smith O'Brien (q.v.) appeared before the house of a widow named Cormack, which had been taken possession of by fifty constabulary, and took up a position in front of it with his followers. The constables fired, and, another party coming up at the same moment, under the command of Mr. Cox and of Mr. French, a magistrate, the rebels fled, leaving eighteen dead and many wounded behind them; none of the constabulary was wounded. This action, such as it was, put an end to the Irish "insurrection" of 1848.

Boulogne. I. Its capture by the English, the one important result of the combination of Henry VIII and Charles V for the subjugation of France in 1544, took place September 14, 1544, after a protracted siege of nearly two months. According to the original plan of the campaign, Charles was to strike across France by Champagne, Henry by Picardy, and neither was to stop till he reached Paris, where, in their united might, they were to dispose of the French monarchy. The first thing, however, that Henry did was to sit down with the bulk of his army before Boulogne; and when Charles reproached him for not adhering to the method of invasion determined upon between them, Henry retaliated by accusing Charles of a similar breach of their contract. The siege of Boulogne is principally memorable for the length of the resistance made by the garrison under the disadvantageous circumstances of weak fortifications, and besiegers strong in numbers and offensive engines. After the capitulation they were allowed to march out with their arms and property; whereupon, according to Hall's "Chronicle," "the king's highness, having the sword borne naked before him by the Lord Marquis Dorset, like a noble and valiant conqueror, rode into the town, and all the trumpeters, standing on the walls of the town, sounded their trumpets at the time of his entering, to the great comfort of all the king's true subjects." The town was restored to the French on the conclusion of peace (1550). II. Boulogne was also the chief station of the force collected by Napoleon for the invasion of England in 1803. The "catamaran expedition" (October 1804) was an unsuccessful British attempt to burn his flotilla there by sending in fire-ships.

Boulter, Hugh (1672–1742), Archbishop of Armagh, studied at Merchant Taylors' School, and was elected a demy of Magdalen at the same time as Addison. He was subsequently chaplain to Sir Charles Hedges, and rector of St. Olave's, Southwark. In 1719 he was consecrated Bishop of Bristol, and in 1724 elevated to the archbishopric of Armagh and the Irish primacy. He took an active share in the political affairs of Ireland, was strongly opposed to Swift on the policy of diminishing the gold coin, though he concurred with him on the question of Wood's patent, and was one of the chief promoters of the system of Protestant charter schools. He founded many charities in Armagh, Drogheda, and elsewhere, and was no fewer than thirteen times appointed one of the lords justices of Ireland.

"Bounty," Mutiny of the, 1789. [Bligh, Captain William.]

Bounty, Queen Anne's. [Queen Anne's Bounty.]

Bourchier, Family of. The founder of this family was Sir John de Bourchier, one of the judges of Common Pleas in the reign of Edward II. His son Robert became lord chancellor in 1340 (the first layman who held the office), was summoned to parliament as a baron in 1348, and died 1349. The barony devolved on Henry Bourchier, Count of Eu, grandson of his younger son. He was created Viscount Bourchier in 1446 and Earl of Essex in 1461, and was succeeded by his grandson Henry, upon whose death the viscountcy and earldom became extinct. The barony of Bourchier was carried by Anne, his daughter, to her husband William Parr, who was created Earl of Essex in 1543; and passed on his death without issue to the Devereux family. It fell into abeyance in 1647 on the death of Robert Devereux, the son of Elizabeth's celebrated favourite.

Bourchier, Henry, Earl of Essex (*d.* 1483), was the son of Sir William Bourchier, Count of Eu, and brother of Thomas Bourchier, Archbishop of Canterbury. In 1455 he was appointed lord high treasurer at the instance of Richard, Duke of York, whose sister Isabel he had married; but it was not until 1460 that he definitely espoused the Yorkist cause and

broke with the party of Lancaster. On the accession to the throne of Edward IV, his nephew, Bourchier was again made treasurer, and was created Earl of Essex. He was once more appointed to the treasurership in 1471, and held the office till his death.

Bourchier, Sir John, Lord Berners (1467–1533), the holder of many important state offices during the first part of the reign of Henry VIII, and the best of the early writers of English prose, was born at Therfield in Hertfordshire, and probably educated at Balliol College, Oxford. In 1474 he succeeded to the title of his grandfather—John Bourchier—who had been created Baron Berners in 1455. In 1497 Berners aided in crushing the rebellion of the Cornishmen, who had risen against Henry VII's tax-gatherers, and after fighting with the army in France at the taking of Terouenne (1513), he accompanied the Princess Mary to Paris, as her chamberlain, on the occasion of her marriage with Louis XII (1514). In 1515 he was appointed chancellor of the exchequer, and was subsequently English envoy in Spain. He attended Henry VIII at the Field of the Cloth of Gold, and was installed in the office of deputy of Calais in 1520. Although in ill-health, and embarrassed by debt, he zealously performed the duties of the position until his death in 1533. It was at Calais that he undertook a translation of Froissart's "Chronicles." The translation was so skilfully executed in idiomatic English that it might have been easily mistaken for an original work, and to its popularity has been ascribed the promotion of a taste for historical reading and composition in England in the sixteenth century. His other works include translations of several French and Spanish romances, and of the "Golden Book of Marcus Aurelius."

The *edito princeps* of Berners's "Froissart" was printed by Pynson in London in two vols., 1523 and 1525; reprinted by Utterson in 1812. [S. L.]

Bourchier, Thomas (*d.* 1486), Archbishop of Canterbury (1454–86), was the son of William Bourchier, Count of Eu, by Anne, daughter of Thomas of Woodstock, Duke of Gloucester. After holding minor preferments, he was elected Bishop of Worcester in 1434, and was translated to Ely in 1443. On the death of Archbishop Kempe, the council, at the request of the Commons, prayed that the pope would confer the primacy on Bourchier. Accordingly, he was appointed Archbishop of Canterbury in 1454. In 1455 he was made chancellor, and held the great seal for eighteen months, both Yorkists and Lancastrians being anxious to conciliate a member of so powerful a family. Bourchier was at first inclined to act as a mediator between the contending factions, but subsequently became a distinct partisan of the Duke of York. He welcomed the return of the Yorkist leaders in 1460, and crowned Edward IV in the next year. In 1463 he was nominated cardinal and in 1473 installed. He crowned Richard III, and two years after performed the same office for Henry VII. He was associated with patrons of learning such as Tiptoft, Earl of Worcester, and left a reputation for hospitality, personal generosity, and kindness.

Gladys Temperley, "Henry VII," 1917; J. Gairdner, "Richard III," 1878 and 1898.

Bourke, Richard Southwell, 6th Earl of Mayo (1822–72), eldest son of Robert, 5th Lord Mayo, entered parliament in 1847 as member for Kildare. He was chief secretary for Ireland under Lord Derby in 1852, and again in 1858 and 1866. In 1869 he was appointed governor-general of India. His reign was a period of peace, and was marked by the inauguration of numerous enterprises for the improvement of the social and material condition of the natives. Lord Mayo was assassinated on February 8, 1872, by a Mohammedan fanatic at Port Blair, in the Andaman Islands.

Bouvines, The Battle of (July 1214), was fought at a small town between Lille and Tournai, between Philip Augustus of France and the forces of the Emperor Otto IV, with the Flemings and some English auxiliaries, under William, Earl of Salisbury. John had joined the alliance for the purpose of gaining the assistance of the Germans and Flanders in the war he was carrying on with Philip for the recovery of his French territories. The battle (in which the forces engaged on both sides would appear to have been very large) terminated in a signal victory for the French. The defeat consummated the separation of Normandy from England, and by depriving John of further hopes of being able to rely on his continental dominions, as well as by the loss of prestige it occasioned him, had some effect in compelling him to submit to the demands of the barons. The battle is memorable as being one of the few occasions in which men of English, High-German, and Low-German race have fought side by side against the French and have been completely defeated.

Roger of Wendover, iii, 287 (English Historical Society); K. Norgate, "John Lackland," 1912; Sir C. W. C. Oman, "Art of War," vol. i, 1924.

Bowes, Sir Robert (1495 ?–1554), was a distinguished soldier, diplomatist, and lawyer in the reigns of Henry VIII, Edward VI, and Mary. In the great Northern rebellion of 1536 he was among the prisoners captured at the surrender of Hull to the rebel forces. In 1542, whilst in command of a body of 3,000 cavalry, he was defeated and taken prisoner at Halydonrigg by a Scots force under the Earl of Huntly; and on the termination of hostilities between the two countries, became warden of the East and Middle Marches. During the exercise of this office he compiled his "Informations" on the state of the Marches, and their laws and customs. In 1552 he was made master of the rolls, a position which just then was

environed with dangers. As master of the rolls, Sir Robert Bowes was one of the witnesses to the will of King Edward VI, which fixed the succession to the crown on Lady Jane Grey. He retired from his office two months after Mary's accession to the throne, and during the remainder of his life he occupied himself with his old duties on the Scots border.

Boxer Rising, The (1900). [China, Relations with.]

Boycotting was the name applied to the system of social and commercial ostracism which was extensively resorted to in Ireland during the land agitation of 1880 and 1881. Landlords who were disliked by their tenants, tenants who had paid rents to unpopular landlords, and other persons who incurred the hostility of the local branches of the Land League were rigidly isolated. No one could be got to work for them, or even to supply them with the necessaries of life. The name was derived from Captain Boycott, of Lough Mask House, a Mayo landlord and agent, one of the first against whom the process was put in force. Captain Boycott was "relieved" by a number of Orangemen, escorted by a large military and police force, November 11, 1880.

Boyd, William, 4th Earl of Kilmarnock (1704–46), joined the rebellion of 1745. After the battle of Culloden he surrendered himself, was carried to London, convicted of high treason, and executed on Tower Hill (August 18). His title and estates were forfeited.

Boyle, Charles, 4th Earl of Orrery and 1st Baron Boyle of Marston (1676–1731), second son of Roger, 2nd Earl of Orrery, while an undergraduate at Oxford took part in the controversy with Bentley on the "Epistles of Phalaris." In 1701 he entered parliament as member for Huntingdon, and in 1703 succeeded to the Irish peerage of Orrery. In 1709 he fought at Malplaquet; in 1713 was envoy extraordinary to the states of Brabant and Flanders; and on his return he received an English peerage. He was a favourite of George I, but in 1721 was committed to the Tower on a charge of being concerned in Layer's Plot, of which, however, he was acquitted. His later years were devoted to philosophical studies.

Boyle, Henry, 1st Baron Carleton (*d.* 1725), was a leading Whig politician. In 1701 he was appointed lord chancellor and under-treasurer of the exchequer. He was one of those who opposed the "tacking" of the Occasional Conformity Bill. He was employed by Godolphin to request Addison to write a poem on the battle of Blenheim, the result of his negotiations being "The Campaign." In 1708 he was made secretary of state. He was one of the managers of Sacheverell's trial, and in consequence of that ill-advised step was compelled to resign his office. On the accession of George I, Boyle was raised to the peerage, and created lord president of the council, an office he held until his death.

Budgell, "Lives of the Boyles," 1732.

Boyle, Henry, 1st Earl of Shannon (1682–1764), was for twenty-five years Speaker of the Irish House of Commons (from 1733 to 1756). He was the chief leader of the Irish patriot party, and practically commanded a majority in the House. He at first took the lead against the government in the inquiry into the pension list, but was bought off by being elevated to the peerage (1714), and by the grant of a pension of £2,000 per year.

Boyle, Richard, 1st Earl of Cork (1566–1643), the son of a Herefordshire gentleman, went to Dublin in 1588, and acquired large landed properties in Ireland. Having gained the favour of Queen Elizabeth, he was specially recommended to the notice of Sir George Carew, lord-president of Munster, and was much employed by him. In 1612 he was made a privy councillor of Ireland; in 1616 raised to the peerage as Lord Boyle; and in 1620 became Earl of Cork. In 1629 he was appointed one of the lords-justices, and two years later lord treasurer of Ireland, in which position he quarrelled violently with Strafford. At the beginning of the rebellion he raised a large body of horse for the royal service.

Biography by D. Townshend, 1904; "Orrery Papers," 2 vols., 1903.

Boyle, Richard, 2nd Earl of Shannon (1727–1807), son of Henry, 1st earl, married the daughter of Speaker Ponsonby, and in close union with him endeavoured to control the Castle. In 1770 he lost his office at the head of the ordnance department, but in 1772 the Castle again made terms with him. He was enormously rich and an excellent landlord. The Earls of Shannon, together with the Ponsonbys, Beresfords, and the Duke of Leinster, were the real rulers of the Irish parliament during the greater part of George III's reign.

Boyne, The Battle of the (July 1, 1690), was fought between the troops of William III and the Irish under James II. James, marching from Dublin, had taken up a position behind the River Boyne, and there waited for the invading army. His position was strong, and Schomberg endeavoured to dissuade William from the attack. Early in the morning, however, the English right, under young Schomberg, was sent to cross the river by the bridge of Slane, some miles higher up, and thus turn the Irish right. The bridge was captured. Four miles to the south of the Boyne the road to Dublin runs through the passage of Duleek. If Schomberg secured this pass the Irish retreat would be cut off. Lauzun, commander of the French allies, marched to oppose him. Thus the Irish alone were left to withstand William. At the head of his left wing, consisting entirely of cavalry, he forced the passage of the river not far above Drogheda.

The centre of his army was commanded by the elder Schomberg. The Irish infantry fled without a blow; the cavalry under Richard Hamilton fought bravely on. The gallant Schomberg fell while rallying his troops. But at this moment William came up with his left wing, and the battle was won. The Irish cavalry retreated slowly, fighting to the last; their leader, Hamilton, was taken prisoner. James fled early in the day towards Dublin. The fugitives poured through the passage of Duleek, where the French had steadily resisted Meinhart Schomberg's attack. Considering the great importance of the victory, the loss was slight. About 500 English had fallen, and 1,500 Irish.

A striking and detailed account of the battle is given in Macaulay's "History"; also D. C. Boulger, "Battle of the Boyne," 1911.

Boy-Patriots was a name given by their enemies to a body of young and rising men who opposed Sir Robert Walpole's administration, but who coalesced neither with the Tories nor with the malcontent Whigs. The chief members of this party were Lyttelton, George Grenville, Lord Cobham, and, above all, William Pitt.

Bracton, Henry de (*d.* 1268), the writer of a valuable commentary on the laws of England, was probably educated at Oxford. Little is known of his life. He acted as a justice itinerant for various counties from 1245 onwards; and later received a number of ecclesiastical preferments, mainly in the diocese of Exeter. It is possible that he held the office of chief justice, or at least exercised some of the duties incident thereto during its abeyance from 1246 to 1258. His work, entitled "De Legibus et Consuetudinibus Angliæ," is our great authority for mediæval English law. The work is very largely influenced by Roman legal ideas.

Bracton's treatise has been published in the Rolls Series, ed. Twiss. See F. W. Maitland, "History of English Law," i; and W. S. Holdsworth, "History of English Law."

Braddock, Edward (1695–1755), served under the Prince of Orange in Holland from 1746 to 1748, and was appointed to the command in America in 1754, arriving at Virginia in February 1755. Dividing his army into four sections, he led one section in person in an attack on Fort Duquesne. But on July 9, when a few miles from the fort, he fell into an ambuscade of French and Indians, and his army was routed with heavy losses. Braddock himself died of wounds four days later. [Fort Duquesne.]

Bradlaugh, Charles (1833–91), Freethinker and politician, became the Radical proprietor of the *National Reformer* in 1862, after serving in the army and as a solicitor's clerk. He was elected M.P. for Northampton in 1880, but was denied the right to affirm instead of swearing on the Bible. Excluded from parliament, he was re-elected in 1881, but was again excluded and expelled in 1882. The alternation of re-election and expulsion continued until 1886, when he was finally allowed to take his seat after an affirmation. He retained the seat until his death. In 1878 he vindicated the freedom of the press in a lawsuit in which he and Mrs. Besant were involved.

Biographies by H. B. Bonner (1894) and J. M. Robertson (1920).

Bradock Down, situated between Liskeard and Bodmin, in Cornwall, was the scene of a battle during the Civil War. Here, on January 19, 1643, the Royalist officers, Sir Ralph Hopton and Sir Bevil Grenville, coming from Bodmin, encountered and defeated the commander of the garrison of Plymouth, Ruthven, who, without waiting for the support of his superior officer, the Earl of Stamford, had crossed the Tamar and occupied Liskeard. The result of the battle was that the Cornishmen resumed the offensive, drove back Stamford and his forces, and carried by assault Saltash and Okehampton.

There is a full account of the battle in a letter of Sir Bevil Grenville, printed in Forster's "Life of Pym." See also Clarendon's "History of the Rebellion," vi, ed. W. D. Macray, 1888.

Bradshaw, John (1602–59), was a barrister, but was very little known, either as a lawyer or a politician, when, in 1648, he was made president of the High Court of Justice, instituted to try Charles I. The reason for his appointment seems to have been the refusal of all the leading lawyers to serve on the trial, and the necessity of having someone possessed of legal knowledge as the president. For his services he was given the house of the dean of Westminster, the sum of £1,000, large grants of land, and the office of chancellor of the duchy of Lancaster. He subsequently presided at the trials of the Duke of Hamilton and other Royalists, and was president of the council of state from 1649 to 1652. He was a member of the parliament of 1654, and was probably one of those excluded for refusing to sign the engagement recognizing Cromwell's authority. In 1659 he was made one of the council of state, and shortly afterwards a commissioner of the great seal; but he died before the end of the year. He was one of those who were styled "stiff Republicans," or "Commonwealth's men," and was sincerely opposed to the government of one person, whether king or protector; but he does not appear to have been a man of any marked ability. After the Restoration his body was disinterred and hung in chains at Tyburn.

Bradshaw's "Correspondence," ed. A. C. Gibson, 1862.

Bradwardine, Thomas (c. 1290–1349), a native of Chichester, educated at Merton College, Oxford, was one of the most celebrated of the scholastic philosophers, and was known by the title of "Doctor Profundus." He lectured at Oxford on divinity; and in 1338 was

appointed chaplain to Edward III. In 1349 he was elected to the archbishopric of Canterbury, but within a few weeks of his consecration he was carried off by the Black Death.

Bradwardine's great work, "De Causa Dei," was printed in 1618 (London, folio). His other works were chiefly mathematical.

Braemar Gathering, The (August 26, 1715), was the name given to the great assembly of disaffected nobles and Highland chiefs which met ostensibly for the purpose of a hunting in the Earl of Mar's forest of Braemar, but in reality to organize measures for raising the standard of insurrection in favour of the Pretender, which was done soon afterwards (September 6). Among those at the Braemar gathering were the Earl of Mar, the Marquis of Tullibardine, Lords Southesk, Errol, Kilsyth, Kenmure, Strathallan, Seaforth, and Glengarry. [Jacobites.]

Braintree Case, The. In 1837 the majority of the vestry of Braintree postponed a Church rate for twelve months; the churchwardens, however, proceeded to levy it on their own authority. A prohibition of the Court of Queen's Bench restrained them. It was suggested, however, that the churchwardens and the minority of the vestry might legally levy a rate, as it might be argued that the votes of the majority who refused to perform their duty were not valid. The churchwardens and the minority of the vestry voted a rate accordingly (July 1841). On the matter being once more brought before the Court of Queen's Bench, that tribunal now declared the rate valid. The decision was affirmed by the Court of Exchequer Chamber, but upset on appeal by the House of Lords, which pronounced the rate invalid, and altogether denied the right of the minority of the parishioners to levy it. It was such cases as this that led to the Act 31 & 32 Vict., c. 109, which abolished compulsory Church rates, because "the levying thereof has given rise to litigation and ill-feeling."

May, "Constitutional History," ed. F. Holland, 1912, vol. ii. See the case of Gosling v. Veley in "Queen's Bench Reports," vii, 409; and "House of Lords Cases," iv, 679.

Bramham Moor, The Battle of (1408), was fought between the Earl of Northumberland, and the other nobles who had revolted against Henry IV, and the royal troops, under Sir Thomas Rokeby. The latter were completely victorious, Northumberland being killed on the field, and his chief associate, Lord Bardolf, mortally wounded. Bramham Moor is in Yorkshire, between Leeds and Tadcaster.

J. H. Wylie, "England Under Henry IV," 4 vols., 1884.

Brandon, Charles, Duke of Suffolk (*d.* 1545), was a general and courtier of the reign of Henry VIII. As a commander his success in the expedition of 1513 against France was but indifferent, but as an exponent of chivalry he was without rival. His marriage to Mary, Henry's sister, very soon after the death of her first husband, Louis XII, was ultimately approved by Henry, and their issue were preferred in the king's will to those of his elder sister, Margaret of Scotland. Frances, Brandon's daughter, married Henry Grey, by whom she became the mother of Lady Jane Grey (q.v.).

Brandywine, The Battle of (September 11, 1777), in the American War of Independence, was fought on the shores of Brandywine Creek, about fifty miles from Philadelphia, and ended in the defeat of the Americans, under Washington. General Howe had landed 18,000 men near the Brandywine. Washington had only 8,000 troops fit for action. For some days he baffled Howe's attempts to drive him back. At length, while Howe and Cornwallis made a flank movement with the greater part of their forces, Washington resolved on a bold attack on the British in his front. To render this successful, the co-operation of Sullivan was necessary. But that general, instead of obeying orders, laid himself open to an attack while his troops were taking up position; this rout threw the rest of the American army into confusion, and soon they were everywhere in retreat. The American loss was set down by Howe at 300 killed, 600 wounded, and 400 prisoners, as against 90 killed and 500 wounded and missing on the British side. Washington made good his retreat; but he had to abandon the idea of saving Philadelphia when he found that Cornwallis had forced his way between his camp and that town.

Bancroft, "History of the United States."

Braose, William de (*d.* 1211), was one of the most powerful barons in England, lord of Bramber in Sussex and of vast Welsh estates. He was sheriff of Hereford, one of the itinerant justices in Richard I's reign, and received from John a grant of all such lands as he could conquer from the Welsh, together with the Irish honour of Limerick. Later, however, he fell out of favour, and in 1210 John stripped him of all his possessions, and, it is said, starved his wife and son to death in Windsor Castle. De Braose himself escaped to France, where he died shortly afterwards. His youngest son Reginald received back a great part of his father's possessions, but, dying without heirs in 1229, the family became extinct.

Bray, Sir Reginald (*d.* 1503), was one of Henry VII's most trusted counsellors. Together with the lord treasurer he was the king's messenger in 1485 to the city of London to ask the citizens for a loan of 6,000 marks, obtaining, after much negotiation, the considerably smaller sum of £2,000. He was the object of special hatred to the Cornish rebels of 1497 as being the instrument of Henry's extortion.

Bread Riots (1816). The cessation of the Napoleonic wars, which caused many farms to be thrown out of cultivation, and the failure of the harvest, occasioned severe distress and riots throughout England, especially in the eastern counties. Declaring that the farmers had conspired to raise the price of bread, the mob set farm buildings on fire, demanded that wheat should be sold cheap, and in several places broke into the bakers' shops. The riots were suppressed by military force, and the rioters tried by a special commission. There were also occasional riots caused by famine during the Chartist movement. The most dangerous were those of 1842, in Yorkshire and Lancashire.

Spencer Walpole, "History of England," 1879.

Breakspear, Nicholas (*d.* 1159). [Adrian IV.]

Breauté, Falkes de (*d.* 1226), was a Norman of mean birth, who had served King John with unscrupulous fidelity as a mercenary captain, and was rewarded by him with the sheriffdoms of Glamorgan and Oxfordshire, the castles of Chilham, Northampton, Cambridge, Oxford, and Bedford, and the hand of Margaret de Redvers, widow of Baldwin, son of the Earl of Devon. On John's death, it was judged advisable to conciliate this soldier, who had taken Bedford Castle, burnt the suburbs of London, and terrorized over John's enemies in the neighbouring counties. In return for his aid to the royal cause against Louis and the rebel barons, he obtained the sheriffdoms of Rutland, Cambridge, Huntingdon, Buckingham, Bedford, Oxford, Northampton, for seven years. But from 1220 onwards the vigorous work of Hubert de Burgh was putting an end to the state of things in which such a man could move freely. Convicted at the Dunstable assizes in 1224 of thirty-five acts of violence, he audaciously captured one of the justices, and imprisoned him in Bedford Castle, under the care of his brother, William de Breauté, who refused to surrender the castle, saying "he was no liegeman of the King of England." The siege took two months, "with great slaughter of the king's nobles"; and it required an elaborate siege-train. The castle was taken and the garrison at once hanged. Falkes, now under excommunication, had fled to North Wales, the prince of which district married his daughter Eva; but he soon returned and submitted himself to the king's mercy. The judgment of the barons was that he should surrender all his goods and abjure the realm. His wife, too, obtained a divorce on the ground of constraint; and on his first setting foot in Normandy, only his crusading vow protected him from being hanged by the French king. He prevailed with Honorius III to send a strong letter of intercession to the king. While on his way back to England, however, he died in Normandy. Falkes de Breauté was a typical example of the unscrupulous foreign adventurers whom the early Angevin kings introduced into England as able tools of royal misgovernment.

Matthew Paris, "Chronica Majora," sub anno 1224; "Annals of Waverley," p. 300; "Royal Letters" of Henry III, i, 543 seq.; and especially Walter of Coventry, ii, 253, 272 seq. [A. L. S.]

Breda, The Declaration of (April 14, 1660), was the manifesto sent by Charles II to both houses of the Convention Parliament. By this the king granted a free and general pardon to all "who within forty days after the publishing hereof shall lay hold upon this our grace and favour, and shall by any public act declare their doing so," except such as parliament should except. It also granted amnesty for all political offences committed during the Civil War, and the subsequent interregnum; promised that the king would rely on the advice and assistance of a free parliament; and declared a liberty to tender consciences, so "that no man shall be disquieted or called in question for differences of opinion in matter of religion." The king also undertook that no inquiry should be made into the titles of lands acquired under the Commonwealth, and that the arrears of Monck's officers and soldiers should be paid.

"Parliamentary History," iv, 17.

Breda, The Treaty of (July 31, 1667), was concluded between England on the one side, and France, Holland, and Denmark on the other. It was entered into after a naval war between England and Holland, in which the victories had been pretty evenly distributed. France had joined the Dutch, fearing that England would make herself supreme on the seas, but she had not taken much share in the war, her policy being to use the two great naval powers as checks one upon the other. The following were the terms of the treaty: (1) The islands of St. Christopher, Antigua, and Montserrat were restored to England, and the province of Acadia (Nova Scotia) to France. (2) England and Holland made peace on the principle of *uti possidetis*; thus England retained New York and New Jersey, and Holland retained Surinam. (3) The Navigation Act was modified in favour of the Dutch. (4) Friendly relations were restored between England and Denmark.

Brehon, or, more correctly, Brethem, in Erse signifies a judge. From the earliest days of Irish history of which we have any trace, this class seems to have been a distinctly recognized one, and previous to the conversion of the Irish to Christianity we have proof that the office had become hereditary. In fact, there seems strong reason for connecting the Brehons with the ancient Celtic priesthood in Ireland, whether or no we choose to give to that priesthood the name of Druid. [Druids.] Some of the chief Brehons, whose names have been handed down to us, especially a very celebrated one, Dubhthach mac na Lugair, chief author of

the "Senchus Mor," is by later writers often called a Druid. Cæsar tells us that the Druids had acquired the office of judges in both civil and criminal cases, and that they were likewise bards who preserved the historical traditions of the people. The Brehons, as they are known to history—that is to say, the Brehons of Christian time—seem to have united these two offices. "The Brehons and feast poets of the men of Erin," says an opening paragraph of the "Senchus Mor." We can easily understand that when a change of religion came, and the priestly functions passed to the men ordained by Patrick and his successors, the more secular offices would be retained by the Brehons. The preaching of St. Patrick began about the year 432, and was crowned with a rapid success. One of the most important among his early conversions was that of the Brehon Dubhthach previously referred to. We may suppose there were mutual concessions between the two. Dubhthach, who was probably a Druid, renounced his magical and idolatrous practices, and Patrick in his turn "blessed his mouth" (as we are expressly told in the "Senchus Mor") when he uttered secular judgments. It was probably with St. Patrick that the idea arose of writing down the Brehon laws, or, as we should say, of codifying them. We must remember that at this time Theodosius had just codified the Roman law, a precedent which would be present in the mind of St. Patrick. In fact, from this time forward we nearly always find that the conversion of any barbarous people to Christianity is immediately followed by some sort of codifying of their ancient traditional law. The first Saxon code is that of Ethelbert, King of Kent, which was undertaken by St. Augustine. Whatever of the traditional law is not inconsistent with the Christian doctrine or the Crown law is in all cases retained, but what is opposed to these is expunged. Thus, in the introduction to the first great code of Brehon laws, the "Senchus Mor" (A.D. 438–41), we find a distinction made between the "law of nature" and the "law of God." The latter refers to the laws which came with the revealed religion; the former term bears reference to the words of St. Paul where he speaks of the Gentiles "doing by nature the works of the law," and therefore means all in the ancient code which was not inconsistent with the revealed commandments. The "Senchus Mor" is said to have had nine authors, or co-operators, in its construction, who are spoken of as "the nine pillars of the Senchus Mor." Three were kings, viz., Laeghaire, Over-King of Ireland; Corc, King of Cashel; and Dairi, King of Ulster. Three were bishops or saints, namely, Patrick, Benen (Benignus), and Cairnech; these we may suppose looked after the Christian portion of the code. Finally, we have three Brehons, who were, of course, the chief authors of the law, viz., Dubhthach before mentioned, assisted by Rossa and Ferghus. These last two are sometimes spoken of simply as "bards"; but as we have before said, it is not probable that there was any distinct line of demarcation between the Brehon and the bard.

"Ancient Laws of Ireland" (Irish Rolls Series).

[C. F. K.]

Brembre, Sir Nicholas (*d.* 1388), was lord mayor of London in 1377 and 1378, and again from 1383 to 1385. He was the head of the royalist party in the city, and in 1387 was one of those who were appealed of treason by the lords appellant. In 1388 he was impeached by parliament, sentenced to be beheaded, and shortly afterwards executed. [Appellants.]

Brémule, The Battle of (August 20, 1119), was a cavalry skirmish fought during the campaign in Normandy between Louis II of France and Henry I, and arose out of the support given by the former to William Clito. The French were united, and shortly afterwards Louis made peace and abandoned William. There were only about 900 men engaged in this combat, and not more than three were killed. Both kings were present on the field.

Ordericus Vitalis, xii, 854.

Brentford, The Battle of (November 12, 1642), was fought between the Royalists under Prince Rupert and the Parliamentarians under Denzil Holles. After the battle of Edgehill Charles marched towards London, touching Reading and other places on the way. At Brentford Rupert encountered three regiments which were stationed there, and after a sharp skirmish forced the barricades they had erected, and occupied the town of Brentford, taking fifteen hundred prisoners and eleven cannon. The Parliamentary army being subsequently reinforced, the king was obliged to fall back from Brentford, and retired into winter quarters at Oxford.

Clarendon, "History of the Rebellion," vi, ed. W. D. Macray, 1888.

Brentford, Patrick Ruthven, Earl of (*d.* 1651). [Ruthven.]

Brest, The Expedition against (1694), was a disastrous failure. The English government had attempted to keep the destination of the expedition secret, but it had become well known to the French government. Information had been treacherously conveyed to them by various persons in England, among others by Marlborough, who wrote a letter to James II on the subject. Thus forewarned, the French government sent Vauban to put the defences in order. On June 6 the fleet, under Berkeley, with Talmash in command of the land forces, was off Cape Finisterre. It was proposed to land in Camaret Bay. The Marquis of Carmarthen, the eldest son of the Duke of Leeds, entered the basin to reconnoitre, and reported the defences formidable. But Berkeley and Talmash thought that he overrated the danger. Next day Carmarthen, with eight ships, was followed by Talmash with a hundred boats full of soldiers. A murderous fire from the batteries

swept away the men. Talmash, however, imagining that he was confronted by peasants, refused to retire, and fell mortally wounded as he attempted to land. Ships and boats hastily retired from the bay, but not without the loss of 400 sailors and 700 soldiers. The expedition returned ingloriously, after attempting to blow up the pier at Dunkirk and bombarding Dieppe, Havre, and Calais.

London Gazette, 1694.

Brétigny, The Treaty of (May 8, 1360), was concluded between England and France after the continued successes of Edward III, while the French king, John, who had been taken prisoner at Poitiers, remained in captivity in England. The protracted negotiations were brought to a close by a dreadful storm, recorded in history, which was interpreted to be a manifestation of divine wrath at the continuance of hostilities. France consented to cede all Aquitaine, including Gascony, Guienne, Poitou, and their dependencies and outlying districts; and in northern France, Calais, Guines, and the county of Ponthieu. King John was to pay a ransom of 3,000,000 gold crowns. The question of Brittany was left open. The French were to break off their alliance with the Scots, and to abstain from assisting them against the English, and the English were to give no further aid to the Flemings. By a separate treaty, the Kings of France and Navarre were to be reconciled. It was arranged that there should be a subsequent exchange of charters of renunciation; Edward abandoning his claim to the French throne, and John his claim to the suzerainty of the ceded districts. The instruments were, however, never executed, and thus the way was left open for the resumption of warfare in 1369.

The articles are in Rymer, "Fœdera," vi, 219, 232. See also Froissart, 209.

Bretwalda. A title of supremacy among the early Anglo-Saxon kings. Bæda ("Hist. Eccles.," ii, 5) gives a list of seven kings who had ruled over the English south of the Humber. The first four—Ella of Sussex, Ceawlin of Wessex, Redwald of East Anglia, and Ethelbert of Kent—could have had no power over the Northumbrians, even if they all really possessed the influence Bæda assigns to them. But the last three—Edwin, Oswald, and Oswy—were Northumbrian kings, and therefore their "imperium" or "ducatus," according to Bæda, must have extended over all South Britain. Oswald is, in fact, called by Adamnan ("Vit. S. Columbæ"), "Totius Britanniæ Imperator ordinatus a Deo," and history proves the reality of their power. The Anglo-Saxon Chronicle (s.a. 827), when enlarging on the exploits of Ecgbert, quotes Bæda's list, and adds to them Ecgbert, saying, "And he was the eighth king that was *Bretwalda*." West-Saxon prejudice probably caused the chronicler to pass over the great Mercians of the eighth century, of whom Ethelbald claimed to be "King of the South English," and Offa "Rex Anglorum" ("Cod. Dip.," i, 96, 162, etc.), while Charles the Great called the latter the "greatest of the kings of the West." Besides this passage, the remarkable word Bretwalda occurs elsewhere only in a bilingual charter of Athelstan in 934 ("Cod. Dip.," v, 218), which describes him as "King of the Anglo-Saxons and *Brytaenwalda* of all the island"—in Latin, "Anglo-Saxonum nec non totius Britanniæ Rex." In seeking the meaning of this rare title we must first distinguish between the name Bretwalda and the fact of overlordship. Everyone admits the successive hegemony of Northumbria, Mercia, and Wessex over English and British alike. But the nature of this supremacy, and the relation of the Bretwaldadom to it, have been much debated. Rapin started a theory of an elective sovereignty, which Turner and Lingard at least tacitly accept, and which Palgrave worked out to new consequences in his "English Commonwealth." Palgrave connected the title with the imperial position of the kings, as inheritors of the remains of Roman Imperialism that still survived the withdrawal of the legions. The Bretwalda was the successor of Carausius, the predecessor of Edgar. He illustrates the continuity of Roman and British influence after the English Conquest, and the all-pervading fascination of Rome. "Heptarchic" England was a federal monarchy under an elective Bretwalda, the "wielder of Britain." Out of this office grew the later English kingship. Athelstan, the last Bretwalda, the first "King of the English," marks the contact of the two titles. Against this brilliant but unsupported theory Kemble ("Saxons in England") did his best to minimize both fact and title. The word, according to him, meant not "ruler of Britain," but "wide ruler" (from *bryten*, broad; cf. *brytencyning*). The idea of election among the "kites and crows," of continuity between rival races, of a meeting of Welsh princes to transfer to Ella the "Empire of Britain," he condemned as quite untenable. How could the feeble princes of the south-east make their influence felt up to the Humber? Hallam ("Middle Ages," ii, 352–9, and "Archæologia," vol. xxxii) inclined, though with more moderation, to a similar view. Freeman ("Norman Conquest," vol. i, note B) leaned to "an intermediate position between Kemble and Palgrave." He accepted the title as significant of a substantial hegemony, but rejected Palgrave's doctrine of Roman influence and continuity. The Bretwaldadom, he held, was of "purely English growth." Stubbs ("Constitutional History," i, 162) seems to agree with Freeman in a view that certainly best accounts for the facts. If we could get rid of Ella and the earlier Bretwaldas, there would be some reason for connecting the triumph of the Northumbrians over Cadwallon, and the final catastrophe of the Britons, with Edwin's assumption of imperial style and emblems. (See Rhŷs, "Celtic Britain," p. 134,

for a later development of Palgrave's theory.) But there is no evidence for a consistent theory, and there is always the danger of making too much of a name that occurs only twice in the authorities.

Besides the authorities referred to in the text, see E. A. Freeman, "Norman Conquest," i, 542, note B, where there is a statement of the arguments on both sides of the question, and a list of the various imperial titles assumed by early English kings.

[T. F. T.]

Brewer, William (*d.* 1226), was employed as a minister, a judge, and an ambassador by Henry II, Richard I, John, and Henry III. He was a strong supporter of the royal prerogative under the two latter monarchs, and received valuable rewards for his services.

Brian Boru (or Boroimhe) is said to have been the son of Kennedy, King of Cashel or Munster. His first warlike exploits were performed under the banner of his brother, Mathgamhain. After his brother's assassination, Brian became king, and as such compelled the Danes of Dublin to pay tribute. In 984 he secured the kingship of Leinster. He was engaged in a long and finally successful war against Malachy (Maelsechlainn II), the King of Tara, and his nominal overlord. In the end he was acknowledged as lord even by the O'Neills, and Malachy, their chief, followed in his train as an under-king. The whole island had now submitted to him (1001), but the Danes made an effort to re-establish their supremacy. Leinster joined the Ostmen, but they were overthrown by Brian in twenty-five battles and finally at Clontarf (1014). Brian, who is said to have been eighty-three years of age, did not command in person, but remained in his tent, where, after the victory had been won, he was killed. Tradition makes Armagh his burial-place. Brian Boru must be regarded as the popular hero of early Irish history, and the stories told about his reign led to its being regarded as a sort of golden age. The O'Briens and many other distinguished Irish families claim him as their ancestor.

"Annals of Inisfall"; "Niala Saga"; O'Connor, "Rer. Hibern. Script. Vet."; E. Curtis, "History of Mediæval Ireland."

Bribery. (1) Indirect Bribery, by the bestowal of titles and offices and the like, has at some periods of our history been frequently employed by the Crown and by its ministers. The practice became very common under the later Stuarts, and under William III the abuse had become so great that by the Act of Settlement, 1701, it was enacted that no person holding an office under, or receiving a pension from, the Crown should be eligible for election as a member of parliament. This act was speedily repealed in favour of one which rendered the holders of any new office created after October 25, 1705, incapable of sitting in the House, as well as persons who were in receipt of a pension from the Crown during pleasure, and which further obliged members to vacate their seats on accepting any of the existing offices, though they might be immediately re-elected. In 1742 another act was passed against placemen; and in 1782 government contractors were prohibited from sitting in the House. After the beginning of Pitt's administration, the practice of bestowing places as a bribe to members gradually became much less common, and almost ceased after the Reform Bill; though a certain amount of this indirect form of bribery is perhaps a necessary accompaniment of our parliamentary system, which places offices at the disposal of the leaders of the successful party. [Pensions.]

(2) Direct Bribery by sums of money may be divided into three classes:—

(i) *Bribery of Members of Parliament by the Crown or its Ministers* was largely employed during the age of Charles II, when the king himself took the money of France, and partly employed it in bribing members. Instances had, however, occurred under James I, and we are told that Richard II occasionally used "gifts" to secure the passing of unpopular measures through the House of Commons. William III found it necessary to have recourse to the same means of propitiating obstinate members; and under George II (especially during the administration of Sir Robert Walpole) bribery was "reduced to an organized system." Under George III Lord Bute frequently bribed those whose votes he wished to secure. In regard to the peace of 1762, Horace Walpole says: "A shop was publicly opened at the Pay Office, whither the members flocked, and received the wages of their venality in bank-bills, even to so low a sum as £200 for their votes on the treaty; £25,000, as Martin, secretary to the treasury, afterwards owned, were issued in one morning, and in a single fortnight a vast majority was purchased to approve the peace." In 1763 Lord Saye and Sele returned Grenville a bribe of £300, saying that "a free horse wanted no spur." The practice continued under Lord North, but gradually died out under the powerful and popular administration of Pitt. The union with England in 1800 was, however, passed through the Irish parliament by the systematic bribery of the opposition members, carried out on an enormous scale. In recent years the sale of honours has been the occasion of some scandal.

(ii) *Bribery of Judges and Ministers* was, even in early times, of very frequent occurrence; and it was no uncommon thing to find one or more of the judges corrupt. In 1401 a statute was passed, to the effect that all judges, officers, and ministers of the king convicted of bribery should forfeit treble the bribe, be punished at the king's will, and be discharged from the king's service, whilst the person who offered the bribe was held guilty

of a misdemeanour. Under the Tudors and Stuarts judicial bribery under various forms was common. So eminent a person as Lord Chancellor Bacon was, in 1621, found guilty on his own confession of having received extensive bribes, although he denied that he had permitted them to influence his judgment. He was heavily fined, sent to the Tower, and degraded. There are, however, many later instances of judges being removed for corruption. Judicial and ministerial bribery has, however, been practically unknown since the Revolution of 1688.

(iii) *Bribery connected with Elections.* An early instance of a penalty inflicted for bribery in elections was in 1571, when a fine was imposed on the borough of Westbury for receiving a bribe of four pounds for the election of Thomas Long as their member, "being a very simple man, and of small capacity to serve in that place," though Long himself was not expelled from the House. Under the Stuarts the practice of purchasing votes continued, and had become quite common by the reign of Charles II. In 1696 an attempt was made to pass a statute, which subsequently became law in the reign of Anne, to impose a property qualification of £600 a year from land on county members, and £300 a year on borough members, in order to check the system by which men who had made money in trade or otherwise used to buy seats in places with which they had absolutely no connexion. Ten years before this, however, the first Bribery Act had been passed, though bribery had even then been recognized as an offence by the common law, and had been condemned by resolutions of the House of Commons. The increase of corruption under George II led to an act in 1729 inflicting severe penalties on persons receiving bribes; but it seems to have had little effect, and in 1762 another act was passed inflicting pecuniary penalties for bribery. There were two methods by which candidates might purchase a seat: they could either buy the borough outright from the corporation or proprietor, or, if the electors happened to be independent, they could buy individual votes. Examples of the first method are by no means uncommon. In 1767 the mayor and corporation of Oxford offered to return their sitting members, Sir Thomas Stapylton and Mr. Lee, at the next election for £567. The offer was refused, and some of the aldermen were sent to Newgate, but subsequently discharged, after having been reprimanded on their knees by the Speaker. The borough of Ludgershall was sold for £9,000; and, says Erskine May, "it was notorious at the time that agents, or 'borough-brokers,' were commissioned by some of the smaller boroughs to offer them to the highest bidder." Bribery of individual electors also prevailed to a large extent, prices generally ranging from twenty guineas to one guinea a vote; though it is said that the electors of Grampound on one occasion received £300 apiece. In 1768, 1782, and 1786 attempts were ineffectually made to secure the acceptance of bills to restrain corruption; and it was not until 1809 that a bill was brought in by Mr. Curwen to prevent the obtaining of seats by bribery, and actually passed. Heavy penalties were imposed by it on corrupt agreements for the return of members; and in the case of persons returned by bribery or corruption, it enjoined the forfeiture of their seats, but does not seem to have been very effectual. The Reform Act of 1832 made no distinct provision for the restraint of bribery, which continued to be practised more or less openly, in many cases leading to the disfranchisement of boroughs. In 1841 a new Bribery Act was passed extending the powers of election committees. In 1852 an act provided for the appointment of royal commissioners to inquire into cases of corruption; and two years later the offer or acceptance of a bribe was rendered a misdemeanour, which might be punished by fine, imprisonment, and forfeiture of franchise; by this act also the accounts of election expenses were to be published. In 1858 another act permitted the conveyance of voters to the poll, though no money was to be given to the voters themselves for the purpose. In 1883 an act, called the Corrupt and Illegal Practices Act, was passed to prevent bribery and limit the expenses of elections. Stringent penalties against corruption are enacted in it. A candidate found guilty of bribery is incapacitated for sitting in the House of Commons, or voting at an election for seven years. Persons convicted of bribery, or "undue influence," are liable to imprisonment for a year, and a fine of £200. The use of hired vehicles for conveying voters to the poll is illegal. Since 1868, when the House of Commons resigned its privilege of exclusive jurisdiction in cases of controverted elections, the mode of questioning the validity of an election is to present a petition against it. This petition is tried before one of the judges of the superior courts of common law. The judge certifies the result of the trial to the Speaker, and at the same time reports any violations of the law relating to corrupt practices which have been proved before him. The House thereupon takes the requisite action on his certificate and report. [ELECTIONS.]

Sir W. Anson, "Law and Custom of the Constitution"; Halsbury, "Laws of England." [F. S. P.]

Bridge of Dee, THE AFFAIR OF (1639), is the name given to the forcing of the bridge over the Dee by Montrose and the Covenanters. The bridge was gained by its defenders being drawn off by a stratagem, and access was thus obtained to the city of Aberdeen. In September 1644 Montrose, this time on the Royalist side, again fought a successful engagement at the bridge of Dee.

Bridge Street Gang (1820). A nickname bestowed on the "Constitutional Association" formed for the suppression of seditious, libellous, and blasphemous literature, which made itself very unpopular by its activity in instituting prosecutions against newspapers and other publications.

Spencer Walpole, "History of England from 1815," 1879.

Bridgeman, Sir Orlando (1606 ?–74), was the son of a bishop of Chester, and was returned as member for Wigan to the Long Parliament in 1640. He took part with the king, and in 1644 was one of the members of the Oxford Parliament. In 1645 he was one of the king's commissioners at the Treaty of Uxbridge. During the Commonwealth he lived in retirement, and devoted himself to conveyancing. Bridgeman and Sir Geoffrey Palmer are credited with the invention of an important legal expedient during this period. "This was the notable contrivance of 'trustees to preserve contingent remainders,' of which it is enough to say that it protected the interests of tenants in tail against the risk of being defeated by the wrongful act of preceding life tenants. From this epoch must be dated the modern type of settlement." On the Restoration he was appointed lord chief justice of the Common Pleas. He presided at the trial of the regicides. From 1667 to 1672 he was lord keeper of the great seal. His eldest son, Henry, was created Lord Bradford.

Bridgwater. An ancient town in Somersetshire on the River Parret, and said to derive its name (Burgh-Walter) from a Walter of Douai, to whom the manor was granted at the Conquest. A fine castle was built here in Henry II's reign by William de Briwere. The town was taken by the Royalists in 1643, but in July 1645 it was captured by Fairfax. By this capture the Parliamentarians secured a line of forts extending from sea to sea which blocked up and practically isolated Devonshire and Cornwall. Bridgwater was one of the places that declared for Monmouth, and it was within a few miles of this town that he met with his overthrow at Sedgemoor. The borough of Bridgwater was disfranchised in 1870.

A. H. Powell, "The Ancient Borough of Bridgwater," 1907.

Bridport, Alexander Hood, 1st Viscount (1726–1814). [Hood.]

Briefs, Church, were letters addressed by the sovereign to the archbishops, bishops, and clergy, empowering them to raise voluntary contributions for building churches, and for charitable purposes generally. They do not appear to have been issued before the Reformation, and may possibly be derived from the briefs given by the papal court to mendicant friars, empowering them to collect contributions. The granting of briefs appears to have led to great abuses. It was regulated by 3 Anne, c. 14, and practically abolished by 9 Geo. IV, c. 42, though briefs have been issued for special purposes since the date of the latter statute.

Briefs, Papal. [Bulls; Papacy.]

Brigantes, The, were a powerful tribe, or confederacy of tribes, of ancient Britain. They appear to have occupied the whole of the northern and north-western part of southern Britain, as far as the Firths of Forth and Clyde, and to have been driven northward from their original southern possessions by later colonists. According to the view of some authorities, they were descendants of the earlier (non-Celtic) inhabitants of the island. They were, at any rate, among the rudest and fiercest of the British tribes. Cartimandua (q.v.), the queen of one of the Brigantian tribes, was an ally of the Romans, and delivered Caratacus (q.v.) to them when he sought refuge in her kingdom. But the nation was weakened by a civil war, which broke out between Cartimandua and her husband, Venusius; and after being defeated by Cerealis in 69, was subdued, after some difficult campaigns, by Agricola. There was a tribe of Brigantes (possibly a colony from Britain) which occupied the present county of Wexford, in Ireland.

Tacitus, "Agricola," 22, etc.; Elton, "Origins of English History"; Skene, "Celtic Scotland," i, 71.

Brigham, The Conference of (March 1290), was a meeting held by the Scots estates, near Berwick, to decide about the marriage of the Maid of Norway and Prince Edward of England previously agreed upon at Salisbury. A treaty was made, and accepted by Edward I, providing that the rights and liberties of Scotland should continue unviolated; that the kingdom of Scotland should remain separate from England, divided by its proper boundaries; and that no parliament was to be held beyond the frontiers of Scotland to discuss matters respecting that kingdom, and other points favourable to Scotland. When Baliol obtained the crown of Scotland from Edward, the English king required as a condition of its bestowal the renunciation of the Treaty of Brigham.

Rymer, "Fœdera," i, 735–6.

Bright, John (1811–89), son of Jacob Bright, of Greenbank, Rochdale, took an active part in the reform agitation of 1831–2, and became, in 1839, one of the earliest members of the Anti-Corn Law League. In April 1843 he unsuccessfully contested the city of Durham, for which, however, he was returned in July following; and he continued to sit for Durham till 1847, when he was returned for Manchester. He made his maiden speech in parliament on Ewart's motion for extending the principles of free trade, August 7, 1843. During the interval between his election for Manchester and the accession of the first Derby ministry to power, Bright's activity in parliament and on the platform was varied

and continuous. In the House of Commons he proposed to apply the remedy of free trade in land to the state of things which produced the Irish famine. He appealed unsuccessfully for the dispatch of a royal commission to investigate the state of India; and in 1849 he was appointed one of the members of the celebrated select committee of the House of Commons on official salaries. In parliament and in the provinces, especially at Manchester, he co-operated earnestly with Cobden in his attempts to obtain financial reform, with a view to the reduction of the naval and military establishments. He also denounced the Crimean War with great energy, and at the general election which ensued he was rejected by Manchester, but in a few months was invited to fill a vacancy at Birmingham. In 1868 he accepted office under Gladstone as president of the board of trade, but was compelled by ill-health to retire from office in December 1870. On his recovery, he became chancellor of the duchy of Lancaster, which office he continued to hold till the downfall of the Liberal government in 1874. On the return of the Liberals to power, under Gladstone, in 1880, Bright again became chancellor of the duchy of Lancaster. He resigned on July 17, 1882, owing to a difference with his colleagues as to their Egyptian policy. In 1886 he opposed the Home Rule Bill.

Biographies by W. Robertson (1883), J. T. Mills, 1903, J. Page, 1904, and G. M. Trevelyan, 1913; Bright's Speeches, 2 vols., 1869; and Letters, 1885.

Brihtwald. [Berthwald.]

Brihuega, The Battle of (1710), was a great defeat sustained by the British arms during the War of the Succession in Spain. General Stanhope, with Stahremberg, his Austrian colleague, had occupied Madrid, but it was found impossible to hold the city. They therefore retreated into Catalonia, marching in two parallel armies. The French commander, the Duke of Vendôme, pursued with remarkable rapidity. Stanhope was surprised and surrounded at Brihuega. The walls of the town were battered with cannon, and a mine sprung under one of the gates. The British kept up a deadly fire until their powder was consumed, and then fought on with the bayonet against terrible odds. At length the British general saw that further resistance could produce only a useless slaughter of his troops. He concluded a capitulation by which the remnant of his army, 500 in number, surrendered themselves as prisoners of war. Scarcely was it signed when Stahremberg appeared. His slowness had ruined his cause; but the battle that ensued, called that of Villa Viciosa, was admirably contested, when night put an end to it. Stahremberg remained master of the field, but all the fruits of the battle remained with Vendôme. The Austrian general spiked his cannon, and, with a remnant of his army, consisting of 7,000, took refuge in Barcelona.

H. M. A. Parnell, "War of the Spanish Succession," 1905.

Brisbane, the capital of Queensland, was founded as a penal settlement in 1825, and named after Sir Thomas Brisbane, governor of New South Wales, 1821–5. It formed part of New South Wales till 1859. The penal establishment was abolished in 1842.

Bristol has from an early period ranked as one of the most important of English towns. Until the rise of Liverpool and the manufacturing towns of the north, it was the second city in the kingdom. The castle was granted by William II to Robert Fitz-Hamon, from whom it passed by marriage to Robert of Gloucester, natural son of Henry I. Robert of Normandy was for a time imprisoned here. In Bristol Castle Stephen was imprisoned by the partisans of Matilda in 1141, and sixty years later the ill-fated Eleanor of Brittany was incarcerated at Bristol by her uncle John, who was afraid that her claims to the throne might be put forward by his opponents. In 1399 Henry of Lancaster took the town, and put to death many of the adherents of Richard II. Sebastian Cabot (q.v.) was born at Bristol, and sailed from that port on his famous voyage, and in 1609 a colony of settlers from Bristol were the first to establish themselves in Newfoundland. Bristol was made the seat of one of Henry VIII's new bishoprics. The town played a very prominent part in the civil war of the seventeenth century. At the beginning of the Great Rebellion Bristol declared for the Parliament and received a garrison under the command of Nathaniel Fiennes. In July 1643 the Royalist successes in the west made the possession of Bristol still more important, as commanding the valley of the Severn, and Prince Rupert was sent to besiege it. After a very brief attack, Fiennes determined to capitulate, and Rupert offered such good terms that a large number of the Parliamentary troops took service in his army. Bristol remained in the possession of the Royalists till September 1645, when Rupert, who was in command of the town, surrendered it in almost as unaccountable a manner as Fiennes had done two years before. In 1656 Bristol Castle was destroyed by the government. In 1685 it was the one town in Somerset that refused to receive Monmouth. In 1715 serious riots broke out here on the occasion of the accession of George I. Violent riots also occurred in 1793 in opposition to an unpopular bridge-toll, and many persons lost their lives before they were suppressed; and great rioting took place in 1831 [Bristol Riots] in connexion with the Reform Bill. The church of St. Mary Redcliffe, one of the finest in England, was in great part built by William Canyng, a wealthy merchant of Bristol, in the later part of the fourteenth century.

S. Seyer, "Memoirs of Bristol," 1821; J. Evans, "Chronological History of Bristol," 1824; "Victoria County History: Gloucestershire"; W. Hunt, "Bristol," 1887.

Bristol, Earls of. [Digby.]

Bristol Riots (October 29–31, 1831) were a series of outbreaks produced by the popular indignation which resulted from the rejection of the Reform Bill by the House of Lords. On the occasion of the public entry into Bristol of the recorder, Sir Charles Wetherell, a bitter opponent of the bill, a mob, which seems never to have greatly exceeded a few hundred persons, took possession of the principal streets, broke into the town hall, and set fire to several houses. For two days the weakness of the magistrates allowed the disorders to continue unchecked; at length they instructed the military to re-establish order, which was done without much difficulty, though with some loss of life. The blame for the long continuance of the riots was laid on Colonel Brereton, the commander of the military, who might have used the discretion with which the magistrates had armed him (probably in order to avoid the responsibility themselves) to suppress the disturbances at an earlier period. He was tried by court-martial, and, unable to face the consequences, committed suicide. Four of the ringleaders were hanged, and the town was compelled to pay £68,000 damages.

W. Hunt, "Bristol," 1887.

Britain. [Britannia; Romans in Britain; Britons; and Great Britain.]

Britain, Count of (Comes Britanniarum), was a Roman officer who in Constantine's scheme of governing the empire, was the supreme general of the military forces in Britain. His jurisdiction was, however, subject to that of the masters of the cavalry and infantry in the west. His power was not localized within Britain, but under him were the *Dux Britanniarum*, who seems to have commanded the forces massed along the northern wall, and the *Comes Litoris Saxonici*, who was in command of the coast-line between the Wash and Wight, which was most exposed to piratical Saxon assaults.

Britannia, or Brittania (the latter very rare form is the "theoretically correct" spelling), a name constructed by the Romans from the Celtic word *Priten* or *Prydyn*, meaning the painted or tattooed men; and used by them to denote the larger of the "British Islands," originally styled Albion. After Cæsar's time this is the general usage, but in an earlier form "αἱ βρεταvικαὶ νῆσοι" are said to have included Ierne (Ireland) as well as Albion. [Britons.]

Britannia, The Roman Divisions of. Originally only one province of Britain was constituted, but Severus appears to have divided it into Upper and Lower Britain, and a line drawn from the Mersey to the Humber may have constituted the boundary between the two divisions. When Diocletian and, later, Constantine reorganized the empire, the "diocese" of Britain was divided into four "provinces," Britannia Prima, Britannia Secunda, Flavia Cæsariensis, and Maxima Cæsariensis. To these Valentia was added in 369; it probably consisted of the district between the two walls of Hadrian and Antoninus. The situation of the rest is unknown, although an inscription found at Cirencester indicates that that town was in the province of Britannia Prima.

British Columbia. [Columbia.]

British Empire, The, consists of Great Britain and Northern Ireland, the Channel Islands, and the Isle of Man, the Irish Free State, India, the Dominions of Canada and New Zealand, the Union of South Africa, the Commonwealth of Australia, and colonies, protectorates, and dependencies, to which are attached various mandated territories. This Commonwealth of Nations occupies more than a quarter of the world's land surface, and its estimated population bears a like proportion to the whole. Out of this population only one-seventh is of European stock, and barely a fifth Christian. It is an empire which, by its conglomerate growth, the variety of its component parts and the vast differences separating them, is incapable of centralized organization and presents a multiplicity of problems that are interdependent and bewildering in their gravity. Some sort of uniform policy, however, is adopted in the administration of the dependent empire by means of the colonial office (q.v.), while the dominions office and the Imperial Conference (q.v.) regularize a harmony out of the relations of those parts of the empire called the autonomous dominions. Probably the best method of classification is according to the form of government in each component part. A territorial grouping is possible and has been adopted in this dictionary for convenience and in view of the tendency of some of the component parts of the empire to group themselves into confederations comparable to those which already exist. The governmental classification is useful, however, in showing the relation of the colony or dependency to the imperial government. India is treated separately (q.v.). I. The self-governing dominions are Canada, New Zealand, South Africa, Irish Free State, Newfoundland, and the Commonwealth of Australia with its six component states. The territories administered by the Commonwealth are of course a separate class. Autonomy was guaranteed to the dominions by the Imperial Conference of 1926 (q.v.), and its relations with the mother country then defined. II. Southern Rhodesia, which enjoys responsible self-government subject to certain conditions relating to native administration (which matters are reserved for the high commissioner for South Africa), is in a separate category by itself. III. Malta enjoys a similar uniqueness. It has responsible government

with regard to internal affairs, but in matters of imperial concern the governor legislates and administers with the help of a nominated council of officers and can be overruled by the secretary of state, and even by a legislative order in council by the Crown. IV. The fourth category is that of colonies not possessing responsible government but in which the administration is carried on by public officers under the control of the colonial secretary, and also of protectorates similarly controlled. This category can be further divided as follows: (1) Colonies possessing an elected house of assembly and a nominated legislative council, viz., Bahamas, Barbados, and Bermuda; (2) colonies possessing a partly elective legislative council, the constitution of which does *not* provide for an official majority, viz., British Guiana, Ceylon, and Cyprus. (3) Colonies and protectorates possessing a partly elective legislative council in which the constitution *does* provide for an official majority, viz., Fiji, Grenada, Jamaica, Kenya (the legislative council of which has power to legislate also for Kenya Protectorate), the Leeward Islands (a confederation), Mauritius, Nigeria Colony and Protectorate (a single political unit), St. Lucia, St. Vincent, Sierra Leone Colony and Protectorate (similar to Nigeria), the Straits Settlements, and Trinidad. (4) Colonies and protectorates possessing a legislative council nominated entirely by the Crown, viz., British Honduras, the Falkland Islands, the Gambia (the legislative council of which legislates for Gambia Protectorate), the Gold Coast, Hong Kong, Northern Rhodesia, Nyassaland Protectorate, Seychelles, and the Uganda Protectorate. Northern Rhodesia has not yet passed the legislation necessary to complete the permissive constitution which provides for an elective element in the legislative council. The others in this class, with exception of British Honduras, are so regulated that there is an official majority in the council. (5) Colonies and protectorates without legislative councils, viz., Ashanti, Basutoland, Bechuanaland Protectorate, Gibraltar, the Northern Territories of the Gold Coast, St. Helena, Somaliland, Swaziland, Wei-hai-wei, and the islands included under the Western Pacific high commissionership. There is, however, behind these governmental forms of the possessions in this fourth category the ultimate legislating sovereignty of the Crown; and except in the Bahamas, Barbados, Bermuda, British Honduras, and the Leeward Islands, the Crown has the power to legislate by order in council.

Under the separate headings will be found a short historical survey and description of the constitution of all the parts of the British Empire. The colonial policy of Great Britain can best be studied in the following works:

H. Gunn (ed.), "The Britannic Commonwealth," 12 vols., 1924; C. P. Lucas (ed.), "Historical Geography of the British Colonies"; J. A. Williamson, "Short History of British Expansion," 1922; A. W. Tylby, "The English People Overseas," 6 vols., 1911–14; H. E. Egerton, "Short History of British Colonial Policy," 1910; J. R. Seeley, "Expansion of England," 1883, and "Growth of British Policy," 2 vols., 1895; A. J. Herbertson and O. J. R. Howarth, "Oxford Survey of the British Empire"; C. P. Lucas, "Beginnings of English Overseas Empire," 1917; J. A. Williamson, "Maritime Enterprise, 1485–1558," 1913; G. L. Beer, "Origins of the British Colonial System, 1573–1660," 1908 and 1922, and "The Old Colonial System, 1660–74," 2 vols., 1913, and "British Colonial Policy, 1754–65," 1922; C. M. Andrews, "The Colonial Period," 1912; L. C. A. Knowles, "The Economic Development of the British Overseas Empire," vol. i, 1924; J. R. Scott, "Joint Stock Companies," 3 vols., 1912; E. Jenks, "The Government of the British Empire at the end of 1917," 1918; A. B. Keith, "Constitution, Administration, and Laws of the Empire," 1924, and "Responsible Government in the Dominions," 3 vols., 1912; H. E. Egerton, "Federations and Unions within the British Empire," 1911 and 1924; A. P. Newton, "Federal and Unified Constitutions," 1923; Viscount Bryce, "Modern Democracies," 2 vols., 1921; A. Demangeon, "L'Empire Britannique," 1923 (trans. 1925); H. E. Egerton, "British Colonial Policy in the Twentieth Century," 1922; C. Bruce, "The Broadstone of Empire," 2 vols., 1910; A. C. Snow, "The Administration of Dependencies," 1902; B. L. P. Weale, "The Conflict of Colour," 1910.

Statistical information is to be found in the "Statesman's Year Book" (annual), which also gives short bibliographies, and in the "Dominions Office and Colonial Office List and Year Book" (annual). For bibliographies see "A Select List of Books relating to the History of the British Empire Overseas," by A. P. Newton (Historical Association Leaflet No. 46, revised, 1921 and 1928), and in the Royal Colonial Institute Bibliographies, of which four have to date (1927) been compiled under the direction of the librarian, E. Lewin. [H. R.]

British Empire Exhibition, at Wembley. [Exhibitions.]

British Legion, The. (1) On the outbreak of the war between Isabella of Spain and Don Carlos, in 1835, an order in council was issued authorizing "any person to engage during the next two years in the military and naval service of her Majesty Isabella II." De Lacy Evans, a colonel in the British army, was selected for the command. Recruits to the number of 10,000 were enlisted, and dispatched to the Peninsula. In 1837 Evans returned to England, and in 1838 the ministry withdrew the order in council and the corps was dissolved. (2) In 1921 the four national organizations of ex-service men existing in Great Britain were amalgamated to form the British Legion, which was incorporated by royal charter in 1925.

F. Duncan, "The English in Spain, 1834–40," 1877.

British New Guinea, or Papua (q.v.) a territory of the Commonwealth of Australia (q.v.).

British North Borneo. [Borneo.]

"Briton, The North." [Wilkes.]

Britons. The general name given by the Romans to the inhabitants of South Britain. Its etymology is generally traced to the Welsh *brith* (spotted or tattooed), but it has also been associated with *brethyn*, the Welsh for cloth. On the latter hypothesis the Britons were the clothed people, as opposed to the pre-

Celtic occupants, who, it was formerly thought, wore but little clothing. The classical form, "Britanni" passed away with the Romans, and was superseded by the form "Brittones." Modern inquirers have sought a remedy for the vague use of the word Briton by limiting it (in its Welsh form, Brython) to that branch of the Celtic stock otherwise called the Cymric, and it has been pointed out that large Gaelic survivals prevented South Britain from being exclusively the property of either group of tribes. [CELTS.] But as these vestiges of the Gael had almost passed away before regular history begins, we cannot do much harm in treating of the Britons in the more general sense of the ancient writers. But, politically and socially, we have not sufficient information to draw a clear line between Brython and Goidel (Gael); especially if we reject the accounts given by Bæda and his school. The absence of heroic kingship, the nearer approximation (especially in the south-east) to the higher culture and civilization of Gaul, the predominance of Druidism [DRUIDS] over the ordinary Aryan polytheism are, perhaps, the chief marks of the "Brythonic" tribes. Linguistically, they are distinguished from the Gael by the use of "p" instead of the older "qu" or "qv." The tribes of the south were, from their neighbourhood or their affinity to the Gauls, the most advanced in culture, and the Cantii were, according to Cæsar, the most civilized nation. Besides these, the chief tribes of the Britons were the Belgæ (q.v.), Atrebatii, Regni, Durotriges, and Dumnonii of the South; the Dobuni, Catuvellauni, Coritavi, and Cornarii of Middle England; the Iceni, Cenimagni, and Trinobantes of the Eastern counties; the Silures, Demetæ, and Ordovices of south-eastern, south-western, and northern Wales; the Brigantes (q.v.), and some less important tribes—such as the Parisi, Segantii, Otadini, Selgovæ, and Damnonii—of the district between the Humber and the Northern Wall. Beyond this latter the Britons, in any precise sense, hardly extended.

J. Rhŷs, "Celtic Britain," 1904; E. B. Nicholson, "Celtic Studies," 1904; T. Rice Holmes, "Ancient Britain," 1907. [T. F. T.]

Brittany, RELATIONS WITH. One of the great phenomena of the fifth century was a wholesale migration of Britons to northern Gaul. The process began, according to Nennius, as early as the days of the usurper Maximus (383), but no contemporary evidence of British colonization is available before the middle of the next century. About that date large numbers of exiles from southern and western Britain sought refuge from the Saxon incursions in the neighbouring peninsula of Armorica. There they settled, bringing with them their own language, religion, and institutions and even local nomenclature, and establishing the counties of Vannes, Cornouailles, Léon, and Domnonée. Thus came into being the Brittany of later history. With the establishment of the English monarchy over Britain, the early relations of Wales and Brittany became slighter. But even in England we find Alfred sending gifts to Breton abbeys, and Athelstan giving a shelter to Alan when the Breton revolt against William Longsword of Normandy had been put down. The superiority which Rolf had previously established over Brittany thus continued, and it accounts for the number of Bretons in the Conqueror's army, and their large grants of land in the west of England. Alan of Brittany received that honour of Richmond which so long remained a link between England and Brittany. It was from Brittany that Walter Map brought the old Welsh Book of Legends of Arthur that is professedly the basis of Geoffrey of Monmouth's history, and Rhys Ap Tewdwr's return from his exile in Armorica marks a new era in Welsh literature. Like the Welsh, the Bretons were constantly harassed by war and faction; and, in 1148, when the Count of Porhoet defeated Hoel VI, the defeated party invoked the aid of Henry of Anjou as Rolf's successor. Henry granted the duchy to his brother Geoffrey, whose death was succeeded by the triumph of the native prince, Conan IV. But Henry, since 1154 King of England, compelled Conan to abdicate and marry his daughter Constance to his (Henry's) son Geoffrey. Thus Henry II practically added Brittany to the Angevin dominions. Geoffrey died in 1186, and the rivalry of John and Philip Augustus for his territory ultimately led to his son Arthur's murder, the French triumph, and a new line of Breton princes that sprang from Geoffrey's daughter. In 1342 Edward III found another opportunity of intervention in favour of John of Montfort, the native claimant, against Charles of Blois, the friend of Philip VI. For many years the Breton succession war was an episode in the great hundred years' struggle of France and England. Left unsettled at the Treaty of Brétigny (q.v.), the question was at last decided, at the battle of Auray, in favour of the house of Montfort. In the early stages of England's second struggle for France, Brittany, though less energetically than Burgundy, sided with the English. But Arthur of Richmond, brother of the duke, and inheritor of the old honour of Alan, broke with the English, and became the great supporter of Charles VII. In 1488 the death of Francis II produced a European contest for the hand of his daughter Anne which, despite the exertions of Henry VII, resulted in her marriage with Charles VIII, and the ultimate annexation of Brittany to France. Thus the old ally of England became a province of her hereditary enemy.

Britton is the title of an early summary or abstract in French of English law purporting to have been written by command of Edward I. Nothing is known with certainty

as to the authorship of the work. The theory that it was the work of John le Breton, Bishop of Hereford, is untenable, because there are allusions in the work to events which occurred after the death of that prelate in 1275. Selden and others have thought that the book was written by Henry de Bracton, and is an abridgment of his great work. [Bracton.] Britton is a very useful guide to the English legal system of the thirteenth century.

"Summa de legibus Angliæ quæ vocatur Bretone," ed. Nicholls, 1865.

Broad Bottom Administration, The (1744–54), was a cant name given to the ministry formed by the Pelhams, after they had contrived to rid themselves of Carteret by threatening to resign, because its supposed policy was to admit to office the heads of opposition, both Whig and Tory, except Carteret and Bath. Chesterfield and Pitt were persuaded to relinquish their opposition (the former becoming lord-lieutenant of Ireland), the privy seal was given to the Tory Lord Gower, and Sir John Hinde Cotton, an undoubted Jacobite, was given a place about the court; while other posts were given to the Dukes of Devonshire and Bedford, Lords Cobham and Hobart, and Bubb Dodington. In 1746 the Pelhams, finding themselves in danger of being once more supplanted by Granville (Carteret), demanded the admission of Pitt to office, and on the king's refusal resigned; but on Granville's failure to form a ministry they returned to office.

W. Coxe, "Life of [Henry] Pelham," 1829.

Broad-Church Movement, The, sprang from the strivings of some intellectually eminent members of the Church of England, during the middle of the nineteenth century, to establish a new harmony between Christianity and other aspects of human life, by the free expression of their own feelings, and without any party organization such as that of the evangelical Low-churchmen or that of the Tractarians and other High-churchmen. Their views found their most popular expression in the poems of Tennyson, who typified this movement much as Cowper had typified the evangelical revival. The pioneers of the movement fell into two groups. The rationalizing Aristotelian spirit of eighteenth-century latitudinarianism was influential at Oxford, especially among the "noetics" of Oriel; it showed itself in such scholars as Whateley, Hampden, Lyell, Senior, Arnold, Stanley, Milman, and Colenso; it assisted in the revival of academic learning, in the reform of boarding schools, and in the critical study of logic, economics, geology, history, and Hebrew literature; it inclined towards favouring the co-operation and reunion of Christian denominations as branches of a single church; and the bitter opposition it received from the Low-Church and High-Church parties was counterbalanced by considerable support from the state, from 1830. From Cambridge, on the other hand, and especially from the "apostles" of Trinity, came a small group of important writers imbued with the idealism of Plato and Berkeley: Coleridge, John Simon, Hare, Maurice, Kingsley, and Tennyson; in close sympathy with such tolerant High-churchmen as Hugh Rose, Samuel Wilberforce, and Trench, they inclined to regard all history as the movement of men towards perfection as members of a national and catholic church, with the result that, like the Pre-Raphaelites, they helped to rehabilitate the Middle Ages and the idea of human brotherhood, although they showed no lack of belligerent patriotism; and, having regard to the divine destiny of all mankind, they assisted greatly in the development of evening instruction, women's education, sanitation, and co-operation, from 1848, in their attempt "to christianize socialism."

A. P. Stanley, "Dr. Arnold of Rugby"; J. F. Maurice, "Life of F. D. Maurice"; R. L. Archer, "Secondary Education in the Nineteenth Century"; C. E. Raven, "Christian Socialism"; W. J. Conybeare, "Church Parties," 1853; F. D. Maurice, "The Kingdom of God." [W. H. W.]

Broken Men was the name applied by the Scottish government, in the fifteenth century and subsequently, to such persons in the Highlands as had no chief to be responsible for them. The government had so far recognized the tribal institutions that, by an act of council of the reign of James IV, the chiefs were held responsible for the execution of writs against their followers.

Bromley, Sir Thomas (1530–87), was in 1566 made recorder of London, and in 1569 solicitor-general, in which capacity he took a leading part in the trial of the Duke of Norfolk, 1572; he was subsequently employed in the attempt to extort concessions from the Queen of Scots; and, on the death of Sir Nicholas Bacon, was made lord chancellor, 1579. In 1586 he took an active part in the prosecution of the conspirators in Babington's plot, and was president of the commission for the trial of Mary Stuart, whilst he shared with Burghley and Davison the responsibility of dispatching the warrant. He died shortly afterwards, having never got over the anxiety of the presidency.

Bronze Age, The. [Archæology.]

Brooke, Henry, 8th Lord Cobham (*d.* 1619), son of William, 7th Lord Cobham (q.v.), is chiefly remembered in connexion with the Main Plot of 1603. He was made a knight of the Garter in 1599, and was one of the victims of Essex's plot in 1600. In 1603 Cobham was suspected of complicity in Watson's plot on behalf of the Catholics (the Bye Plot—q.v.), and of being in correspondence with Aremberg to place Arabella Stuart on the throne (the Main Plot). He was arrested in July, and sent to the Tower with Ralegh. After attempting to throw the sole guilt on Ralegh he was tried (November) and sentenced to death. But

James I had him returned alive to the Tower, where he languished till 1617. He died on his way back to the Tower after a visit to Bath, 1619.

Brooke, Sir James (1803–68), after serving with credit in the Bengal army, visited Borneo in his yacht in 1838, and assisted the sultan against the revolted Dyak tribe. In return he received a grant of the district of Sarawak from the Sultan of Borneo with the title of Raja. He did much to ameliorate the condition of the natives, to develop the resources of the island, and to suppress piracy, and earned on several occasions the thanks of the British government, to whom he more than once offered to surrender Sarawak. The island of Labuan having been acquired by the British, Brooke was appointed its governor, 1847; but in 1851 serious charges of cruelty towards the Dyaks were brought against him by Joseph Hume. A royal commission investigated the matter, but came to no definite conclusion. Sir James Brooke was, however, deprived of the governorship of Labuan. His later years were spent in England; but he frequently visited Sarawak.

"Parliamentary Debates" (3rd ser.), vol. 118, p. 439 seq. A collection of Sir J. Brooke's "Letters" was issued in 1853.

Brooke, William, 7th Lord Cobham (*d.* 1597), was a favourite of Queen Elizabeth, under whom he held the office of lord warden of the Cinque Ports, and later those of constable of the Tower and lord chamberlain. He was employed on diplomatic missions in 1559, 1579 (with Walsingham), and 1588. Suspicion of his complicity in Northumberland's plot of 1571 earned him two years in the Tower (1571–3).

Brougham and Vaux, Henry Peter, Lord (1778–1868), the eldest son of Henry Brougham, of Brougham Hall, Westmorland, educated at the High School and University of Edinburgh, was admitted to the Scottish bar in 1800. When the *Edinburgh Review* was established in 1802, Brougham became one of its most active contributors, and exhibited an extraordinary variety and extent of knowledge. In 1807 he resolved to qualify himself for the English bar, and in 1808 he began to practise in the Court of King's Bench, and on the northern circuit. In 1810 he was returned to parliament for the borough of Camelford. His powers of debate were soon recognized, and he became the rival of George Canning, and his most formidable opponent. In the election of 1811 Brougham was beaten at Liverpool by Canning, and was excluded from parliament till 1815, when he was returned for Winchelsea. In 1820 he undertook, with Denman, the defence of Queen Caroline. During the whole of the trial his popularity was as unbounded as the queen's. On February 11, 1822, he moved a resolution in the House of Commons for the consideration of the public burdens, particularly those pressing on the agricultural interest. This motion was, however, negatived. In the same year he moved a resolution condemnatory of the unconstitutional influence of the Crown in the government, which was also lost. In 1823 he delivered a powerful speech exposing the designs of the Holy Alliance. On April 23 of the same year he exchanged abuse of such an insulting nature with Canning, that the Speaker was compelled to order both into the custody of the sergeant-at-arms, and they only escaped this by retractations. In the same year he was engaged with Birkbeck in founding the first Mechanics' Institute. In 1825 he took a large share in the foundation of the Society for the Diffusion of Useful Knowledge, and also of the London University. In 1828 he delivered his famous six hours' speech on law reform. In 1830 he came forward prominently as the champion of parliamentary reform, and the House of Commons had no sooner met than he announced his intention to bring in a scheme (on November 16) embracing a comprehensive measure of reform. A ministerial crisis, however, supervened. The Duke of Wellington, having been defeated on a government measure, resigned on the 15th, and the formation of a new government under Earl Grey, including Brougham, who with some difficulty was induced to accept the chancellorship, placed in the hands of the ministry the great question of parliamentary reform. He was raised to the peerage on November 23. But though he was no longer a representative of the people, and personally relieved from the charge of the Reform Bill, his best powers were called forth in support of it; and his speech on October 7, 1831, when the bill was read a second time in the House of Lords, was a display of eloquence of the highest order. As lord chancellor, Brougham's success was not very great. He was unacquainted with the details of English equity, jurisprudence, and with the practice of his court, and his manners gave great offence to the distinguished advocates who practised before him. His extraordinary energy, however, atoned for many defects, and he had the distinction of getting through the arrears in his court with unexampled rapidity. In 1834 Brougham resigned with the Whig government. In 1835 they returned to power under Lord Melbourne, but Lord Brougham, who had never acted cordially with the leaders of his party, did not return with them, and Cottenham, greatly to Brougham's anger and chagrin, was made lord chancellor. Released from party ties he now acted independently, and even showed a disposition to court the Tories, and especially the Duke of Wellington. But for the remainder of his long life the part he played in politics was unimportant, though his restless vanity still kept him before the public eye. As a law reformer, and a member of the privy council, he continued to do useful work; and many of his judgments in House

of Lords appeals are of great importance. Lord Brougham's powers of mind, his remarkable activity, his ardent love of liberty and justice, his versatility and his eloquence, made him one of the most conspicuous figures in English politics for many years; and had these great qualities not been neutralized by defects almost as striking—an unbounded recklessness, an extraordinary want of self-control, and an eccentricity which sometimes bordered on insanity—he could hardly have failed to rank among the most illustrious of English statesmen.

Lord Brougham's "Autobiography," 1871, which was written during the closing years of his life when his memory was failing, is often untrustworthy. The same must be said of Lord Campbell's "Life" of Brougham, 1844, the work of a not too generous rival. Lord Brougham wrote largely on a great variety of topics, but his writings are now little read. The best of his historical works are the "History of England Under the House of Lancaster," 1852, and "Sketches of the Statesmen of the Time of George III," 1839–43. His "Speeches" were collected in four volumes, 1838. See also A. Aspinall, "Lord Brougham and the Whig Party," 1927. [S. L.]

Broughton, John Cam Hobhouse, Lord (1786–1869). [Hobhouse.]

Browne, Anthony, 1st Viscount Montague (1526–92), "a man of great wisdom, prudence, and loyalty," was the eldest son of Sir Anthony Browne, master of the horse to Henry VIII, and as a staunch Roman Catholic was high in favour with Mary, by whom he was created a peer (September 1554). He was lieutenant of the English forces at the siege of St. Quentin, and in 1561, in spite of his vigorous opposition to the Acts of Uniformity and Supremacy, was sent by Elizabeth on a mission to the court of Spain. His religion caused him to be suspected of sympathy with the northern rebels in 1569, but he nevertheless contrived to retain the favour of the queen. He was one of the commissioners at the trial of Mary Queen of Scots in 1587.

Brownists, The, were a religious sect founded in the reign of Queen Elizabeth by Robert Browne, a clergyman of the Church of England, who began to preach his doctrines about 1580. They were ultra-Puritans, regarded the Church of England as impure, and, assuming the character of separatists, refused to hold any communication with her. They were strong opposers of Episcopacy, and, in consequence, suffered much persecution at the hands of the bishops. In 1593 a statute was passed enacting the penalty of imprisonment against any person above the age of sixteen who should forbear, for the space of a month, to repair to some church until he should make such open submission and declaration of conformity as the act appointed. In consequence of the rigorous enforcement of this act, a large proportion of the Brownists sought an asylum in Holland, whence subsequently, in 1620, many of them sailed from Amsterdam to found a new home in America. The members of the sect who remained in England endured considerable persecution, until the principle of toleration was recognized. During the Civil Wars of Charles I's reign they became merged in the sect of the Independents. The Brownists objected alike to Episcopacy and to the Presbyterian form of church government, and favoured a purely congregational system, without convocation or synod, and without any separate order of priests. [Barrowists; Congregationalism.]

Fuller, "Church History"; Neal, "History of the Puritans"; Mosheim, "Ecclesiastical History"; Masson, "Life of Milton," vol. ii.

Bruce, The Family of (or de Brus), was of Norman descent. The founder of the English branch came over with William the Conqueror and obtained large grants of land in Yorkshire, where the family quickly assumed a powerful baronial position, being frequently involved in border warfare with the Scots. David I of Scotland made over to Robert de Bruce II the lands of Annandale about 1124, and thus the family obtained its recognition as a power in the south of Scotland. The Scots lordship passed to Robert's younger son, and remained with his descendants; while the English lands passed to his elder son and were eventually partitioned among coheiresses in 1271. Isabella, second daughter of David, Earl of Huntingdon, the brother of Malcolm IV, married Robert de Brus, Lord of Annandale (*d.* 1245), and their son became a competitor for the crown of Scotland, 1291. Their grandson was the great Robert Bruce, King of Scotland, 1306–29.

Bruce, Edward (*d.* 1318), was the brother of King Robert Bruce. He commanded the right wing at Bannockburn, and dispersed the English archers. His restless spirit gave much trouble to his brother, who gladly let him go to Ireland, to assist the native rebels against England. On May 25, 1315, he landed from a fleet of 300 sail at Larne, on the coast of Antrim. With some 600 men he took Dundalk, and was joined by a large native force. At Connor in Antrim he defeated Richard de Burgh, the Red Earl of Ulster, and proceeded to besiege Carrickfergus. In Meath Roger Mortimer succumbed to him at Kells, and the flight of another English force before him at Ardscull led to a rising in Munster and Leinster on Bruce's behalf. In May 1316, the O'Neill resigning his claims, Bruce was crowned King of Ireland. In the meantime, however, want of provisions compelled the Scots to retire into Ulster and leave the Wicklow septs to their fate. The de Burghs and Geraldines also agreed to a truce in face of a common foe; and in August Felim O'Connor and the men of Connaught were defeated by the English at Athenry (q.v.). The capture of Carrickfergus in September and the arrival of King Robert himself with reinforcements at the end of the year turned the tide once more in favour of the Scottish party. The Bruces, followed by

20,000 men, now marched straight on Dublin, and the de Lacys openly joined them. Dublin was not taken, but the country was wasted as far as Limerick; and so completely was this done that the Scots themselves suffered severely, on their retreat, from want, and it was only the supineness of the English which enabled them to regain their old position. In 1317 Robert Bruce's good sense induced him to give up the contest and leave Ireland; all his forces, however, remained with his brother. The Anglo-Irish, still fighting among themselves, were unable to gain any advantage. In 1318, however, Edward Bruce and the de Lacys, joining their forces, marched to Dundalk, but were met at Faughart on October 14 by the now united English, and were routed, Bruce himself being killed. His body was quartered, and the head sent to Edward II.

Walsingham, "Hist. Anglic."; P. Hume Brown, "History of Scotland," 1911; C. S. Terry, "History of Scotland," 1920; Orpen, "Ireland Under the Normans," vol. iv.

Bruce, James, 8th Earl of Elgin (1811–63), entered parliament as Conservative member for Southampton in 1841. In 1842 he resigned his seat in the Commons on being appointed governor of Jamaica. In 1846 he was sent to Canada and carried out the conciliatory policy of his father-in-law, Lord Durham (q.v.). He was raised to the peerage with the title of Baron Elgin. From Canada he went to China as special ambassador, and successfully negotiated the Peace of Tientsin after the capture of Canton and the rout of the Celestials. In 1859 he entered Palmerston's cabinet as postmaster-general. In consequence, however, of the refusal of the Chinese to receive his brother, Mr. Bruce, as envoy in accordance with the treaty, he was sent again to sustain British authority, and was once more completely successful (1860). He was shortly afterwards appointed to succeed Lord Canning as governor-general of India, where he died. His son and successor in the title, Victor Alexander, 9th Earl of Elgin, was governor-general of India, 1894–9, and secretary for the colonies, 1905–8.

Biographies by G. M. Wrong, 1905, and W. P. M. Kennedy, 1926; G. L. Morrison, 1928.

Bruce, Robert, King of Scotland. [Robert I.]

Bruce, Robert de (*d.* 1295), Lord of Annandale, was the son of Robert de Brus and Isabella, daughter of David of Huntingdon. He was one of the Scots commissioners who went to Salisbury to confer about the marriage of Prince Edward and the Maid of Norway. On the dispute for the succession to the Scots crown, after the death of the Maid of Norway (1290), Bruce put in a claim as the descendant, in the nearest degree, of David of Huntingdon. He also declared that in 1240 Alexander II had, in an assembly of the Estates, recognized him as his heir in the event of his dying childless (since that time, however, other male descendants had been born). The only competitor whom Bruce had need to fear was John Baliol, in whose favour Edward finally decided (November 1292). On the resignation of Baliol in 1295, Bruce tried ineffectually to persuade Edward to bestow the kingdom on him. He died shortly afterwards.

P. Hume Brown, "History of Scotland," 1911.

Bruce, Thomas, 2nd Earl of Ailesbury, and 3rd Earl of Elgin in Scotland (*d.* 1741), was present at the death-bed of Charles II. He did not take the oath of allegiance to William III, but on the contrary played a prominent part in the Jacobite conspiracies against the king. He was present at a meeting of Jacobites at the Old King's Head tavern, London, in 1695. He was sent to the Tower for his complicity in the Assassination Plot (q.v.), and, in conjunction with Fenwick, attempted to bribe the witness Porter to leave the country. He always denied, however, that he had been privy to the criminal designs of the plotters. Macaulay remarks that "his denial would be the more creditable if he had not, by taking the oaths to the government against which he was so constantly intriguing, forfeited the right to be considered as a man of conscience and honour."

Brude, Son of Marlin, was a powerful Pictish monarch (556–83 or 84) who had his capital at Inverness. In 560 he defeated the Scots of Dalriada, slaying their king, Gabran, and driving them back to Kintyre. This defeat was important, as it led to the mission of St. Columba, by whom Brude was baptized in 565. [Picts.]

Brunanburh, The Battle of (937), was fought by Athelstan against the combined forces of Anlaf Guthfrithson (q.v.), the Danish King of Dublin, Anlaf Cuaran his cousin, Constantine of Scotland, and Eugenius of Strathclyde. This powerful combination was thoroughly routed by Athelstan, and in commemoration of the great Saxon victory over the Danish and Celtic league a noble war-song was composed, which is preserved in the "Anglo-Saxon Chronicle." The site of the battle has been much discussed, but it is probable that it was fought at Burnswark to the north of the Solway Firth.

E. A. Freeman, "Norman Conquest," vol. i, 1867.

Brunei. [Borneo.]

Brunswick, House of. [Hanover.]

Brutus (or Brute) was the name assigned to the fabulous hero who was supposed to have given his name to the island of Britain. According to the account given by Geoffrey of Monmouth, and universally believed in the Middle Ages, Brutus was the great-grandson of Æneas. Having been banished from Italy, he retired to Greece, where he became the champion of the oppressed Trojans. After many difficulties, he succeeded in reaching Albion, which at that time was inhabited by giants. Having destroyed these monsters,

the Trojans occupied the country, which, in honour of their leader, they called Britain. Brutus died in the twenty-fourth year after his arrival in the island.

Brydges, JOHN, LORD CHANDOS OF SUDELEY (*d.* 1556), accompanied Henry VIII to France, 1513, when quite a boy. He greatly distinguished himself at the Battle of the Spurs [TEROUENNE], and in 1549 successfully defended Boulogne, of which he was deputy-governor, against the French. He subsequently became lieutenant of the Tower, and had the custody of Lady Jane Grey and the Princess Elizabeth.

Biography by J. R. Robinson, 1893.

Buccaneers (the name is derived from a word used by the Caribbean Indians denoting dried or cured meat) were associations of piratical adventurers which flourished in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries. The buccaneers were chiefly English and French, and owed their origin to the attempts made by other European nations, in the early part of the sixteenth century, to acquire a share in the rich American trade which the Spaniards attempted to engross. The buccaneers, though in later times they carried on general piracy, directed their chief efforts against the Spaniards, whom they regarded as their natural enemies. In 1625 they took St. Christopher, and in 1630 Tortuga, which they made their head-quarters. In 1670, under Henry Morgan, they captured Panama with immense booty; and in 1683 and 1684 made the expeditions to the South Seas which are described in Dampier's famous "Voyages." In 1670 a treaty, called "The Treaty of America," was concluded between England and Spain for the suppression of the buccaneer associations, but it was quite ineffectual. The wars between England and France, by making the English and French buccaneers enemies, did much to weaken them, and after the Treaty of Ryswick they gradually disappeared. The most noted buccaneer chiefs were Lewis Scot, François Lolanois, Mansvelt, and especially Henry Morgan (q.v.), who was knighted by Charles II and made deputy-governor of Jamaica.

J. Burney, "History of the Buccaneers," 1816; A. H. Cooper-Pritchard, "The Buccaneers," 1927; C. H. Haring, "The Buccaneers in the West Indies in the Seventeenth Century," 1910.

Buch, JEAN DE GRAILLY, CAPTAL DE (*d.* 1377), was one of the most famous of the English commanders in the French wars of Edward III's reign. He was a native of Aquitaine, and attached himself to the Black Prince, with whom he fought at Poitiers and Navarrete. In 1372 he was taken prisoner by the French, and died in captivity five years later.

Sir C. Oman, "England and the Hundred Years' War," 1898.

Buchan, EARLS OF. [COMYN; STEWART.]

Buchanan, GEORGE (1506–82), studied at Paris and at St. Andrews, and became tutor to the Earl of Cassilis in 1529, and subsequently to a natural son of James V. He bitterly assailed the friars in his "Franciscanus," which subjected him to much persecution from Cardinal Beaton. He found it unsafe to reside in Scotland, and retired to Bordeaux. In 1544 he went to Paris and taught at the college of Cardinal le Moine. Three years later he went to Coimbra in Portugal. Here he was seized as a heretic, and imprisoned in a monastery, where he began his version of the Psalms. On his release he remained for some years in France, but later returned to Scotland as Latin tutor to Queen Mary. He now openly professed himself a Protestant. In 1567 he was made moderator of the general assembly. He took a considerable share in political affairs, being among the most violent opponents of the Queen of Scots after the murder of Darnley. He was present at the Commission of Inquiry at York in 1568 as secretary, and has been charged, though with little justification, with the forgery of the "Casket Letters" (q.v.). In 1571 he printed his tract "Detectio Mariæ Reginæ," a very bitter attack on Mary. Meanwhile, in 1570 he had become tutor to the young prince James. Soon afterwards he was made director of the chancery and keeper of the privy seal, and sat in parliament for some years. He was a voluminous writer of Latin verse, and is among the first, if not the very first, of non-classical poets. He was the author of two important prose works. The famous treatise, "De Jure Regni apud Scotos," published in 1579, is a political dialogue on the source and origin of kingly power. It is filled with the principles of liberal and constitutional monarchy, and its author has been not inaptly styled "the first Whig." The "Rerum Scoticarum Historia," published in 1582, is still of value as a record of Scots affairs in the sixteenth century.

Buchanan's "Works," 2 vols., 1725, ed. Burman; Irving, "Memoir of Buchanan"; biographies by P. Hume Brown, 1890, and R. Wallace, 1900.

Buckingham was an ancient borough at the time of the Domesday survey. It had been fortified by Edward the Elder in the early part of the tenth century, and captured by the Danes in 1016. In the pre-Conquest period it possessed its own mint. It was a place of considerable trade in the Middle Ages, and Edward III fixed one of the wool staples there. It received a charter from Mary in 1554, which was surrendered and restored in 1684. The borough formerly returned two members to parliament; but it was deprived of one of its representatives in 1868, and of the second in 1885.

"Victoria County History: Buckingham," iii; H. Gough, "Bibliotheca Buckinghamiensis," 1890; Browne Willis, "History and Antiquities of Buckingham," 1755.

Buckingham, DUKES OF. [STAFFORD; VILLIERS.]

Buckingham, Peerage of. (i) Walter Giffard, lord of Longueville in Normandy, is said to have received the earldom of Buckingham from William II. His son died without issue, 1164. (ii) Thomas of Woodstock, youngest son of Edward III, was created Earl of Buckingham, 1377. He was attainted in 1397; and his son Humphrey, who, though styled Earl of Buckingham, never succeeded to his father's honours, died without issue in 1399. (iii) Humphrey, Earl of Stafford, who seems to have been considered as Earl of Buckingham in right of his mother, Anne, sister of the last earl, was created Duke of Buckingham, 1444. His great-grandson, the 3rd duke, was beheaded, 1521, and his honours forfeited. (iv) George Villiers, the favourite of James I, was created Earl of Buckingham in 1616, marquis in 1618 (his mother, being later in the year created Countess of Buckingham for life, died 1632), and duke in 1623. George Villiers, 2nd duke of this line, died without issue, 1687. (v) John Sheffield, Marquis of Normanby, was created Duke of Buckinghamshire, 1703. His son Edmund, 2nd duke, died without issue, 1735, and the honours became extinct. (vi) In 1746 John Hobart, Baron Hobart of Hickling, Norfolk, was created Earl of Buckinghamshire; and the title remains at the present day with his descendants. (vii) George Grenville, Earl Temple (son of George Grenville, premier 1763–5, and brother of Lord Grenville, premier 1806–7), was created Marquis of the town of Buckingham, county Bucks, 1784. His son was created duke in 1822, under the title of Duke of Buckingham and Chandos. [Stafford, Sheffield, Villiers.]

Buckinghamshire, John Sheffield, Duke of (1648–1721). [Sheffield.]

Budget, The, a term first used in England about 1760, denotes the financial statement presented to parliament by the chancellor of the exchequer at the beginning of each financial year, consisting of two statements, (1) as to the surplus or deficit for the past year, (2) an estimate of revenue and expenditure for the coming year, with proposals for an increase or reduction of taxation according to the balance of the estimates. The estimates themselves are divided into two parts—consolidated fund services and supply services—the former an annual charge fixed by statute, the latter debatable. The supply services are debated in the House of Commons sitting as a committee of supply, and are voted by the committee of ways and means (q.v.). The resolutions of both committees are then reported to the House of Commons, and embodied in the Finance Act for the year.

Buenos Ayres, Expeditions against (1806–7). In the spring of 1806 Sir Home Popham, who was in command of the naval forces at the Cape of Good Hope, without any authority from the home government sailed from the Cape, taking with him all the naval force, and 1,500 troops. The armament arrived off Buenos Ayres on June 24. No time was wasted, and on the 28th the land forces surprised and captured Buenos Ayres, while a feint was made by the fleet against Monte Video. But the inhabitants secretly organized an insurrection which broke out on August 4, and was assisted from without by the militia of the surrounding districts. The British garrison, after a stout resistance, was overpowered; and the survivors were made prisoners of war, though Sir Home Popham escaped with the squadron, and anchored for a while at the mouth of the river. A fresh force of 5,000 troops was dispatched, under Sir Samuel Auchmuty (q.v.), who, on February 3, 1807, assaulted Monte Video, and carried it by storm after a most stubborn conflict, in which the British loss was 600. In June Auchmuty was joined by General Craufurd with reinforcements, which brought up the total of the British forces to 9,000 men; and General Whitelocke was sent out to take command of the whole force. On July 5 an attack was made, without due preparation or design, on Buenos Ayres. The town had no regular fortifications, and the inhabitants trusted solely to their advantageous position on the roofs and towers. From these points of vantage the attacking troops were met by a destructive fire. On the right, Auchmuty seized the Plaza de Toros, with its large stores of all sorts; but this advantage was more than counterbalanced by the defeat of the British at all other quarters. Next morning the Spanish general offered to restore all British prisoners on condition of the evacuation of Monte Video and all the rest of the region of the La Plata; and Whitelocke agreed. On returning to England he was tried by court-martial, and dismissed the service.

"Annual Register," 1806–7.

Buller, Sir Redvers Henry (1839–1908), British general, entered the army in 1858 and served in China (1860), the Red River Expedition (1870), the Ashanti campaign (1873–4), the Kafir War of 1878–9, the Zulu War (1879), the Boer War of 1881, the Egyptian campaign of 1882, and the Sudan campaign of 1884–5. He was under-secretary for Ireland in 1886, and adjutant-general in 1890; he was promoted lieutenant-general in 1891, and general in 1896. In the Boer War of 1899 he commanded the South African Field Force, and relieved Ladysmith on February 27, 1900, after three unsuccessful attempts. After the war he retired into private life in England.

Biography by L. Butler, 1909.

Bulls, Papal, are the letters issued by the popes in their official capacity, addressed to individuals or communities, usually on matters of doctrine. Papal letters may be either Briefs or Bulls. The latter are considered the more authoritative and important. They are in-

variably written in Latin on thick parchment, in angular archaic characters, and sealed with the *bulla* or globular seal of lead attached to the document by threads of silk or hemp. The name "bull" does not appear as applied to the document before the thirteenth century. The brief, which first came into general use during the pontificate of Eugenius IV, is written in cursive characters, on paper or thin vellum, and sealed in wax with the seal of the Fisherman (*sub annulo Piscatoris*). It generally refers to matters of discipline. By an ordinance of the Conqueror, ecclesiastics in England were forbidden to receive letters from the pope, unless they had previously obtained the royal permission. Royal letters, forbidding the introduction of papal bulls without licence, were issued by Edward II in 1307, and by Edward III in 1327 and 1376. To procure or publish them was declared high treason by 13 Eliz. c. 2. [For the various bulls of importance, see under their titles, e.g., Clericis Laicos; and for the whole subject see Papacy.]

For the various bulls relating to England, as well as to other countries, see the "Bullarium Magnum Romanum," Luxemburg, 1727, etc.

Bulwer, Edward George Earle Lytton, 1st Baron Lytton (1803–73), first entered parliament as member for St. Ives in 1831. He attached himself to the Whigs, was returned for Lincoln in 1832 and represented that borough till 1841. His famous pamphlet on "The Crisis" appeared in 1834. In 1843 he changed his name to Bulwer-Lytton. In 1852 he re-entered the House of Commons as a Conservative, and on the accession of Lord Derby to power (1858) he became secretary of state for the colonies. During his short period of office, lasting only a year, he called into existence two new colonies, those of British Columbia and Queensland. In 1866 he was raised to the peerage. He was one of the most versatile and accomplished writers of his time, and was the author of a large number of poems, dramas, and miscellaneous works.

Lytton's "Memoirs" (unfinished), 2 vols., 1883; biography by T. Cooper, 1873.

Bulwer, William Henry Lytton Earle, Baron Dalling and Bulwer (1801–72), was sent as minister to Madrid in 1843, where he remained until, in 1848, he was ordered to leave the kingdom upon presenting to the queen-mother Lord Palmerston's recommendations to adopt a more liberal policy. From 1849 to 1852 he was minister at Washington, where he negotiated the Clayton-Bulwer Treaty (q.v.), and from 1852 to 1855 at Florence. From 1856 till 1865 he was ambassador at Constantinople. In 1871 he was created Baron Dalling and Bulwer.

Bundelkhand. The name of the district between Oudh, Malwa, Berar, and Bengal. It was conquered by Rajput tribes in the fourteenth century, and, though exposed to frequent attacks from the Mohammedans, it always managed to resist them successfully. In the middle of the eighteenth century, however, large portions passed into the possession of the Peshwa, and towards the end of the century the whole province was in Mahratta hands. The Treaty of Bassein (q.v.) ceded a portion of the territory to Great Britain, and soon afterwards the Raja Bahadur was induced to part with his large territories in Bundelkhand, receiving compensation elsewhere. On the extinction of the Peshwa's independence in 1818, all his sovereign rights in Bundelkhand were finally ceded to the British.

Bunker Hill, The Battle of (June 17, 1775), is noticeable as the first important battle of the War of American Independence. Boston is separated by a narrow channel or arm of the sea from the suburb of Charlestown. On June 12 General Gage had declared martial law, and was in possession of Charlestown and Boston. To secure his position in the former, it was necessary for him to occupy two hills which commanded it—Breed Hill and Bunker Hill. The latter was farther from Charlestown, but was the higher of the two, and dominated Breed Hill and Charlestown. On the night of the 16th a body of American militia were sent to seize it. When on the next morning they were descried on the top of Breed Hill, which they had occupied by mistake, Gage determined to attack them. Three thousand regulars, under Howe and Pigot, assaulted the position in front, unsupported by any movement from the rear. Twice they were driven back, but in the third attempt they were joined by Clinton, and succeeded in dislodging the defenders, who, however, made good their retreat to Prospect Hill, where they encamped. The loss of the assailants in so fierce an assault was 226 killed and 828 wounded and missing. In the course of the assault, Charlestown had been set on fire by the British troops under Howe, and the exasperation caused by this act far more than counterbalanced any gain resulting to them from the battle, especially as they remained idly watching Washington, who was in the greatest difficulties, and quite unable to offer any serious resistance to vigorous measures.

Bancroft, "History of America."

Burdett, Sir Francis (1770–1844), the son of Sir Robert Burdett, entered parliament in 1796 as member for Boroughbridge. In 1797 he brought forward a motion for parliamentary reform, and in the following year vigorously protested against the attempts of the government to gag the press. Two years later he devoted all his energies to prevent the suspension of the Habeas Corpus Act, and to secure better provision being made for political prisoners. In 1802 he was elected for Middlesex, and was re-elected at the head of the poll on the former election being declared void (1805). At the election of 1806 he issued a celebrated address to the Middlesex electors,

and on being re-elected gave a warm support to the administration of Fox and Lord Grenville. On the resignation of that government he stood for Westminster, and was easily elected. In 1810 he was convicted by the House of Commons of having committed a breach of privilege in a certain letter addressed to his constituents. Burdett refused to surrender to the Speaker's warrant, and the people defended his house. The result was a series of riots, in which the people were fired upon, and some of them killed. Burdett was arrested by force. He proceeded to bring actions against the Speaker, and nearly everyone who had a hand in his commitment to the Tower, but was unsuccessful. His imprisonment terminated with the prorogation of parliament, and he resumed his place at the beginning of the session of 1811, when he chiefly occupied himself in opposing the Regency Bill. In 1820, after in vain attempting to induce the House to consider the conduct of the Manchester magistrates at Peterloo, he vented his feelings in a letter to his constituents, for which he was sentenced to three months' imprisonment, with a fine of £2,000. In 1822 he supported Lord John Russell's proposed Reform Bill, and continued one of its warmest advocates till it was carried. After this Sir Francis gradually fell away from the Liberals. He denounced the alliance, which took place shortly afterwards, between the ministry and O'Connell, retired from Brooks's Club, and openly joined the Tories. In 1837 he was returned as Conservative member for North Wilts. Till his death in 1844 he continued to represent that constituency.

Lord Holland's "Memoirs," 1850; S. Walpole, "History of England from 1815," 1879; Roebuck, "Reform Parliament"; M. W. Patterson, "Sir Francis Burdett."

Burford, The Battle of (752), between the West-Saxons, under Cuthred, and the Mercians, under Ethelbald, resulted in the victory of the former and the recovery of the independence of Wessex.

Burgess. In the mediæval English borough the burgess was an inhabitant who owned a burgage tenement within the town. Burgage tenure—a variety of free socage—"implied a fixed rent in lieu of all services, and the right to devise one's lands and tenements." The burgess had certain liabilities and duties. With his fellow-burgesses he was expected to elect the town's officers, perform public services himself, keep watch and ward, bear arms in defence of the town, and serve on juries. He also contributed to burghal taxation. Often he was a gildsman as well, that is, a member of the gild merchant, when he must be able to pay scot and lot (q.v.); but the two qualifications were not synonymous, and it has been suggested that the burgess had his origin as a landowner and agriculturist, while the gildsman, a later arrival, had only to be a trader and fulfil certain non-tenurial conditions, though he need not live in the borough, and had, as gildsman, no part in the civil or military government of the borough. However this may be, in the fourteenth century the tenurial character of burgess-ship was disappearing. It became more mercantile in character. "Payments of scot and lot became the pre-eminent obligation of burgess-ship; and the right to trade or exercise a craft became its pre-eminent privilege. Thus the freemen—who in many cases were identical with the burgesses—were the successors of the brethren of the ancient Gild Merchant" (Gross). Burgesses were also the electors of the municipal magistrates in cases where the corporations had not become close, and were in most cases the holders of the parliamentary franchise. (Sometimes only the members of the governing council were called burgesses.) The privileges of the burgesses were in former times very considerable—e.g., participation in the income of the corporation, exclusive right of trading within the borough, and the like. These privileges have, however, been swept away by the Municipal Corporations Act of 1835, and the burgesses are now simply the constituency which elects the borough council. The term burgess, too, is often applied to the representatives of a borough in parliament. By a law of Edward II, the burgesses returned for any town were entitled to two shillings a day for expenses, and the practice of paying members of parliament was occasionally resorted to up to the reign of Charles II. By an act of Henry V it was decreed that a burgess of parliament must be resident in the borough which returned him; but this, however, was not enforced for long. [Boroughs; Elections.]

Pollock and Maitland, "History of English Law"; Gross, "Gild Merchant"; E. Lipson, "Economic History," vol. i; Hemmeon, "Burgage Tenure."

Burgh, Hubert de (*d.* 1243), first appears in history as one of Richard I's ministers. John (after his accession) made him his chamberlain. On the capture of Prince Arthur, in 1202, he was, according to Ralph of Coggeshall, entrusted with the charge of the imprisoned prince at Rouen, and continued a faithful and active servant of John during the remainder of that king's reign. In 1215 he was appointed justiciar, and in the next year bravely defended Dover Castle against the French, who were compelled to raise the siege, and were shortly afterwards defeated by de Burgh in a naval engagement in the Channel. On the death of William Marshall he became regent of the kingdom, the custody of the king's person being entrusted to Peter des Roches. Between these two there was constant rivalry, de Burgh representing the English, des Roches the foreign interest. In 1224 the reckless turbulence of Falkes de Breauté (q.v.) gave de Burgh an opportunity of getting rid of the foreigners. De Breauté was banished, and, on the king attaining his majority in 1227, de Burgh attained supreme power by the

exile of his great rival, des Roches. In this year also he was raised to the earldom of Kent; and, in 1228, he was appointed justiciar for life. From this date till 1232 England was entirely in his hands, and was, on the whole, well governed. In 1232 the intrigues of des Roches, who had been permitted to return, and the king's weariness of restraint, occasioned his fall. He was accused of connivance with Twenge in his attacks on the Italian clergy, and the emptiness of the treasury was attributed to the mismanagement of the minister. He was driven from office, and for the next two years suffered the cruellest persecution at the hands of the monarch for whom he had done so much. The disgrace of des Roches in 1234 restored him to favour, but he did not resume his office, and the remainder of his life was spent in retirement, broken only by occasional appearances in the political arena, as in 1238, when he supported the king against the powerful baronial confederacy headed by Richard of Cornwall. Hubert's policy was a thoroughly national one. He resisted the encroachments of the pope and the rapacity of the foreigners, as well as the arbitrariness of the king and the turbulence of the barons. His aim was, however, limited to a restoration of the administrative system and policy of Henry II. It is said that an Essex blacksmith, when ordered to put chains on Hubert, replied, "Do what you will with me: rather would I die than put fetters on him. Is not he that faithful and magnanimous Hubert, who hath so often snatched England from the ravages of foreigners and restored England to England?"

Roger of Wendover; Matthew Paris, "Chronica Majora"; K. Norgate, "Minority of Henry III," 1912. [F. S. P.]

Burgh, Walter Hussey (1742–83), was a celebrated Irish barrister and politician. He made a most successful practice at the bar, and was appointed prime serjeant in 1777. As a member of the Irish parliament belonging to the national party of Flood and Grattan, he approved of the volunteers, and for a brilliant speech on a free trade motion of Grattan's, in which he described the condition of Ireland as one of "smothered war," he thought it necessary to resign office (1779). Towards the end of his life he cooled towards the volunteer movement, fearing that it would embroil Great Britain and Ireland, but supported the cause of Irish independence at the risk of all chances of preferment. Just before his death he was appointed chief baron of the exchequer. Hussey Burgh is described as the best everyday speaker of the Irish parliament, though his manner was that of a lawyer. He was a vain and ostentatious man, and died heavily in debt, but his liabilities were paid by a parliamentary grant proposed by Grattan on account of his integrity and patriotism.

Grattan, "Life and Times of Grattan," 1839–46.

Burghead (anc. Torfness), The Battle of (1040), was fought between Thorfinn, Earl of Orkney and Caithness, and King Duncan (q.v.), who was attempting to seize the territories of the Earls of Orkney on the mainland. It resulted in a victory for Thorfinn.

Burghersh, Henry de (1292–1340), was a nephew of Lord Badlesmere, through whose influence he was made Bishop of Lincoln in 1320. He was suspected of complicity with his uncle and the rebel lords in 1322, and his temporalities were seized by the king, but, apparently, were restored two years later. He sided with the queen and Mortimer against Edward II, and for his support he was made treasurer, and, in 1328, chancellor, which office he held till the fall of Mortimer. He was frequently employed by Edward III, and died at Ghent, whither he had gone on diplomatic business.

Burghley, William Cecil, Lord (1520–98). [Cecil.]

Burgoyne, John, Lieut.-Gen. (1722–92), a reputed natural son of Lord Bingley, in 1762 acted as brigadier-general under Lord Buckeburg in Portugal, where he greatly distinguished himself by a most daring and successful raid upon a strong body of troops which was guarding the magazines at Valentia d'Alcantara. In 1774 he was appointed to a command in America. The next year he was summoned home to advise the king on colonial questions, but returned to his command in 1777, when he at once issued an invitation to the natives to join the British flag. He then organized an expedition in order to join Clinton, who was advancing from the south. Before they could meet, however, Burgoyne had encountered such difficulties that he was compelled to surrender to Gates on October 17 at Saratoga. He was allowed to come home on parole, and no sooner had he arrived than the opposition made overtures to him to lay the blame of the disaster on the government. He thus became odious to the ministry, whom he charged with mismanagement in not supplying him with proper resources; and the king meanwhile refused to see him, or to allow him a court-martial, which he demanded. This the ministry also strenuously opposed, knowing that the corruption of the war department would come out if any inquiry were held. In 1779 Burgoyne refused to go back to America, on the ground that his honour did not compel him to do so; and the ministry seized the opportunity to dismiss him from his command. On the formation of Rockingham's ministry in 1782 he was reinstated, and appointed commander-in-chief in Ireland. Burgoyne's previous services lead us to infer that the disaster of Saratoga was not entirely due to himself; and this idea is confirmed by the steady refusal of the government to allow any inquiry into it. In the absence of that inquiry, it is difficult to form a just estimate of Burgoyne's merits.

E. B. de Fonblanque, "Life of Burgoyne," 1875.

Burgoyne, Sir John Fox (1782–1871), the natural son of General Burgoyne, was educated at Eton and Woolwich, and, in 1798, received a commission in the Royal Engineers. In 1800 he sailed for the Mediterranean with Sir Ralph Abercromby, and saw active service throughout the French wars in Sicily, Egypt, Sweden, Portugal, and Spain. He was with Sir John Moore at Corunna; and in most of the great battles and sieges of the Peninsular War he was first or second in command of the Engineers. In 1813 he was sent to New Orleans as commanding Engineer under Sir Edward Pakenham, and, in consequence, was not present at Waterloo, though he returned in time to form one of the army of occupation at Paris in the middle of July 1815. During the long peace he held some important civil appointments. When the Crimean War was on the verge of breaking out he was sent to Constantinople to report on the measures necessary for the defence of the Ottoman empire (1853), and on his return was appointed lieutenant-general on the staff of the army of the East. It was Burgoyne who was most strenuous in dissuading Lord Raglan from attacking Sebastopol on the north. He supported with equal warmth the flank march and attack on the south side. From the first he pointed out the Malakoff as the key of the entire position; and conducted the siege operations before Sebastopol up to the middle or end of March 1855, when he was recalled to England, leaving Sir Harry Jones to complete the work. Soon afterwards he was created a baronet, and subsequently received a field-marshal's baton, and the appointment of constable of the Tower.

Burgundy, Relations with. Of the ten Burgundies that history knows, England had important dealings only with the French fief, the duchy of Burgundy, under its last line of Valois dukes. The imperial free county of Burgundy (Franche Comté) also belonged to them. They began with Philip the Bold (le Hardi), whose valour at Poitiers was rewarded by his father John with the grant of the vacant duchy on his taking the hand of its heiress (1363). The acquisition of Flanders, so closely bound to England by economical and political ties, hostility to Louis of Orleans, whose championship of Richard II and absolutism involved his hostility to the Lancastrian monarchs, first brought the house into intimate relations with England. The Burgundians and Armagnacs fought for supremacy under the mad Charles VI, and their feuds gave ample opportunity to English intervention. Both united to withstand Henry V, and met a common defeat at Agincourt (1415). But the murder of John the Fearless (1407–19) on the bridge of Montereau, at the instance of the dauphin and the Armagnacs, led to Burgundy throwing its whole weight on the English side. Paris, the centre of Burgundian influence, welcomed the entry of Henry V and the new duke, Philip the Good (1419–67). Up to 1435 this close alliance enabled the English to retain their hold of North France. But the nationalist revival stirred even Philip, the death of the Duke of Bedford broke his close family tie to the English house, and the mad attempt of Humphrey of Gloucester on Holland and Hainault completed the alienation which led to the Peace of Arras (1435) between Burgundy and France, and even an attack on Calais from our old ally. In the Wars of the Roses, Philip and his son Charles generally sympathized with the Lancastrians. Charles the Bold (1467–77) regarded his descent from John of Gaunt through his Spanish mother as making him a member of the Lancastrian house; and he showed the greatest sympathy with the exiles whom Edward IV's accession had driven to the Netherlands. But he could not afford to quarrel with Edward, and as Louis XI definitely supported Warwick, and reconciled him with Margaret of Anjou, Charles very unwillingly joined the Yorkist cause, and married Edward's sister Margaret. When in 1469 Edward was driven from England by Margaret and Warwick, he found refuge in the Netherlands, but a personal interview only produced personal hostility between him and Charles. Despite Charles's inadequate support, Edward won back his crown; and fear of France caused the renewal of the political alliance. In 1474 a common expedition against France was determined upon, but Charles lingered at Neuss, and came at last without an army; so Edward, in the Treaty of Pecquigny (q.v.), 1475, abandoned Burgundy for France. The marriage of Mary, Charles's daughter, with Maximilian I brought Flanders and England into new relations that passed on to the Austro-Spanish Alliance. But the conquest of Burgundy by Louis on Charles's death (1477) put an end to the independent existence of the house of Burgundy. [T. F. T.]

Burke, Edmund (1729–97), born in Dublin, was educated at Trinity College, and came to London to study at the Middle Temple in 1750. The study of law was not congenial to him; and he soon deserted it for literature. His first attempts in this field were made in 1756, and consisted in "A Vindication of Natural Society" which was intended as a satire on Bolingbroke's theory of the origin of society, and "A Philosophical Inquiry into the Origin of our Ideas on the Sublime and Beautiful," which was warmly praised by such judges as Lessing and Kant. In 1759 the first volume of the "Annual Register" was published, containing a survey by Burke of the chief events of the year. In 1761 he accompanied "Single-speech" Hamilton, who was private secretary to Lord Halifax, to Ireland. The connexion lasted four years, at the end of which time Burke threw up a pension which Hamilton had procured for him, and returned to England. In the same

year Rockingham came into office and appointed Burke his secretary. In December 1765, through the influence of Lord Verney, Burke was returned to parliament for Wendover, and lost no time in making himself known to the House by a speech on the American colonies, which won for him a compliment from Pitt. In 1769 he wrote his remarkable pamphlet, "Observations on . . . the Present State of the Nation." Burke was always on the side of constitutional order and liberty on such questions as the right of a constituency to choose its own representative, the freedom of the press, the legality of general warrants issued by parliament, and the relations of a colony to the mother country. In 1770 he published "Thoughts on the Present Discontents," which, though unsuccessful as a pamphlet, placed its author in the front rank of political philosophers. In 1772 he was offered the direction of a commission which was to examine the details of every department in India; but loyalty to his party made him decline the offer. In April 1774 he made one of the most celebrated of all his great speeches—that on American taxation. In November 1774 he was elected for Bristol, and represented that city for six years. In March 1775 he moved his resolutions in favour of conciliation with America; he urged the government to recognize the old constitutional maxim that taxation without representation is illegal, to return to the old custom of accepting what grants the general assemblies of the colonies should freely contribute, and above all things not to enter upon civil war. Two years later Burke addressed a letter to the sheriffs of Bristol, in which, in the clearest and most independent way, he explained to his constituents the principles which had guided him in his policy towards the colonies. In February 1780 he brought in his resolutions for the amendment of the administration. His first project was directed against the corruption of parliament and the sources of that corruption, and was contained in a plan for the better security of the independence of parliament, and the economical reformation of the civil and other establishments. In the same year Burke retired from the representation of Bristol, finding that his independence was distasteful to the electors. Lord Rockingham's influence, however, obtained for him the seat of Malton in Yorkshire; and on that nobleman succeeding Lord North in 1782, he accepted the paymastership of the forces. On the death of Lord Rockingham in July the ministry became divided against itself; Lord Shelburne succeeded to the premiership; and Burke, Fox, and Sheridan resigned. The combination against him proved too strong for Shelburne, and in April 1783 he made way for a coalition ministry under the nominal lead of the Duke of Portland. Burke returned to the pay office, and immediately committed a grave indiscretion in restoring two clerks who had been suspended for malversation. The most important act of this administration was the introduction of Fox's India Bill, which seems to have been devised and drawn by Burke. Burke and Fox advocated the measure with all their energy and power; but the king saw his opportunity of getting rid of a ministry which he disliked, and successfully used his influence to have the bill thrown out by the peers. This success he followed up by dismissing the ministry and sending for Pitt, who, in January 1784, became prime minister. The India Bill which Pitt introduced was a compromise, of much narrower scope than Fox's bill, and seems to have escaped any violent attack from Burke. He, however, vigorously attacked Pitt's Irish policy, as well as the commercial treaty with France. A more glorious field for the exercise of his powers was now opened for Burke in the prosecution of Warren Hastings (q.v.). In April 1786 Burke, in answer to a challenge from Hastings's friends, laid before parliament his charges. The first charge was thrown out; the second and third were supported by Pitt and carried by so large a majority that in May 1787 Burke brought forward a resolution to impeach Hastings. The management of the prosecution was entrusted by the Commons to Burke, Fox, Sheridan, Windham, and Grey. The trial began in February 1788, and was opened by Burke in a speech peculiarly impassioned and persuasive. Seven years went by before the Lords brought in their verdict of acquittal. In the same year which saw the impeachment of Warren Hastings, politics were thrown into confusion by the illness of the king. Pitt's Regency Bill was vehemently attacked by the opposition, and by no member of it more bitterly than by Burke. The king's unexpected recovery, however, rendered all the preparations of the opposition unnecessary, and gave Pitt a further lease of office. In the following year the outbreak of the French Revolution was the beginning of the last act in Burke's career. For the remainder of his life his thoughts continued to be centred on France. His passionate love of order and reverence for the past prevented him from ever sharing in the generous enthusiasm which the earlier efforts of the French people awakened in Fox, Wordsworth, and Coleridge. He distrusted the Parisians, and foresaw too surely that the popular outbreak would end in something very different from liberty. It was not, however, till February 1790 that Burke, in the House of Commons, openly avowed his horror of the principles that were being worked out in Paris. His avowal was couched in such terms that it occasioned a breach of his long-standing friendship with Fox. In the next month the breach had so far widened that Burke deserted Fox on a motion for the repeal of the Test and Corporation Acts which he himself had suggested. At length, in November, appeared the "Reflections on the French Revolution." Its success was astonish-

ing, and it did much to alienate the majority of Englishmen from all sympathy with the Revolution. In the course of the next year Burke finally renounced his connexion with Fox. In August he published his "Appeal from the New to the Old Whigs." He continued in parliament to storm against the murderous atheists in France, and their advocates on this side of the Channel. In 1794 he lost his brother and his only son, and he never recovered from the blow. In the same year he retired from parliament, but he still watched France with unmitigated apprehension. He found time, nevertheless, to give to the world his sound views on the corn trade in his "Thoughts and Details on Scarcity." In 1796 he wrote his "Letter to a Noble Lord"—a scathing answer to some objections raised by the Duke of Bedford to the pension which Pitt had generously bestowed. In the same year appeared the first two "Letters on a Regicide Peace," brilliant specimens of Burke's most gorgeous rhetoric, in which he protested against any peace with the national government of France. His work, however, was ended, and he died at Beaconsfield on July 9, 1797. It is impossible within our limits to give any adequate estimate of Burke's character and genius. We may perhaps be permitted to quote the words of a competent critic (Viscount Morley): "There have been more important statesmen, for he was never tried by a position of supreme responsibility. There have been many more effective orators, for lack of imaginative suppleness prevented him from penetrating to the inner mind of his hearers. . . . There have been many subtler, more original, and more systematic thinkers about the conditions of the social union. But no one that ever lived used the general ideas of the thinker more successfully to judge the particular problems of the statesman. No one has ever come so close to the details of practical politics, and at the same time remembered that these can only be understood and only dealt with by the aid of the broad conceptions of political philosophy."

Burke's "Works," ed. E. J. Payne, 1904; biographies by T. MacKnight (3 vols., 1858–60), Lord Morley, 1867; T. D. Pillon, 1905. [W. R. S.]

Burke, The Family of, was founded in Ireland by William de Burgo, "the Conqueror," brother of the great justiciar, Hubert de Burgh. It seems probable that he crossed to Ireland with John in 1185 and received a grant of land in Munster, which was afterwards augmented by the speculative grant of the whole or part of Connaught. This grant was confirmed in 1215 to his son Richard, who, after a violent struggle with the O'Connors, succeeded in establishing himself there. His son Walter was in 1264 granted the vacant earldom of Ulster by Henry III; Richard de Burgh, known as the Red Earl, succeeded his father in 1280 as lord of Ulster and Connaught, and, taking advantage of the weakness of the Fitzgeralds, raised the de Burghs to the position of the most powerful family in Ireland. The Ulster earldom expired with his grandson William, murdered in 1333 by the English of Ulster. His daughter Elizabeth afterwards married Lionel, Duke of Clarence, son of Edward III, whereby the earldom of Ulster became eventually attached to the royal family in the person of Edward IV. The de Burghs of Connaught, scorning to hold their lands of a woman, and fearing that their possessions might pass by marriage into other hands, declared themselves independent of English law, and renounced English customs. They divided Connaught between them, William, ancestor of the Clanrickards, taking Galway with the title of MacWilliam Uachtar (the Upper), and Edmund, ancestor of the Mayos, taking Mayo with the title of MacWilliam Iochtar (the Lower). The 1st Earl of Clanrickard, created in 1543, was Ulick de Burgh or Burke, "the Beheader," so called from his victories over the Geraldines. In 1576 the Burkes, fearing that Connaught was to be colonized as Ulster had been, broke out into open rebellion. Thereupon their territories were utterly laid waste, and the race was nearly extinguished. In 1635 Wentworth's commission of inquiry into defective titles declared the lands of the Burkes to have lapsed to the Crown. Ulick, however, the 5th earl, and 2nd Earl of St. Albans, was created Marquis of Clanrickard in the peerage of Ireland for his services in subduing the rebellion of 1641, and he is the direct ancestor of the present marquis.

Burke (de Burgh), Ulick, 5th Earl and Marquis of Clanrickard (1604–57), was so created in 1645. Though a Roman Catholic, he continued faithful to the king all through the rebellion of 1641. His sympathies were largely with the insurgents, but he refused the supreme command they offered him. At court, in 1647, he was able to combine his loyalty with his attachment to the ancient faith, and began to take a prominent part in affairs. When, in 1650, Ormonde left the country, he was made lord deputy, and in 1650 induced the Irish to reject the terms offered them by parliament. He continued to hold out for some time longer, but was finally compelled to surrender to Coote on the usual terms of personal freedom and the restoration of part of his estates. He was succeeded by his cousin as Earl of Clanrickard, the marquisate dying with him as he had no issue. At the Restoration all his estates were at once restored to his heirs. His "Memoirs Concerning the Affairs of Ireland from 1650 to 1653" were published in 1722.

Burmese Wars. (1) First Burmese War (1824–6). The Burmese, who had witnessed a period of expansion and prosperity under Alompra, demanded of Lord Hastings that he should surrender Chittagong, Dacca, and some other places, which they claimed as

original dependencies of Arakan. His refusal, and the encroachments of the Burmese in seizing Cachar, a district of Bengal, and a little island on the coast of Chittagong, produced war. In 1824 the British attacked and occupied Rangoon at the mouth of the Irawadi. The Burmese were unable to effect a recapture, and Sir Archibald Campbell advanced up the Irawadi to Prome, where he remained till hostilities were renewed in November 1825. Finally, after the British advance to within forty-five miles of Ava (the capital), and after the conclusion and rupture of a truce by the Burmese, peace was made at Yandaboo in February 1826, by which the Burmese ceded Assam, Arakan, and the coast south of Martaban, and gave up their claims to the lower provinces.

(2) Second Burmese War (1852). After the Peace of Yandaboo, however, and especially after a change of dynasty, which occurred in 1837, the British continued to be treated with great insolence by the court of Burma. The successive residents were insulted, and the traders were subject to perpetual extortion. In 1851 Commodore Lambert, in the *Fox*, appeared, and to him the British residents in Rangoon complained. In default of redress, Commodore Lambert proceeded to blockade the port of Rangoon. The matter was referred to the government, and, after three applications had been made in vain for redress, Lord Dalhousie (February 12, 1852) determined on war. Two expeditions were sent from Bengal and Madras, and the Bengal column landed in the Rangoon River on April 2. On April 11 the siege of Rangoon began. On the 14th the place was carried by storm. On May 17 Bassein was captured, and on October 9 Prome. On December 20 a proclamation was issued, with the consent of the directors, annexing Pegu. A treaty of peace was drafted, but the commissioners could not come to terms. The war therefore ended without any treaty being concluded.

In 1867 a treaty was concluded by which British vessels were allowed to navigate Burmese waters. In the autumn of 1885 the oppressive conduct of King Thibaw towards British merchants led to a war. A force under General Prendergast entered Mandalay on November 28. Thibaw was deposed, and on January 1, 1886, the whole of Upper Burma was annexed to the British empire. The dacoit bands were gradually exterminated. In 1886 a convention was signed with China, by which the transfer of the country to Great Britain was recognized.

Snodgrass, "Burmese War," 1827; Yule, "Narrative of the Mission to Ava," 1858; McMahon, "The Karens," 1876; Colquhoun, "Across Chryse," 1883; Sir J. Scott, "Burma," 1924; W. F. B. Laurie, "Our Burmese Wars," 1880.

Burned Candlemas was a name bestowed by the Scots in the spring of 1355–6, at which time Edward III completely ravaged East Lothian.

Burnell, Robert (*d.* 1292), was one of Edward I's great ministers. He first appears as clerk to Prince Edward, who was greatly attached to him, and attempted on the death of Boniface of Savoy to secure for him the see of Canterbury. He acted as one of the regents during Edward's absence on crusade, and on his return was made chancellor (1274). This office he held for the remaining eighteen years of his life. In 1275 Burnell was appointed Bishop of Bath and Wells, but in spite of Edward's constant efforts he obtained no higher ecclesiastical preferment. He was a great lawyer, and assisted the king in his legal and constitutional reforms. His influence can be traced in most of Edward's legislation, and it was at his manor-house at Acton Burnell, in Shropshire, that the important statute *De Mercatoribus* was passed. Able administrator and faithful servant though he was, Burnell's character was marred by licentiousness and greed.

Burnes, Sir Alexander (1805–41), when a young officer in the Bombay army, was selected by Sir John Malcolm, in 1830, to take charge of a mission to Ranjit Singh, which was to make an attempt to establish friendly relations with the chiefs on the banks of the Indus. He was treated indifferently in Sind, but well received by Ranjit, and proceeded to Simla and submitted a report. He was directed to return to Bombay, through Afghanistan, Balkh, and Bokhara, and to explore and report. In 1837 Captain Burnes entered Kabul, where he unsuccessfully attempted to conclude an alliance with Dost Mohammed. In 1839 he accompanied the Afghan expedition, and succeeded in concluding an alliance with Mehrab Khan, ruler of Baluchistan. In 1840 he was created a baronet, and was left in Kabul to succeed Sir W. Macnaghten as envoy. In 1841 he was murdered in the Kabul massacre. [Afghan Wars.]

Sir J. Kaye, "Indian Officers," edn. of 1904.

Burnet, Gilbert (1643–1715), Bishop of Salisbury, was born at Edinburgh. He studied at Aberdeen, and visited England, France, and Holland. In 1665 he was ordained and presented to the living of Saltoun. In 1668 he was appointed professor of divinity at Glasgow, and married a relation of the Duke of Hamilton (1671). He incurred the resentment of Lauderdale, by whom he was accused of instigating the opposition to the government, and thought it advisable to leave Scotland and to settle in London. In 1675 he was appointed preacher at the Rolls Chapel. He became very popular as a preacher, and was well known at court. During the Popish Plot he made great efforts to save the victims of that delusion. In 1681 he published the first volume of his "History of the Reformation," and received the thanks of the zealously Protestant Commons for it. In 1683 he accompanied Russell to the scaffold, and was examined by the Commons on the

charge of having written his dying speech. On the accession of James, he withdrew to the continent, and after travelling for a year arrived at The Hague, where he soon gained the confidence of William of Orange, and succeeded in bringing about a reconciliation between the prince and his wife. He wrote numerous tracts directed against James, whose bitter enmity he excited. He accompanied William to England as his chaplain, and after the Revolution was rewarded with the bishopric of Salisbury. He was a zealous advocate of the claims of Mary to a share of the throne. In religious politics he took the unpopular latitudinarian side. While most vigorously opposed to granting any rights to Catholics, he was in favour of toleration for Dissenters. Accordingly, he attempted, with his friend Tillotson, to draw up a scheme of reconciliation with the Presbyterians, and he supported Nottingham's Comprehension Bill (q.v.). In politics he was a thoroughgoing Whig. He proposed to insert the name of the Princess Sophia as secured in the Bill of Rights, but the clause was rejected by the Commons. He was therefore regarded by the adherents of the house of Brunswick as the chief supporter of their cause. He also claims to have inserted in the Bill of Rights the clause which forbids the sovereign to marry a papist. In 1693 it was resolved by the Commons that a pastoral letter of his, in which he had spoken of England as being conquered by William, should be burnt by the hangman. On the death of Mary he wrote a warm eulogy on her character. In 1698 he was appointed tutor to the young Duke of Gloucester, the heir to the throne, whose education he carefully superintended. In 1701 his "Exposition of the Thirty-nine Articles" was censured in convocation; and the same year an ineffectual attempt was made in the House of Commons to get him removed from his post about the young prince. He violently attacked the Occasional Conformity Bill (q.v.) in 1704. He was a staunch supporter of the union with Scotland, and was chairman of the committee for considering the articles in the Lords. His care for the welfare of the Church was shown by his scheme for the augmentation of small livings, which ultimately ripened into Queen Anne's Bounty (q.v.). In the Sacheverell episode he enunciated the doctrines of the Whigs in a speech against passive obedience. He upbraided Queen Anne with her supposed design of settling the crown on the Pretender, and towards the close of his life vehemently opposed the Tory Peace of Utrecht.

Burnet, "History of the Reformation," 1681, and "History of His Own Time," 1724–34; also his biographies of Rochester, 1680, Matthew Hale, 1682, and the Dukes of Hamilton, 1677; Sir A. W. Ward, "Burnet," in Cambridge History of English Literature, vol. ix, 1912; C. H. Firth, "Burnet," 1907; T. S. Clark and H. C. Foxcroft, "Burnet," 1907; Burnet's "Own Time," ed. O. Airy, and continued by H. C. Foxcroft, 3 vols., 1897–1902. [S. L.]

Burn's Hill, The Battle of (1847), was fought in Kafirland between a British force which was endeavouring to seize Sandilli, the Kafir chief, and the Kafirs; the British were defeated.

Burrard, Sir Harry (1755–1813), entered the army early in life, and first saw active service in the American War, being present at Camden, and under Lord Cornwallis in South Carolina in 1781. In 1798 he distinguished himself in the unfortunate expedition to Ostend. At Alkmaar (1799) he was posted on the left in command of the brigade of Guards, and rendered good service in supporting Abercromby's attack. In 1807 he went as second in command of the expedition to Copenhagen; and on his return he was made a baronet. In the following year he was sent out with reinforcements to Portugal. He arrived just in time to find that Wellesley had defeated Junot at Vimeiro and was arranging everything for a hot pursuit. Burrard at once forbade any further advance, and recalled the troops to their positions. The results of this prohibition were disastrous, since they prevented Wellesley from totally destroying Junot's army, and rendered necessary the Convention of Cintra (q.v.). A court of inquiry was held, in which Sir Harry was exonerated from all blame; but popular indignation prevented him from ever being employed again. Napier, a not too gentle critic, says that "it is absurd to blame Sir H. Burrard for not adopting one of those prompt and daring conceptions that distinguish great generals only." Wellesley himself acknowledged that Sir Harry Burrard had acted on fair military grounds.

Sir C. Oman, "Peninsular War," 1902–20.

Burrowes, Peter (1753–1841), was an Irish politician. He began life as tutor to one of the Beresfords, and was offered a seat in the Irish parliament, but declined to become a mere placeman. In 1783 he was a delegate to the great Volunteer Convention. He entered the Irish parliament shortly before the Union, and was one of the many barristers who declined to be bought over by Lord Castlereagh. When Lord Cornwallis was sent to Ireland as lord-lieutenant, Burrowes proposed that an appeal should be made to the yeomanry to defeat the Union, but he was dissuaded from the step, much to his subsequent regret. His speeches were among the best that were made on the anti-Union side. In 1811 he appeared as counsel for the arrested delegates of the Catholic Convention, and won his case.

Grattan, "Life and Times of Grattan," 1839–46.

Burton, Henry (1578–1648), was clerk of the closet to Prince Charles, but after Charles's accession to the throne he was removed, and for accusing Laud of popery was forbidden the court. In 1637 he was accused before the Star Chamber of writing schismatical and libellous books against the hierarchy of the Church, and to the scandal of the government. For

this he was sentenced to stand in the pillory, lose his ears, pay a fine of £5,000, and be imprisoned for life. The first part of the sentence was carried out, and he remained in prison till 1640, when, on his release by the Long Parliament, the proceedings against him were annulled, and £5,000 compensation given him.

Bury St. Edmunds, in Suffolk, was probably a Roman settlement of some importance. Previous to the ninth century it was known as Beodricesworth. It derived its modern name from St. Edmund, King of the East Angles, who was taken prisoner by the Danes, c. 870, and martyred. Early in the next century his remains were translated from their original resting-place at Hoxne to Beodricesworth, where a monastery had been established about 633 by King Sigebert. The shrine was at first entrusted to the care of a college of clerks or secular priests, but in 1020 these were replaced by monks, and an ample charter of liberties and of endowment was granted to the house by Canute. Thereafter St. Edmund became one of the most celebrated Benedictine foundations in England, and at the Dissolution was found to be possessed of enormous wealth. In 1214 a great meeting of the barons took place at Bury, where they swore solemnly to compel King John to grant a charter. It was one of the centres of the Peasants' Revolt of 1381. Parliaments were on several occasions held here, the most famous being that of 1446, at which Duke Humphrey of Gloucester was arrested.

"Victoria County History: Suffolk"; "Memorials of St. Edmunds" (Rolls Series).

Busaco, The Battle of (September 27, 1810), secured Wellington's retreat to the lines which he had prepared on Torres Vedras. He had taken up a strong position on the Busaco range of hills, with a very steep front. On September 29, at dawn, Masséna ordered the British position to be assaulted in the centre, where the ascent was easiest. Picton was in command; and the French assault was so rapid and determined that after driving back the skirmishers they gained the crest of the hill, and threw the third division into confusion. At that moment General Leith, who was on Picton's right, moved up a brigade to his assistance; and the French were driven over the hillside. Meantime Ney, on the French right, had led his men over more difficult ground and attacked Craufurd, who commanded on the extreme left of the allied line. When the French were on the point of carrying the position, Craufurd launched against them a reserve of 1,800 men, and the second assault of the French failed. Masséna, in the evening, hastily began to execute a flanking march round the hills on the left of the allied forces. Wellington perceived the movement only just in time, and ordered a retreat to meet it. The allied troops were in great danger, but the confusion of the French army saved the allies from defeat. As it was, they were worsted in several skirmishes with French scouting parties, and the negligence of Craufurd at the last moment imperilled the safety of the allied army; but at length Wellington had all his forces ensconced behind the lines of Torres Vedras.

Sir C. Oman, "Peninsular War," 1902–20.

Butler, The Chief, was one of the great household officers of the Norman period. The office was bestowed by Henry I on William d'Aubigny (de Albini) and became hereditary in his family. William's son became Earl of Arundel, and, in course of time, the butlership became associated with the earldom and followed its descent. The duties were last executed at the coronation of George IV (1821) by the Duke of Norfolk in his capacity of Earl of Arundel. No coronation banquet has, however, been held since that date, and the office of chief butler has therefore ceased to exist.

In Ireland the family of Butler derived their name from the office, which seems to have been bestowed on them as early as the twelfth century. The duties were last discharged by the Marquess of Ormonde in 1821, but, as in the case of the English butlership, the office has since been extinguished.

"Complete English Peerage" (new edition), ii, Appendix D; J. H. Round, "The King's Sergeants and their Coronation Services," 1911.

Butler, The Family of, was founded in Ireland by Theobald Gualtier or Walter (a brother of Hubert Walter, Archbishop of Canterbury and chancellor of England), who received grants of land in Leinster from Henry II, together with the hereditary office of Pincerna, or Butler, to the kings of England. The Butler family did not play a very prominent part in Irish history until the beginning of the fourteenth century, when Edmond le Boteler was justiciar (1315–16), and was created Earl of Carrick for his exertions against Edward Bruce and the Scots. The earldom of Carrick did not remain with his heirs, but his son James, who married Eleanor, daughter of Humphrey de Bohun, Earl of Essex and first cousin of Edward II, was in 1328 created Earl of Ormonde and raised the family to a position of equality with the Burkes and the Fitzgeralds. The Butlers were powerful chiefly in the Pale, and though they adopted some Irish customs, yet, on the whole, they were faithful to their English origin. They almost alone, in opposition to the Fitzgeralds, supported the house of Lancaster and the English connexion. Kilkenny and part of Tipperary formed their palatinate, and they stood next in power to the Fitzgeralds. The title of Ossory was created in 1527, when Piers Butler consented to resign the title of Ormonde to Thomas Boleyn, Viscount Rochford, but the latter honour was restored to him in 1538. The Butlers (not, however, including the Earl of Ormonde, who was then treasurer of Ireland and in good odour with the queen) joined the Desmonds in the Munster

insurrection of 1569. They played an important part in English history during the seventeenth century; they were now Protestants, and, though Irish in sympathy, thoroughly Royalist in their views, and anxious to keep up the English connexion. James Butler (q.v.), the 12th earl, who was created marquis in 1642 and duke in 1661, commanded the Royalist troops for the suppression of the Irish rebellion, and was a strong adherent of the king during the Civil War. After the Restoration he was made viceroy of Ireland. His son Ossory died in the service of William of Orange (1680). James, the 2nd duke (q.v.), was suspected of Jacobite intrigue during the last years of the reign of Queen Anne, and although he signed the proclamation of the accession of George I his immense estates were forfeited (1715). His brother and heir, Charles, was created Baron Butler of Weston, Hunts, in the British peerage, but died without direct heirs. In 1791 John Butler, a descendant of the 1st duke, secured from the Irish parliament an acknowledgment of his right to the Irish peerage of Ormonde. His successor was in 1816 raised to an Irish marquisate; and was also made a baron of the United Kingdom.

Butler, James, 4th Earl of Ormonde (*d.* 1452), was lord-deputy of Ireland in Henry IV's reign. In Henry V's reign he was appointed lord-lieutenant. In 1423 he was superseded; but in 1440 he again became lord-lieutenant, and retained the office till 1446. His governorship was marked by fierce conflicts with the Talbots, between whom and the Butlers there had long been a violent feud; and by a struggle to exclude the native Irish from the Pale (q.v.).

Butler, James, 5th Earl of Ormonde and Earl of Wiltshire (*d.* 1461), was the eldest son of James, 4th Earl of Ormonde. He was knighted when very young by Henry VI, and in 1449 was created Earl of Wiltshire. In 1451 he became lord deputy of Ireland, and in 1453 lord-lieutenant, which position he maintained until superseded by the Duke of York. He received a grant of tunnage and poundage on condition that he guarded the seas for three years in conjunction with other great lords. He was throughout his life a staunch Lancastrian. On the sea he fought against Richard Neville, Earl of Warwick (the "Kingmaker"). At the first battle of St. Albans he distinguished himself, and at Wakefield he commanded one of the wings of the army that defeated and slew the Duke of York. In the same year, however (1461), he was defeated at Towton after taking part in the battle of Mortimer's Cross, and fell a prisoner into the hands of the Yorkists. It is said that he was conveyed to Newcastle and beheaded there on May 1, 1461. Together with his brothers he was attainted in the first parliament of Edward IV; his brother John, however, was afterwards restored in blood and became 6th Earl of Ormonde. As James Butler died without issue the earldom of Wiltshire lapsed in 1461.

Carte, "Life of the Duke of Ormonde," Oxford edn., 1851: Hubert Hall, "The Ormonde Attainders," in *The Genealogist*, new series, vol. v.

Butler, James, 12th Earl and 1st Duke of Ormonde (1610–88), was the most powerful nobleman in Ireland in his day. In 1641, when the rebellion broke out, he was made lieutenant-general of the king's forces. In consequence of his victory over Lord Mountgarret at Kilrush in March 1642, he became a marquis. He soon afterwards defeated General Preston, but the position of the king in England being critical, he obeyed the royal orders, and concluded with the rebels the peace called the Cessation (q.v.). Soon afterwards he was made lord-lieutenant, but being unable to hold his own, he honourably chose to give up Dublin to the Puritans rather than to the natives, and surrendered it to Colonel Jones, and in 1647 concluded a regular treaty with the Parliamentary commissioners. On hearing, however, of Charles I's execution, he took out a new commission as lord-lieutenant from Charles II, and soon found himself at the head of all the Irish forces, excepting only O'Neill's troops. However, his attempt to besiege Dublin was frustrated by the battle of Rathmines (August 2, 1649), and soon afterwards he left the kingdom. After the battle of Worcester, he remained with Charles II in exile. On the Restoration he became Baron Butler and Earl of Brecknock in the English peerage, and in 1661 Duke of Ormonde in Ireland. He was again lord-lieutenant from 1661 to 1668, and again from 1677 to 1682. His losses in the king's service were estimated at £900,000. His reputation for loyalty, ability, and integrity stood very high, and he held aloof from the immorality of Charles's court. His latter years were clouded by his fears for James II, and they probably hastened his end. His eldest son, Lord Ossory, had fallen by the hand of an assassin in 1680. This son was nearly as popular as his father, and had greatly distinguished himself in the Netherlands.

T. Carte, "Life of Ormonde," 1736 and 1861; D. Coffey, "O'Neill and Ormonde," 1914.

Butler, James, 2nd Duke of Ormonde (1665–1745), was grandson of James, 1st Duke of Ormonde. On the death of his grandfather he was elected chancellor of the University of Oxford. On the arrival of William in England, he deserted James II in company with Prince George of Denmark, and was present at the coronation of William and Mary. He was present at the battle of the Boyne, at Steinkirk, and at Landen, where he was taken prisoner (1693). In 1696 he voted for the attainder of Fenwick. In 1700 large grants of land were made him by the Commons. On the outbreak of the War of the Spanish Succession, he was sent with an expedition to Cadiz, together with Sir George Rooke. In 1703 he became lord-lieutenant of Ireland, on the

resignation of Rochester, and was reappointed in 1710. His policy of favouring the Catholics and opposing the Irish parliament made him very popular in Ireland. On the dismissal of Marlborough he was appointed to command the troops in Flanders. He was ordered to undertake no offensive operations against the French, in view of the proposed treaty; but he could not refuse to join Eugene in the siege of Quesnoy. On the declaration of an armistice (June 1712), the British troops were ordered to separate from Eugene. After the accession of George I it was resolved to impeach him for acting in concert with Marshal Villars. He fled to France. Bolingbroke ascribed the ruin of the Pretender's cause in 1715 to the flight of Ormonde and the death of Louis XIV. The duke soon started for the coast of Devonshire, hoping to find that county in a state of rebellion. But his agent had betrayed his plans; and there was every appearance of the most profound peace. On his return he quarrelled with Bolingbroke, and induced James Edward to dismiss him. In 1719 Alberoni, the Spanish minister, fitted out a fleet, with 5,000 soldiers under the command of Ormonde, who was to join it at Corunna as "captain-general of the King of Spain." But the ships were scattered by storm. He spent the remainder of his life chiefly in retirement at Avignon. In 1740, on the outbreak of war, Ormonde went once more to Madrid, but could gain no promises of help. In 1744 Charles Edward neglected to summon him to join his intended invasion of England, until all chance of success was over for the year.

Biography by M. de Vissac, 1914.

Butler, Samuel (1612–80), is the author of one of the greatest political satires in the English language. The early years of his life are obscure, but he is said to have been at one time employed by Selden as an amanuensis, and to have been recommended by him to the Countess of Kent. He subsequently entered the service of Sir Samuel Luke, a rigid Presbyterian, where he had the opportunity of observing the various traits of bigotry and absurdity which he subsequently wove into "Hudibras." This work was published in three parts; the first in 1663, the second in 1664, and the third in 1678. The work is a satire on the Independents and Presbyterians, and is of considerable historical interest as giving a striking picture of many of their peculiarities. Butler was the author of a satire on the Royal Society, "The Elephant in the Moon"; a collection of "Characters," and some other works. He seems to have gained little or no solid reward from the court, and is said to have died in the extremest poverty in London. In 1721 a cenotaph was erected to his memory in Westminster Abbey which provoked from Samuel Wesley a well-known epigram.

An edition of "Hudibras," with copious and useful explanations of allusions, etc., is that of Grey, London, 1744.

Butler, Thomas, 7th Earl of Ormonde (*d.* 1515), succeeded his brother, the 6th earl. The act of attainder was finally reversed by the first parliament of Henry VII, and he was summoned to the English parliament as Baron Ormonde of Rochford, in 1495. In 1515 he died, without male issue. Through his daughter, his English barony passed to the Boleyns, who were created Earls of Ormonde as well. But on the death of Sir Thomas Boleyn without male issue, in 1539, the earldom was restored by Henry VIII to the Butlers.

Butler, Thomas, 10th Earl of Ormonde (1532–1614), became in 1559 lord high treasurer of Ireland, which office he held till his death. He was a staunch Protestant, having been educated at the English court; and his religious views embittered his feud with the Earl of Desmond. In 1573 he was appointed governor of Munster, and the duty was imposed on him of removing Desmond. In January 1580 he advanced into the country of the Fitzgeralds, destroying all before him. It is said that in one year his forces killed 836 malefactors, and 4,000 other people. So relentless was his policy that Munster was a desert when he left it. During the remainder of his life Ormonde continued a firm supporter of the English supremacy.

Butt, Isaac (1813–79), the son of an Irish Protestant clergyman, educated at Trinity College, Dublin, was made professor of political economy in 1836. In 1838 he was called to the Irish bar and began to take an active part in politics on the Conservative side. He was a strenuous opponent of O'Connell. In 1844 he was made a queen's counsel, and in 1848 defended Smith O'Brien. From 1852 to 1865 he sat in parliament as member for Youghal, but did not distinguish himself. In 1871 he was elected as Home Rule member for Limerick, and assumed the leadership of the new party; and in 1872 he founded the Home Rule League. But he was opposed by the more extreme and violent section of his party, and by the end of his life he had little authority left in the Home Rule ranks.

Buxton, Sir Thomas Fowell (1786–1845), established a well-organized system of relief for the poor of Spitalfields in 1816, and soon afterwards examined the state of the prisons. He wrote a pamphlet exposing the horrors of the prison system, which excited great attention. He became M.P. for Weymouth till 1837, when he lost his seat at the dissolution following the death of William IV. In parliament he proved himself an important ally of Mackintosh on the question of the amelioration of the Criminal Code. In 1823 he brought forward a resolution "that slavery, being repugnant to the Christian Religion and the British Constitution, ought to be abolished at the earliest period compatible with the safety of all concerned." It was not, how-

ever, till 1831 that the principle of emancipation was conceded, chiefly owing to Buxton's efforts, and in 1833 the government introduced a measure of emancipation. Buxton did not, however, relax his efforts, but laboured to effect the abolition of the system of apprenticeship which was still sanctioned by the law. In 1837 he quitted parliamentary life; and in 1839 he published "The African Slave Trade and its Remedy," in which he proposed the colonization of Africa. An expedition with this object was sent to the Niger, but it proved a complete failure. In 1840 Buxton was created a baronet.

C. Buxton, "Memoirs of Sir T. F. Buxton," 1925.

Bye Plot, The (1603), was set on foot by a Roman Catholic priest named William Watson, and was joined by ardent Catholics like Sir Griffin Markham and Anthony Copley, as well as by Puritans like Lord Grey of Wilton and George Brooke, who were discontented with the policy of James I. Their plan seems to have been to secure the person of the king, compel him to dismiss his ministers and grant toleration to Catholics and Puritans. Many were inveigled into joining on the pretence that the meeting was merely for the presentation of a petition in favour of general toleration. The scheme was badly arranged; no definite plan had been agreed upon; and it proved a complete failure owing to its betrayal by John Gerard, a Jesuit. It is certain that the Bye Plot had no connexion with the Main or Ralegh's Plot, with which, however, Cecil and the other ministers managed to mix it up in popular belief. Watson was executed, Markham reprieved on the scaffold, Grey imprisoned in the Tower, and Copley banished.

Byng, George, Viscount Torrington (1663–1733), volunteered for naval service at the age of fifteen. In 1681 he left the sea at the request of General Kirke, governor of Tangier, and became under him ensign, and then lieutenant. He was employed to carry assurances of friendship from the English malcontents to William of Orange, to whom he was privately introduced by Admiral Russell. In 1690 he was second in command to Sir George Rooke at the battle of Beachy Head (q.v.). During the next six years he served under Admiral Russell. He was present at the destruction of the Spanish treasure-ships at Vigo Bay. Next year he was made rear-admiral, and served under Sir Clowdisley Shovell. He commanded the squadron which captured the citadel of Gibraltar, and was knighted for his bravery at the battle of Malaga. In 1705 he was elected member for Plymouth. In 1706 he helped to relieve Barcelona, and commanded the vessels detached for the reduction of Carthagena and Alicante. In 1707 he served under Shovell at the abortive siege of Toulon. He frustrated the Pretender's expedition to Scotland. He was placed in command of an expedition fitted out for a descent on the French coast, but, owing to the fact that he was badly supplied with provisions and information, could effect little. In 1709 he was placed on the admiralty commission, but was removed shortly before the queen's death. In 1715 he was made a baronet for his vigilance in watching the French coast. In 1717, on the outbreak of hostilities with the northern powers, he shut the Swedish fleet up in the Baltic. In the following year he was made admiral and commander-in-chief. He was sent to counteract the designs of Alberoni against the Italians. In order to relieve Count Daun, who was besieged in Messina, he attacked and utterly destroyed the Spanish fleet off Cape Passaro, with the loss of only one ship (July 31). On his return he was sworn of the privy council, and made rear-admiral and treasurer of the navy. In 1721 he was raised to the peerage as Viscount Torrington, and in 1727 became first lord of the admiralty, a post which he held until his death.

"Memoirs" of Byng, ed. J. K. Laughton, 1889.

Byng, John, Admiral (1704–57), was the fourth son of Viscount Torrington, and served at sea under his father. He was present at the battle of Cape Passaro in 1718, and saw service in the Mediterranean and off Newfoundland. In 1756 he was sent out with a fleet of ten ships of war, poorly manned and in bad condition, with orders to relieve Minorca in case of attack. Only three days afterwards the French fleet attacked the castle of St. Philip in that island. Byng arrived off St. Philip on May 19, and tried in vain to communicate with the governor. On the following day the engagement took place. Rear-Admiral West on the right attacked the enemy with vigour, and drove them back; but Byng held aloof, and the action was indecisive. After a council of war, he sailed off to Gibraltar and left Minorca to its fate. Byng was brought home under arrest, and tried by court-martial. His judges acquitted him of treachery and cowardice, but it was decided that he had not done his utmost to relieve St. Philip, or to defeat the French fleet. He was recommended to mercy. Pitt in vain tried to induce the king to pardon him. Byng was shot at his own request on the quarter-deck of his ship in Portsmouth Harbour; he met his fate with great courage. Voltaire, who had tried to help him by sending him a laudatory letter of the Duke of Richelieu, says that he was slain "pour encourager les autres." It is probably true that Byng had not done as much as he might have done for the relief of Minorca. But there can be no question as to the harshness and injustice of applying the severe penalties prescribed by the twelfth article of the naval code in the case of an officer who was rightly acquitted of treachery and cowardice. Though Byng was perfectly honest and sufficiently brave, it may, however, be conceded that he was wanting in capacity. "He trembled

not at danger, but, like many other weak men in high places, he did tremble at responsibility." [MINORCA.]

H. W. Richmond (ed.), "Papers Relating to the Loss of Minorca," 1913 (Navy Records Society).

Byng, JULIAN HEDWORTH GEORGE, 1ST BARON (*b.* 1862), British general, commanded the South African Light Horse in the Boer War of 1899, and served in Egypt in 1912. In the Great War he commanded the cavalry corps in France (1915) and the Suvla area in the Dardanelles campaign, and on his recall to France captured Vimy Ridge on April 9, 1917, and became the leader of the Third Army. On November 20, 1917, he carried out the tank surprise on the Cambrai front. In 1919 he was raised to the peerage. From 1921 to 1926 he was governor-general of Canada.

Byron, GEORGE GORDON, 6TH BARON BYRON (1788–1824), was one of the founders of English Philhellenism during the War of Greek Independence (1821). He had travelled in Greece in 1809–11 with Hobhouse, incidentally swimming the Hellespont on May 3, 1810. On the outbreak of the Greek revolt he threw himself heart and soul into the cause of the insurgents, and sailed from Genoa to Greece in July 1823. He landed at Missolonghi in January 1824, enlisted a corps of Suliotes, financed the Greeks from his personal fortune and credit, and made an unsuccessful raid northwards with his troops. He died of marsh-fever on April 19, 1824.

Moore, "Life of Byron," 1830; Byron, "Letters and Journals," ed. Prothero, vols. i and vi.

Byron, JOHN, 1ST LORD (*d.* 1652), was one of Charles I's personal attendants, and was by him made lieutenant of the Tower in 1641. As he was strongly attached to the royal cause, the parliament was anxious to get rid of him, and, in 1642, the king consented to appoint Sir John Conyers in his place. On the outbreak of the war, Byron raised a troop for the king, and at the battle of Edgehill was in command of the reserve. He showed great bravery at Roundaway Down and Newbury, and, in 1643, was created a peer, and shortly afterwards governor of Chester, where he sustained a long siege, capitulating only when all his provisions were exhausted. He was subsequently appointed governor to the Duke of York. He took part in the second Civil War, and on the failure of the Royalists returned to his charge of the Duke of York, and died at Paris.

C

Cabal, THE (1667–73), was the name given to the ministry formed in the reign of Charles II, after the fall of Clarendon. The word "cabal" had been used previously to denote a secret committee or cabinet, and answers to the "junto" of a somewhat later date. [CABINET.] It happened, however, rather curiously that the initials of the statesmen who formed this administration spelt the word "Cabal." These ministers were Clifford, Arlington, Buckingham, Ashley-Cooper (Lord Shaftesbury), and Lauderdale. "They agreed," says Ranke, "in wishing to strengthen the royal prerogative by moderating the uniformity laws with the help of France, and during the excitement caused by a foreign war; but, otherwise, they were attached to widely different principles. Lauderdale was a Presbyterian; Ashley-Cooper, a philosopher; Buckingham, if he held any opinion at all, an Independent; Arlington, a moderate Catholic; Clifford, a zealous one." At first, in foreign policy, a new departure was taken by the formation of the Triple Alliance (q.v.), which compelled Louis to desist from his schemes of aggression in the Spanish Netherlands. But this line of policy was not long pursued. War with the Dutch and alliance with France followed, with the infamous Treaty of Dover (1670—q.v.). Money was obtained by seizing that which had been deposited for security in the exchequer, while parliament, which might have proved obstructive, was prorogued. The Declaration of Indulgence (q.v.), granting liberty of worship to all sects, was issued in 1672. But the war ended in failure, and the Declaration was received with great suspicion even by the Dissenters. The treasury was empty, and in 1673 parliament had to be summoned to grant supplies. Charles was compelled to withdraw the Declaration, and to assent to the Test Act (q.v.), which, by excluding all Catholics from office, obliged Clifford and Arlington to resign, and put an end to the Cabal ministry.

Biographies of Shaftesbury.

Cabinet, THE, although familiar by name to everyone as the most powerful body in the executive government of the state, is, properly speaking, unknown to the constitution. Theoretically, the cabinet is only an irregular committee of the privy council. By the theory of the constitution the privy council is the proper body to advise the sovereign; yet the members of the privy council do not attend unless they are specially summoned, and they have only formal business to transact. The cabinet council took its rise in the early seventeenth century, but was then only a small irregular body, consisting of such members of the privy council as the sovereign chose from time to time to consult. After the Restoration, Charles II complained that the unwieldy size of the privy council made it unfit for the secrecy and dispatch which are necessary in great affairs. He preferred to work through a select committee of the council, which deliberated on all matters of business before they were submitted to the larger council. The most notorious of these cabinet councils was the Cabal of 1667–73, which, however, had little in common with the cabinets of later history. It has been said that

the only bond of union between its members was that "not one of them was a sound Anglican churchman." This method of government was very unpopular—partly from the character of the ministers Charles selected and the nature of the policy they executed, and partly from the imperfect understanding at the time of the doctrine of ministerial responsibility. In 1679 an attempt was made by Sir William Temple to restore the privy council to its former position. Its numbers were to be reduced from fifty to thirty, of whom fifteen were to be the chief officers of state and the rest made up of ten lords and five commoners. The joint income of the council was not to be less than £300,000, which was thought to be nearly equal to the estimated income of the House of Commons. Charles promised that he would be governed by the advice of the council, but he continued to consult the cabinet as before, and his example was followed by his successor, James II. The Revolution of 1688 so far from checking the development of cabinet government rather accelerated it. Under William III the cabinet assumed more definite duties, and began to be directly associated with the party system. At first the king endeavoured to choose his ministers impartially from both of the great political parties, but the hostility of the Tories to an active foreign policy compelled him to lean increasingly towards the Whigs, and in 1693 he formed a ministry drawn exclusively from that party—the famous Whig junto. In the Act of Settlement of 1701 a last attempt was made to restore the old supremacy of the privy council, and to enforce the responsibility of ministers by means of the old weapon of impeachment, but it was foredoomed to failure. The cabinet system was too firmly rooted to be overthrown, and the financial dependence of the Crown upon parliament, which had been finally ensured by the Revolution Settlement, secured the responsibility of the executive to the legislature far more effectually than could the clumsy expedient of impeachment. The accession of George I marked a further stage in the progress of cabinet government. The king, not understanding English and but little interested in the domestic politics of his adopted country, gradually ceased to attend the meetings of the cabinet. Under his reign, and that of his successor George II, the fabric of constitutional government was consolidated, especially during the long and able rule of Sir Robert Walpole—England's first prime minister in fact if not in name. During the first half of the eighteenth century, however, the cabinet was a Whig machine, run and controlled by the great Whig ring which had been firmly established in power as a result of the Hanoverian succession. The Tories, in consequence of their lingering Jacobite sympathies, were excluded from all share in the government. George III, who succeeded in 1760, when the factors which had determined the policy of his two predecessors were no longer operative, determined to free himself from the domination of the Revolution Whigs and to recover the ground which the Crown had lost since 1688. He aspired to be his own prime minister and to substitute for the rule of a homogeneous cabinet, government by departments whose heads should be individually subservient to himself. In the first part of his project he was successful. With the help of the King's Friends (q.v.) and of the revivified Tory party, he drove the Whigs from power, and substituted a Tory regime which outlasted the Revolutionary and Napoleonic wars. But the second object he did not permanently attain. His twelve years of personal government (1770–82), with Lord North as his lieutenant, were attended by disaster at home and abroad, and eventually George was only able to save himself from submission to the hated Whigs by accepting as his prime minister the younger Pitt, in whom he found a master rather than a servant. With Pitt's accession to office in 1783 the cabinet and the premiership may be said to have assumed their modern form. Within the last two centuries cabinet government has been matured and strengthened in three main ways, viz., in regard to political unanimity, unity of responsibility, and concert in action. The principle has been accepted that a cabinet should be formed on some definite basis of political opinion, or, in the rare cases of a coalition, of agreement at least upon certain specified points. That the members of a cabinet should stand or fall together has been the custom of the constitution since 1782; while the principle of solidarity and concerted action, for which Walpole fought with so much determination, secured recognition in the days of William Pitt. In theory the choice of the cabinet belongs to the Crown, but in practice it is in the hands of the prime minister, and even he has no absolute choice in the matter. Between the compulsory list which he must take, and the impossible list which he cannot take, a prime minister's independent choice in the formation of a cabinet is not very large. It extends rather to the division of cabinet offices than to the choice of cabinet ministers. Parliament and the nation have pretty well settled in advance who shall have the first places. The numbers of the cabinet in the later nineteenth century generally varied from twelve to fifteen; including as a rule the following ministers: the first lord of the treasury, the lord chancellor, the chancellor of the exchequer, the president of the council, the lord privy seal, the home, the foreign, and the colonial secretaries, the first lord of the admiralty, the secretaries for India and for war, the president of the board of trade, and the chancellor of the Duchy of Lancaster. Within recent years the numbers included in the cabinet have grown to twenty or more. The secretaries for Scotland and for air, the ministers of health and of labour, the president of the board of education, the minister of agriculture and fisheries, and the first commissioner of works are normally of cabinet rank, while such ministers as the postmaster-

general or attorney-general on occasion find a place in the cabinet. The Great War of 1914–18 led to a temporary suspension of cabinet government in the accepted sense of the term. During the premiership of Mr. Lloyd George in 1916 power was concentrated in the War Cabinet—a committee of four which dealt with such questions touching the prosecution of the war as primarily concerned the United Kingdom, without responsibility to the other ministers, who sank to the position of mere heads of departments. Imperial affairs were dealt with by the Imperial War Cabinet, to which were summoned at different times representatives of all the self-governing dominions of the empire. This supersession of the traditional constitutional forms seems, however, to have had few permanent results, and constitutional development in the post-war period has been mainly along the old lines.

W. R. Anson, "Law and Custom of the Constitution"; A. V. Dicey, "Law of the Constitution"; "Encyclopædia Britannica," under *England*.

[O. B.; H. M. C.]

Cabot, John (*d.* 1498), was a naturalized Venetian, probably of Genoese birth, who settled at Bristol in the reign of Henry VI. In 1497, having obtained a patent from the king for the discovery of unknown lands, he set sail from Bristol, with his son, in order to discover the North-West Passage to India. In the course of the voyage they discovered Nova Scotia, Newfoundland, and Florida. John Cabot thus deserves the honour of discovering the mainland of America, which he reached June 24, 1497, a year before Columbus.

S. E. Dawson, "Voyages of the Cabots," 1897; G. P. Winship, "Cabot Bibliography," 1900.

Cabot, Sebastian (c. 1474–1557), was the son of John Cabot. In 1497 he accompanied his father on his great voyage, in the course of which the adventurers visited Nova Scotia, Newfoundland, Labrador, and Florida. In 1512 Ferdinand the Catholic induced Cabot to enter the service of Spain; but on the death of the king, in 1516, he returned to England. His alleged attempt to discover the North-West Passage (1517) has now been disproved (see "Dictionary of National Biography" (1886), viii, 168). In 1526 he sailed on a voyage in the interests of Spain, and discovered St. Salvador and the River Plate, returning to Europe in 1531. In 1548 he again settled in England, and received a pension from Edward VI. In 1553 he did good service to English commerce by being instrumental in establishing the trade with Russia.

J. F. Nicholls, "Life of Sebastian Cabot," 1869. Harrisse, "John Cabot and Sebastian his Son," 1896, and "Discovery of America," has shown good reason for questioning Sebastian's share in his father's discoveries, and his good faith.

Cade's Rebellion is the name generally given to the rising in south-eastern England in the summer of 1450. Parliament was sitting at Leicester vainly striving to frame measures to check the enormous evils, financial and political, from which the country was suffering, when, early in June, news came that the commons of Kent had risen in arms under a captain who called himself John Mortimer (a cousin of the Duke of York), and whom Thomas Gascoigne, an Oxford theologian of the day, represents as "a descendant of Roger Mortimer, the bastard." His real name seems to have been Jack Cade, and he is described by later writers as an Irishman who had killed a woman of Sussex, fled to France, fought there against the English, come back to England, and wedded the daughter of a squire. He undoubtedly gave proofs of military capacity; and we are told that the primate, in a conference with him, found him "sober in talk and wise in reasoning," if "arrogant in heart and stiff in opinion." At any rate, the rising he led was no wanton one. Misrule at home and failure abroad had brought on men in power a hatred and contempt almost universal. The amiable king was as clay in the hands of his headstrong queen and the friends of the late unpopular Duke of Suffolk. The royal income had dwindled by improvident grants; the exchequer was wellnigh bankrupt; grievous taxes oppressed the commons, whilst their favourite, the Duke of York, was excluded from the government. The lawless murder of the Duke of Suffolk at Dover, on May 2, had been followed by a report that the king's vengeance would fall on the county of Kent. The men of Kent thereupon resolved on an immediate appeal to arms; and in combination with the men of Surrey and Sussex, and headed by Cade, who called himself "Captain of Kent," assembled on June 1, in considerable force, on Blackheath. This was no tumultuous gathering of a mere clownish mob, but an organized enterprise, deliberately carried out by means of the regular local machinery: and men of good birth are known to have taken part in it. In their formal complaint we learn the provocation and aims of the rebellion. Prominent among the first were the heavy taxation, the alienation of Crown property, the general failure of justice, the abuse of purveyance, the appointment of upstarts to high office, the treasonable loss of France, undue interference of great men at elections, and exactions under colour of law; among the second it was urged that the alienated Crown lands should be resumed, the friends of Suffolk discarded, and the king's confidence given to York—in fact, redress of grievances and change of counsellors. Only one clause—that which demanded the abolition of the Statute of Labourers—touched on a social grievance. The king at once mustered an army, and marched to London: and thence, after some delay, moved on Blackheath. Cade fell back before his advance; and Henry, thinking the brunt of the danger over, sent only a small force, under Sir Humphrey and William Stafford, in pursuit of him. Cade faced round at Sevenoaks, and there, on June 18, a fight ensued, in which the king's force was routed,

and both the Staffords killed. Cade returned to London, and occupied Southwark. The Londoners resolved, by a vote of the common council, to open their gates to the rebels; and on July 2 Cade led them across the bridge and took formal possession of the city by striking London Stone with his sword. For a time he preserved the show, and something of the reality, of discipline, making his men respect the persons and properties of the citizens, and returning with them every night to Southwark. But he took Lord Saye and Sele, the treasurer, who was in special ill-odour with the country, out of the Tower, and had him arraigned before the lord mayor, but afterwards caused him to be carried off and beheaded in Cheap. Crowmer, Saye's son-in-law and sheriff of Kent, and another were also murdered. Then discipline gave way; robberies became frequent, Cade himself plundering friend and enemy alike. This conduct enraged the Londoners; they turned upon Cade; and under the command of Matthew Gough, a soldier of renown in the French wars, sought, on July 5, to hold the bridge against the rebels. Cade promptly made a furious onslaught upon them; drove them with heavy loss to the drawbridge at the centre, which he set on fire; and killed their leader. The contest lasted through the night; but the Kentish men fell back the next morning. The chancellor (Archbishop Kemp) seized this moment of discouragement to tempt the insurgents with offers of pardon. These were produced by Bishop Waynflete at a conference with Cade, and were gladly accepted. Soon almost every man of the rebels was making for his home. But their captain, probably distrusting his pardon, which had been issued in the name of "John Mortimer," retired under arms to Dartford with a handful of followers. Thence he went to Rochester, whither his booty had been sent by water. A price was now set on his head; and his men quarrelled with him over the plunder. He left them and fled into Sussex. He was heading towards Lewes, when he was caught in a lane near Heathfield, by Iden, the new sheriff of Kent, and, struggling against capture, was cut down and wounded to the death. He died before his captors could get him to London.

Paston Letters, with J. Gairdner's Preface to vol. iv, 1904; J. E. Thorold Rogers's Introduction to "Locile Libro Veritatum"; G. Krieln, "The English Rising in 1450," 1892; B. B. Orridge (ed.), "Illustrations of Cade's Rebellion," 1889. [J. R.]

Cadiz, Expeditions against. (1) The *first* (1596) was undertaken partly to create a diversion in favour of Henry IV of France, in accordance with the terms of the Treaty of Melun. In June 1596 a combined fleet of English and Dutch, under Lord Howard of Effingham and the Earl of Essex, entered Cadiz harbour, where Sir Francis Drake had burnt the shipping nine years before, and completely defeated the Spanish vessels assembled there for the defence of the city. Essex, with 3,000 men, landed at Puntales, and captured the town, extorting a ransom from the citizens. The expedition returned ten weeks after it had left Plymouth, having done much to lower the prestige of Spain, and to assert the naval superiority of the English. (2) The *second* (1625) resulted from the rupture of the negotiations for the Spanish marriage, and the restoration of the Palatinate by Spanish aid, and the consequent expedition planned by the Duke of Buckingham to seize a Spanish port and intercept the treasure fleet. An open breach took place in September 1625, when Charles concluded an alliance with Holland (September 8), and a joint expedition was agreed on. Sir Edward Cecil (Lord Wimbledon) was entrusted with the chief command, with Lord Denbigh as rear-admiral and the Earl of Essex as vice-admiral. The combined fleet arrived in Cadiz Bay on October 22; but instead of at once attacking the ships in the harbour and assaulting the city, the next day was spent in capturing the fort of Puntales which guarded the entrance of the harbour. The delay gave the Spaniards time to garrison the before defenceless city, and made a surprise impossible. On the 24th Wimbledon landed his troops, and marched northwards to meet a Spanish force of whose approach he had heard; but the Spaniards retreated, and, after a useless and disorderly march, he returned next morning to his fleet. The fleet, which was to have destroyed the Spanish vessels at the head of the harbour, found them posted in an inaccessible creek, and accomplished nothing. Cadiz was now too strong to attack. On October 27, therefore, the soldiers were re-embarked, the fort of Puntales was abandoned, and the fleet put to sea to intercept the treasure ships. This portion of the enterprise also failed; the ships were unseaworthy, and disease raged among the crews; and in December the fleet returned to England. (3) The *third* (1702) occurred during the War of the Spanish Succession, and the idea appears to have been suggested by the Prince of Hesse Darmstadt, who was convinced that the Spaniards were to a man in favour of the Archduke Charles, and that Cadiz would form a good basis of operations. Accordingly a joint expedition of English and Dutch troops was fitted out and placed under the command of the Duke of Ormonde; Sir George Rooke, who disapproved of the whole plan, being in command of the fleet of 200 ships. The land forces amounted to 14,000 men. It was first designed to attack Gibraltar, but this idea was given up. For a fortnight the fleet was delayed by storms. Cadiz was strongly fortified and was defended by the veteran general Villadarias. Ormonde first attempted to gain over the governor Brancaccio, and then the inhabitants, but without success. As the town itself was supposed, though utterly without reason, to be impregnable, the allies occupied the port of Santa Maria, which they ruthlessly pillaged, the officers being as unprincipled as the men (July 18). An attempt to take Fort

Matagorda proved an utter failure; dysentery, too, broke out among the troops. Accordingly, on September 9, Ormonde, sorely against his will, was constrained to re-embark his troops, and they set off homeward "with a great deal of plunder and infamy." On their way home, however, the expedition partly retrieved its character by the destruction of the Spanish galleons in Vigo Bay.

Sir J. S. Corbett, "Successors of Drake," 1900; Sir J. Glanville, "Voyage to Cadiz in 1625," 1883.

Cadogan, William, 1st Earl of (1675–1726), was one of the officers whom Marlborough most trusted. He was made colonel of the 2nd Regiment of Horse in 1703, and general in the following year for his gallant attack on the Schellenberg. In 1705 he was elected member for Woodstock. He fought at Ramillies, and towards the end of 1706 he was taken prisoner, but soon exchanged. In 1707 he was appointed ambassador to the States General. Cadogan led the van at Oudenarde, having been sent on to construct pontoons across the Scheldt, by which the army effected the passage. He also supported General Webb in his gallant fight with the enemy at Wynendael. At the end of the year he was made lieutenant-general. He was again appointed envoy to the States General, but was recalled by the Tory ministry. In Marlborough's last campaign he surprised Bouchain and Cambrai, and broke the barrier which Villars had termed his "non plus ultra." On the disgrace of Marlborough he resigned his appointments. On the accession of George I he was made master of the robes, and envoy to the States General. When the Jacobite insurrection of 1715 broke out, Cadogan was sent to Scotland after the dilatoriness of Argyll had been proved, and soon brought the campaign to a conclusion. He was raised to the peerage in 1716. He signed the defensive alliance between Great Britain, France, and Holland, and subsequently carried out the execution of the Barrier Treaty, and signed the Quadruple Alliance. His influence in Holland was partly owing to his friendship with Marlborough, and partly because he had married a Dutch lady of good family. On the death of the Duke of Marlborough, he was appointed master-general of the ordnance. Later on he supported Carteret in his quarrel with Walpole.

Marlborough's "Dispatches"; biographies of Marlborough.

Cadsand, The Battle of (1337), the first fight of the Hundred Years' War against France, was brought about by the attack of the Count of Flanders on the party of Van Artevelde, who sought aid from England. Sir Walter Manny was sent with a small force, and having effected a landing at Cadsand, an island at the mouth of the Scheldt, inflicted a serious defeat on the troops of the count.

Sir C. Oman, "England and the Hundred Years' War," 1898.

Caen, The Treaty of (1091), was made between William Rufus and Robert of Normandy, under the mediation probably of the King of France. Robert renounced his claim to England, and was allowed to retain his capital and the greater part of his duchy; but he recognized the commendations which many of the Norman nobles had made to William Rufus, who thus became a continental neighbour to his brother, "hemming in what was left of Normandy on every side" (Freeman). Cherbourg, Fécamp, and Mont-Saint-Michel were among the places surrendered by Robert. The treaty provided that if either Robert or William should die without an heir the survivor should succeed to his dominions.

Freeman, "William Rufus," ii, 1882; in the Appendix the different versions of the treaty are given.

Cagliari Affair, The. In June 1857 some of the passengers on a trading steamer, the *Cagliari*, seized the ship and attacked the island of Ponza. The ship, after being abandoned by its captors, was taken at sea by a Neapolitan war-vessel, and two English engineers aboard were imprisoned until March 1858, when one became mad, and the other seriously ill. The affair formed the subject of much discussion in parliament, representations from the British government to that of Naples ending in the payment of £3,000 compensation by the latter in June 1858.

"Annual Register," 1857.

Caicos. [Turk's Islands.]

Cairns, Hugh McCalmont, 1st Earl (1819–85), second son of William Cairns, of co. Down, Ireland, was called to the bar in 1844, and entered parliament as member for Belfast in 1852. In 1858 he was appointed solicitor-general by Lord Derby. On the return of Lord Derby to power in 1866, he was made attorney-general, and subsequently a lord justice of appeal. In 1867 he was elevated to the peerage. He became lord chancellor in 1868, and held that office till the downfall of Disraeli's ministry. In Disraeli's second administration he again held the chancellorship.

Memoir by C. Marsh, 1885.

Caithness, John, Earl of (*d.* 1231), son of Harold, was supposed to have connived at the murder of Bishop Adam. He was in consequence deprived of half his earldom by Alexander II, from whom, however, he bought it back a year later. The earl was burnt to death in his own castle, 1231.

Calais first passed into the possession of the English in the reign of Edward III. It was invested by the English in August 1346, and after the battle of Crecy Edward III appeared in person before the walls with the army that had won the victory. The town endured a siege for nearly a year with heroic bravery, and the governor, Jean de Vienne,

finally surrendered on August 4, 1347. According to Jean Le Bel, six of the chief citizens offered their lives to the king in ransom for their fellow-townsmen, but were spared by the intervention of Queen Philippa. The town was unsuccessfully besieged by the Duke of Burgundy in 1436, and remained in English hands as the sole vestige of the English conquests in France at the close of Henry VI's reign. In 1455 Warwick was made captain of Calais, but in 1470 he and Clarence were refused entrance to the city. In July 1475 Edward IV landed at Calais to begin his projected campaign in France. In January 1558 the town was invested and easily captured by Francis, Duke of Guise, owing to the apathy of the English government, which had left the town without men or supplies to withstand a siege. By the peace of Cateau-Cambrésis (q.v.) (1559) the French bound themselves to restore Calais to the English at the end of eight years, on pain of forfeiting a large sum of money; but the engagement was never carried out. It was while lying off Calais on August 7, 1588, that the Spanish Armada was dispersed by the fireships of the English. In 1596 Calais was taken from the French by Philip of Spain, a circumstance which so alarmed England as to occasion the expedition to Cadiz under Lord Howard of Effingham. Calais was restored to France in 1598 by the Treaty of Vervins, and has since remained in the hands of the French.

Calcutta first became an English trading station in 1686, when the small factory established at Hugli was removed to this place. By 1700 Fort William was built, and became the head-quarters of the Bengal servants of the East India Company. In 1707 it was constituted a presidency, and its trade soon became considerable. The city was strongly fortified, and in 1742 the trench called the "Mahratta ditch" was dug round it to protect it from the predatory Mahratta horsemen. In 1756 the town was captured and sacked by Suraj-ud-Dowlah, and the tragedy of the "Black Hole" enacted [BLACK HOLE OF CALCUTTA]. In January 1757 the town was reconquered by Clive, and rebuilt. In 1773 it became the capital of British India as well as of Bengal, by an act of parliament which gave the Fort William government superiority over those of the other presidencies. The governor of Bengal was henceforth called the governor-general, and in 1834 his title was changed to that of governor-general of India. Many magnificent buildings were erected in the European quarter, including the splendid Government House built by Lord Wellesley in 1804. In 1854 the supreme government was separated from the local Bengal government by the creation of a lieutenant-governor of Bengal, who also had his seat at Calcutta, which remained the capital of British India until 1912, when the transfer was made to Delhi (q.v.) and Calcutta became the seat of a governor-in-council. The population of the city, with suburbs, in 1921 was 1,327,547.

C. R. Wilson, "Old Fort William," 2 vols., 1906.

Caledonia. The name given generally by the Romans to that part of Britain lying north of the Firths of Forth and Clyde and first laid open by the conquests and explorations of Agricola. The name first occurs in Lucan, vi, 67, and Valerius Flaccus, "Argonaut.," i, 7. Tacitus says that the red hair and large limbs of the Caledonians point to a German origin. The Caledonians, according to Ptolemy, extended from the Sinus Lemannonius (probably Loch Long) to the Varar Aestuarium (Beauly Firth). They occupied the tract of wild country called Caledonia Silva, or Forest of Celyddon, and were the most powerful of all the tribes north of the Brigantes. At a later period the name came to include apparently all the barbarian and partially unsubdued natives of the northern mountainous district. In A.D. 201 the Caledonians joined the revolt of the Meatæ. Severus conducted a campaign against them about A.D. 208; but they again revolted a year or two afterwards. In the fourth century, and subsequently, the name is used as equivalent to the whole of Northern Britain—modern Scotland, as distinguished from England and Ireland.

Calendar, THE REFORMATION OF THE (1751), was in great part due to the efforts of Lord Chesterfield. The "Old Style," which was now eleven days in error, had long since been abandoned by most civilized nations. Great Britain, however, with Russia and Sweden, still clung to the antiquated system. "It was not," wrote Chesterfield, "very honourable for England to remain in a gross and avowed error, especially in such company." Accordingly, having paved the way to his measure by some letters to the *World*, Chesterfield drew up the scheme in concert with Lord Macclesfield and Bradley the astronomer-royal. The bill successfully passed both Houses of parliament. It ordained that the year 1752 should begin on January 1, instead of March 7, and that the 3rd of the month of September should be called the 14th, so as to correct the eleven days' error. Further, such changes should be introduced as would make the solar year and the lunar year coincide. In the matter of payments, it was enacted that these should not be altered, and that April 5, July 5, October 10, and January 5 should still continue to be the days on which the dividends of the public funds became due. This change met with a good deal of ignorant opposition. The common opposition election cry was, "Give us back our eleven days." The reform of the calendar has since been discussed by a committee set up by the League of Nations. The committee reported in 1926.

Calvert, GEORGE, 1ST LORD BALTIMORE, (1580–1632), was secretary of state to James I,

but was compelled to resign his office in 1624, in consequence of having become a Roman Catholic. He had always taken a great interest in colonization, and obtained in the year of his death the charter of Maryland from Charles I. An expedition was sent out in 1633 under the patronage of Cecil Calvert, 2nd Lord Baltimore (who died in 1676), and the colony of Maryland was successfully planted. The capital was named Baltimore in honour of its patron.

J. G. Morris, "The Lords Baltimore," 1874.

Cambrai, Battle of (November–December 1917), was one of the most important battles in the Great War. It originated in a British determination to attempt a surprise tank attack on the Cambrai section of the western front in preference to an infantry attack handicapped in advance by a devastating artillery bombardment, and in a general allied desire to prevent the withdrawal of German troops from France to the Italian front. This plan was entirely new; but it suffered in execution from lack of reserve forces, and by reason of its being extended over too wide a front. The attack was entrusted to General Byng (q.v.), and involved the 3rd and 4th Army Corps, numbering six divisions, with 381 fighting tanks. Its immediate object was to break the Hindenburg Line and seize Cambrai. The offensive opened on November 20, in a tank advance across the front enemy trenches followed by an infantry attack. But though great progress was made in the first onslaught the tank attack had exhausted itself before the expected result had been achieved, and the expiration of the forty-eight hours' time-limit left Bourlon Hill still untaken. Two days later (November 22) the Germany army under von der Marwitz made a successful counter-attack masked by gas and smoke shells, forcing the British to evacuate completely the Masnières-Bourlon salient by December 4. The greatest historical value of the battle is that its mistaken aim provided a lesson which was acted on with success in the allied offensive of the following year.

Cambridge was the site of a Roman station, to which the name Camboritum has been conjecturally attached. After the Anglo-Saxon conquest the name of the town appears as Grantebrycge or Grantabridge. The present form is probably derived from the great bridge over the Cam (Cante-brig). In 1267 it was fortified by Henry III, and afterwards taken by the barons. In 1381 it was attacked by the insurgents, and many of the colleges were pillaged and their charters burned. During the Civil War it was occupied by the Parliamentarians. The town returned two members from Edward I's time till the Redistribution Act of 1885 reduced the number to one.

A. Gray, "Dual Origin of the Town of Cambridge," 1908; and "The Town of Cambridge, a History," 1925.

Cambridge, University of. [Universities.]

Cambridge, George William Frederick Charles, Duke of (1819–1904), son of Adolphus Frederick, youngest son of George III, was born at Hanover. He became a colonel in the British army, 1837; a major-general in 1845; and a lieutenant-general in 1854. He was present at the battles of the Alma and Inkerman, as commander of the two brigades of Guards and Highlanders. In 1856 he was appointed commander-in-chief—a position which he filled until 1895—and in 1862 he was advanced to the rank of field-marshal.

Biography by W. Verner and E. D. Parker, 1905.

Cambridge, Richard Plantagenet, Earl of (*d.* 1415), was the second son of Edmund of Langley, Duke of York. He was created Earl of Cambridge by Henry V, but in 1415 was concerned in the conspiracy with Lord Scrope of Masham and others, to dethrone Henry and place the Earl of March on the throne. On the discovery of the plot Cambridge was beheaded. He married, first, Anne Mortimer, sister of the Earl of March, through whom the claims of the house of Mortimer were transferred to the family of York; and, secondly, Maud, daughter of Thomas, Lord Clifford.

Biographies of Henry V.

Cambuskenneth, The Battle of. [Stirling, Battle of.]

Camden, The Battle of (August 16, 1780), fought during the American War of Independence, arose out of an attempt made by the Americans to save the Carolina provinces from falling into British hands. In the early part of the summer, Washington dispatched von Kalb with 3,000 men to join Gates in the south; and Virginia sent out a large body of militia. The centre of the British force, which was widely extended over South Carolina, lay at Camden, but Cornwallis, on hearing of Gates's advance, concentrated a large body on that place. A skirmish at daybreak of August 16 between the vanguards of the two armies soon developed into a general battle. The British were outnumbered, but a great part of the American force was raw and undisciplined, the steady attack of the regulars was irresistible, and the flight soon became a hopeless rout. The American losses were very heavy both in men and stores. Among the former was von Kalb himself. The victory was the most decisive advantage gained by the British during the war; it placed South Carolina and Georgia almost entirely in their power. [Cornwallis.]

J. W. Fortescue, "History of the British Army," iii, 1902.

Camden, Charles Pratt, 1st Earl (1714–94). [Pratt.]

Camden, John Jeffreys Pratt, 1st Marquis (1759–1840). [Pratt.]

Camden, William (1551–1623), one of the most celebrated of English antiquaries, was born in London and educated at St. Paul's School and at Oxford. In 1575 he became an usher at Westminster School, and in 1589 received a prebend at Salisbury Cathedral. In 1593 he became headmaster of Westminster, and in 1597 Clarenceux king-of-arms. In 1607 he was commissioned by James I to translate into Latin the account of the trial of the Gunpowder Plot conspirators. In 1622 he founded his professorship of history at Oxford, and died at Chislehurst the next year. Camden's most celebrated work is the "Britannia sive Florentissimorum Regnorum Angliæ, Scotiæ, Hiberniæ, et Insularum Adjacentium, ex Intima Antiquitate Chorographica Descriptio," which first appeared in 1586, and had gone through a fourth edition by 1594. A new and enlarged edition was published in 1607. It is an interesting work, and the care and learning shown in its compilation still make it of great value to scholars. Though many of Camden's antiquarian theories have been dispelled by later research, his work is important as a great storehouse of facts. He also wrote an English antiquarian work of less elaborate character, called "Remaines Concerning Britain," 1605, which has been frequently reprinted. In 1615 he published the first part of his "Annales Rerum Anglicarum Regnante Elizabetha," the second part of which did not appear till after the author's death. It is not a work of special value.

The "Britannia" was translated into English by P. Holland, 1610; and by Bishop Gibson in 1695, which translation was reprinted in 1722 and enlarged in 1753 and 1772. An enlarged translation was published by Gough in 3 vols., 1789. An edition of Camden's "Works" in 6 vols. was published in 1870.

Cameron, Sir Ewen, of Lochiel (1629–1719), "a gracious master, a trusty ally, a terrible enemy," was one of the staunchest adherents of James II in the campaign of 1689. He was in command of the Camerons at Killiecrankie (q.v.), but after the death of Claverhouse he refused to serve under his successor, Cannon, the Irish commander, and retired to Lochaber. In 1692 he took the oaths to William III with the other Highland chiefs.

P. Hume Brown, "History of Scotland," 1911.

Cameron, Richard (*d.* July 20, 1680), the founder of the Cameronians, was born at Falkland, in Fife, the son of a village tradesman. He entered the ministry and distinguished himself by his violent opposition to the restoration of Episcopacy. In 1677 he fled to Holland, and on his return (1680) he joined his few supporters in issuing the Sanquhar Declaration (q.v.), by which he and his followers practically declared themselves rebels, and announced their intention of offering armed resistance to the government. He was killed in the skirmish of Aird's Moss (q.v.).

P. Hume Brown, "History of Scotland," 1911.

Cameronians, The, took their name from Richard Cameron, the author of the Sanquhar Declaration. They were sometimes called "Covenanters," from their rigid adherence to the Solemn League and Covenant, and afterwards "McMillanites" (from the name of their first minister after the Revolution) and "Mountain Men." Their creed considered as enemies to righteousness Romanists, Episcopalians, and more especially those moderate Presbyterians who had accepted the Indulgence of Charles II. Besides holding the binding obligation of the Covenant on the three kingdoms, they maintained the Westminster Confession and the Scriptures as the absolute rule of faith and conduct. The sect was not extinguished by the defeat of Aird's Moss, and the death of their leader. They issued a defiance to the royal authority, October 28, 1684, and in return were proscribed and hunted by the royal troops. The Cameronians were most numerous in the wilder parts of south-western Scotland, where, on the accession of William III, their warlike temperament was utilized by the formation of the Cameronian Regiment. The Revolution secured for Scotland a Presbyterian church government; but many of the extreme Cameronians refused to swear allegiance to William III, or to attend the established places of worship. These covenanting non-jurors became the "Reformed Presbyterians," or the "Old Presbyterian Dissenters," and formed a presbytery and subsequently a synod in 1743. They founded numerous churches in England, Ireland, and America.

P. Hume Brown, "History of Scotland," 1911.

Cameroons. [West Africa, British Dominions in.]

Campbell, The Family of, is, according to tradition, descended in the female line from the ancient kings or chiefs of Argyll, and from one of these, a certain Diarmid, the clan is supposed to derive its name of Scol Diarmid, by which it was known in Erse and Gaelic. In the reign of Malcolm Canmore the name was changed to Campbell by the marriage of the heiress of the house with a person of that name. A Sir Colin Campbell, Lord of Lochow, was among the Scottish knights and barons summoned to the Council of Berwick in 1291. His son, Sir Neil Campbell, was a strong supporter of Robert Bruce, whose sister he married. His son, Sir Colin, received large grants of land in Argyllshire from King Robert and his successor. His grandson, Duncan, was made justiciar of Argyll by James I and raised to the peerage as Lord Campbell (1445). The grandson of this peer, Colin, was made Earl of Argyll in 1457. Archibald, the 8th earl, was created Marquis of Argyll in 1641; but was executed and his honours for-

feited in 1661. The earldom was restored to his son, Archibald, the 9th earl, in 1663, who was beheaded in 1685. His son, Archibald, was restored under William III, and created Duke of Argyll in 1701. [ARGYLL, PEERAGE OF.]

Campbell, ARCHIBALD, 5TH EARL OF ARGYLL (*d.* 1573), although a member of the Congregation, attached himself to the side of the regent, Mary of Guise, and was of great service to her in averting a collision between the Reformers and the French troops in 1559. He was said to have formed a plot to carry off Mary, Queen of Scots, almost on the eve of her marriage with Darnley; and he acted as president at the mock trial of Bothwell for Darnley's murder, in 1567. On the abdication of the queen he was appointed one of the Commission of Regency during Moray's absence, but on her escape, 1568, joined her party, and commanded her troops at the battle of Langside. A year or two later, however, he submitted to the government of Morton and obtained an indemnity.

Campbell, ARCHIBALD, 8TH EARL and also MARQUIS OF ARGYLL (1598–1661), succeeded his father in 1638, and at once joined the Covenanters, whose forces he commanded when they were defeated by Montrose at Inverlochy and Kilsyth. His cruelties towards the Royalists in 1640–1 earned him the bitter hatred of all his opponents, and in 1641 a plot to murder him, known as the "Incident" (q.v.) was formed. The same year he was created a marquis, and in 1651 supported the cause of Charles II, whom he crowned at Scone. Immediately afterwards, however, the marquis was taken prisoner at Worcester, and was supposed to have entered into close relations with Cromwell. In Richard Cromwell's parliament of 1659 he represented Aberdeenshire. As a consequence, he was impeached for high treason immediately after the Restoration. He was executed at Edinburgh, suffering as much for his great power, which was an object of dread to Charles II, as for his treason.

Biography by J. Willcock, 1902.

Campbell, ARCHIBALD, 9TH EARL OF ARGYLL (*d.* 1685), was the son of the preceding. He was restored to his estates and earldom in 1663, which had been forfeited by his father's treason, and joined the Royalist party in Scotland. On the passing of the Scottish Test Act, in 1681, Argyll refused to take the required oath, except with a reservation, stating that he did not thereby debar himself from attempting any amendment in Church or State. For this he was brought to trial, and being found guilty of "leasing-making," was sentenced to death. He managed, however, to escape to Holland, where he remained till 1685, when he joined Monmouth in his attempt to dethrone James. But there seems to have been no sympathy between the two, and Argyll was suspected and distrusted by the English. Argyll landed in Scotland in May 1685, but found himself joined by very few followers except his own clansmen. Divisions were rife in his councils, and after an abortive march on Glasgow, his followers dispersed without striking a blow, and he himself was captured in the disguise of a carter, taken to Edinburgh, and executed on his former sentence of death.

Biography by J. Willcock, 1908.

Campbell, SIR COLIN, LORD CLYDE (1792–1863), entered the army at an early age, and first saw service in the Peninsular War. He received his lieutenant-colonelcy in 1832, and in the Chinese War in 1842 went out in command of his regiment, the 98th. In the Sikh War of 1848–9 he obtained considerable distinction, was wounded at Chilianwalla, and largely contributed to the victory of Gujarat. In the Crimean War he was in command of the Highland Brigade, and greatly distinguished himself at the Alma, after which battle he received the personal thanks of Lord Raglan. On the morning of the battle of Balaclava, the Highland Brigade, under Campbell, was entrusted with the defence of the British landing-place, and the repulse of a squadron of Russian cavalry was one of the results of the day's fighting. In July 1857 Campbell was ordered to India to assume command against the mutineers. Leaving England at twenty-four hours' notice, he arrived at Calcutta in August, and hastily collecting what troops he could, he marched on Lucknow, the relief of which city was effected with consummate skill and generalship. One after another the rebel strongholds were reduced, and Sir Colin's talents as a commander-in-chief were hardly more conspicuous than his tact and temper in the difficult position in which he was placed. On the complete suppression of the Mutiny Campbell was raised to the peerage, and received the thanks of both Houses of parliament, with a pension of £2,000 a year. He was created a field-marshal shortly before his death.

Sir J. Kaye, "Sepoy War," 1864–76; A. W. Kinglake, "Invasion of the Crimea," 1863–87; biography by A. Forbes, 1895.

Campbell, GEORGE DOUGLAS, 8TH DUKE OF ARGYLL (1823–1900), was, as Marquis of Lorne, prominent in the controversy in the Presbyterian Church of Scotland relating to patronage. In 1852 he accepted office under Lord Aberdeen as lord privy seal, and retained the same office under Lord Palmerston. He was lord privy seal again under Lord Palmerston in 1859, postmaster-general in 1860, and secretary of state for India in Gladstone's cabinet from 1868 to 1874. He joined Gladstone's second administration (1880) as lord privy seal, but retired owing to a difference of opinion with his colleagues on their Irish policy.

Campbell, JOHN, MARQUIS OF LORNE, 2ND DUKE OF ARGYLL, AND DUKE OF GREENWICH (*d.* 1743), as Lord Lorne, was made

commander of a regiment of foot by William III. In 1703 he succeeded to his father's honours and estates, and was sworn of Anne's privy council. In 1705 he was appointed lord high commissioner to the Scottish parliament, in which he zealously advocated the Union. For these services he was created a peer of England and Earl of Greenwich. In 1706 he fought under Marlborough at Ramillies, and commanded in the attack on Menin. He returned to Scotland, where he supported the efforts of the commission for the Union. He fought at Oudenarde and Malplaquet; but was at enmity with Marlborough, his commander-in-chief. At this time he was closely connected with the Tories, and was appointed to the command in Catalonia in 1710. The army was demoralized by the defeat at Almanza, and he could obtain no supplies. He returned to England, and was made commander-in-chief of the land forces in Scotland. He was soon at variance with the ministry; and opposed, in the Upper House, a motion to the effect that the Protestant succession was in danger. As Queen Anne lay dying, Argyll entered the council with the Duke of Somerset, and proposed that the queen should be requested to make the Duke of Shrewsbury lord treasurer. It was done; and it was owing to this vigorous action that Bolingbroke's plans at once fell to the ground. On the accession of George I Argyll was continued in his employments, and on the outbreak of Mar's rebellion, in 1715, Argyll, as commander-in-chief in Scotland, met the rebels at Sheriffmuir, where Mar was defeated. But the conduct of Argyll caused it to be suspected that he was unwilling to drive the Jacobites to extremities. Cadogan was sent to reinforce him. As soon as the duke marched forward, the Jacobites retreated before him; the Pretender fled to France, and the rebellion was crushed. In recognition of his services during the rebellion he was raised to the dignity of Duke of Greenwich (1719). Argyll was a follower of Walpole during the greater part of his long ministry, but in 1739 he distinctly joined the opposition. Walpole, wishing to preserve so powerful a support, kept him in his places, but at length was compelled to dismiss him. On the resignation of Walpole, Argyll was again placed in office; but he was dissatisfied with the arrangement of the ministry, and resigned. Towards the end of his career, he intrigued with the Jacobites. It was only after Sir John Hinde Cotton, a noted Jacobite, had been placed on the board of the admiralty, that the duke condescended to join Pelham's administration. He was a brave soldier and an able orator; but his political career was a series of inconsistencies.

W. Coxe, "Walpole"; C. S. Terry, "History of Scotland," 1920. [L. C. S.]

Campbell, John, 1st Baron (1779–1861), descended from a junior branch of the ducal house of Argyll, was the son of Dr. George Campbell, minister of Cupar. He was educated at the Grammar School at Cupar, and at the University of St. Andrews, and was called to the bar of Lincoln's Inn in 1806. In 1827 he obtained a silk gown, and in 1830–1 he represented Stafford in the House of Commons. In 1832 he was made solicitor-general, and in February 1834 was appointed attorney-general. During his period of office he inaugurated several important law reforms, among which were the act called Lord Campbell's Act for the amendment of the law of libel as it affects newspapers [Press, Freedom of the], and an act limiting the power of arrest in cases of disputed debt. In June 1841 he was raised to the peerage and received the Irish chancellorship, but only for a short time. In 1846 Lord Campbell joined the Whig cabinet as chancellor of the Duchy of Lancaster. In 1850 he became lord chief justice, and held that office till he was appointed lord chancellor of Great Britain by Lord Palmerston in 1859. Lord Campbell published, in 1845–7, "The Lives of the Lord Chancellors and Keepers of the Great Seal of England," in seven volumes. He also wrote "Lives of the Chief Justices." On the morning of June 23, 1861, he was found dead in his chair.

Lord Campbell's "Memoirs," edited by his daughter, Mrs. Hardcastle, 1879.

Campbell-Bannerman, Sir Henry, G.C.B. (1836–1908), educated at Glasgow University and at Trinity College, Cambridge, entered the House of Commons in 1868, and was financial secretary to the war office, 1871–4 and 1880–2. In 1882 he was appointed secretary to the admiralty; in 1884 chief secretary for Ireland; and in 1886, and again in 1892, war secretary. In 1898 he led the Liberal opposition in succession to Sir William Harcourt, and in 1905, on the resignation of Mr. Balfour, became prime minister. At the general election in 1906 the Liberals obtained a striking victory, and Sir Henry was premier until he resigned a short time previous to his death.

Biography by T. P. O'Connor, 1908.

Camperdown, The Battle of (October 11, 1797), was fought between the British and the Dutch. In the autumn of 1797 a great Dutch fleet was prepared to co-operate with the French in the invasion of Ireland. On October 6 the Dutch, under De Winter, weighed from the Texel. Admiral Duncan, who had been lying in Yarmouth Roads, crossed the North Sea, and came in sight of the Dutch on the morning of October 11, nine miles from the coast, near Camperdown. At half-past eleven Duncan made the signal for the fleet to engage, and at twelve o'clock determined to pass through the enemy's line in two divisions and engage to leeward. But the weather was so hazy that the signal was not seen by many of the ships, which accordingly engaged in close action as each captain saw an opportu-

nity. The two flag-ships passed through the line followed by a few leading ships, while the others, for the most part, engaged the enemy to windward. The action was fought with the desperate stubbornness which had always been so marked a characteristic of the two nations. De Winter in the *Vrigheid*, assailed by the British admiral's ship and two others, after a desperate contest, surrendered, when his ship was totally dismasted and had scarcely enough men left to work the guns. One after another the Dutch ships followed his example, and it only remained for the British to secure the prizes before night set in. Nine of the Dutch vessels, with over 6,000 prisoners, were taken. Duncan's victory broke the right wing of the threatened invasion, and reasserted the naval supremacy of Britain.

W. L. Clowes, "Royal Navy," vol. iv, 1899.

Camperdown, 1st Viscount (1731–1804). [Duncan, Adam.]

Campion, Edmund (1540–81), was born in London and educated at Oxford, where he became a fellow of St. John's College; but, already a Catholic at heart, he betook himself in 1569 to Ireland, to await the re-opening of the University of Dublin. Threatened with arrest he returned to England in time to witness the martyrdom of Dr. Storey. This inspired him to an open repudiation of Protestantism, and in 1571 he went to Cardinal Allen's college at Douai, where he became noted for his learning and virtues. In 1573 he entered the Society of Jesus. His affability and high moral character made him an invaluable asset to the Jesuits, and in June 1580 he undertook a "missionary journey" to England, in company with Robert Parsons. Their zeal and success were such as to cause the parliament of 1581 to pass the harsh statute against anyone harbouring a Jesuit, and active measures were taken for the apprehension of the two missionaries. In July 1581 Campion was taken at Lyford, in Berkshire, and sent to the Tower, where he was tortured in order to extort from him the names of Catholics who had given him shelter. He was then indicted for compassing and imagining the queen's death, and, after what appears to have been a grossly unfair trial, was executed at Tyburn, December 1581.

"State Trials"; Camden, "Annales"; "Lives" by Simpson, 1867, and Guiney, 1908.

Camulodunum a town of Celtic and Roman Britain, is now generally allowed to be identical with the modern Colchester. It became the capital of the Trinobantes under Cunobelinus or Cymbeline (q.v.). In 44 it was taken by Aulus Plautius, and later was made a Roman colony. In 60 Boudicca and the Iceni captured and burnt the city and defeated Petillius Cerialis and the ninth legion, but shortly afterwards Suetonius Paulinus retrieved by a complete victory the honour of Rome.

Tacitus, "Agricola"; Sir C. Oman, "England Before the Norman Conquest."

Canada, The Dominion of, was founded in 1867 by the federation of the four provinces of Ontario, Quebec, Nova Scotia, and New Brunswick, to which five provinces have since been added, Manitoba in 1870, British Columbia in 1871, Prince Edward Island in 1873, and Saskatchewan and Alberta both in 1905, while five administrative districts have been formed in the extreme north. The history of Canada is one of growth from small settlements in the east, a migration after new sources of wealth by the hardy races of colonists. There are several well-marked phases of that history. Until 1603 it was one of coastal discovery; then followed a period of French settlements and exploration until the beginning, in 1670, of serious British rivalry. By 1763 Canada was all British. Tenure was precarious until 1815; from 1815 to 1867 saw the growth and development of political feeling and forms, culminating in the creation of the Dominion. Since then it has been the history of a continued development and prosperity. Canada's status, recognized at the Imperial Conference of 1917, was emphasized by her joining the League of Nations and signing the Peace of Versailles, and is defined by the report of the conference of 1926 as one of complete autonomy.

Leif Eric in about the year 1000 is said to have touched the coast, but it was not until 1497 that Cabot made known to the western nations the existence of the island of Newfoundland with the mainland behind it. At first it was used only as the rendezvous of British west-country, Breton, Basque, and Portuguese fishermen, whose rude rule of the sea was the only form of government. In 1534 Jacques Cartier of St. Malo sailed up the Gulf of St. Lawrence, where in 1541 a small settlement was made and abandoned. Verrazano had in 1524 explored and claimed for France the coast of North America from Cape Hatteras to Nova Scotia, but, with the solitary exception of Roberval's settlement in 1541, New France remained unoccupied until the advent of Samuel Champlain. From 1603 until his death in 1635 Champlain worked to occupy the new lands for France. Quebec was founded (1608), and the Huron and Ontario were reached in an attempt to find a way to China. British rivalry, however, followed Hudson's discoveries in 1609 and 1610, and Argall from Virginia destroyed Port Royal, Acadia was granted to Alexander (1621), and Kirke captured Quebec in 1629. Meanwhile the Company of a Hundred Associates, founded by Richelieu in 1627, developed French fishing and the fur trade, and encouraged missionaries, whose intrepidity opened up vast tracts to the white man. Canada was restored to France by the Treaty of St. Germain-en-Laye (1632) by England, who, however, recaptured Acadia in 1645. In 1663 the company was dissolved and Canada reverted to the French Crown to become a royal province. The Company of the West Indies was organized in 1664, but failed to supply New

France with sufficient immigrants. Its charter was revoked in 1674. In 1666 La Salle was sent to New France, Acadia was restored by the Treaty of Breda (1667), and the French pushed on to explore the great west. La Salle discovered the Ohio and proclaimed as French the hinterland of the Mississippi—a vast Louisiana—in 1682.

In 1670 Anglo-French rivalry was accentuated by the foundation of the British Hudson's Bay Company (q.v.). The rival factors fought, rival fleets destroyed the factories, and the Indians were induced to participate. The Treaty of Whitehall (1686) provided for a discussion of claims on a basis of neutrality which was immediately violated. British invasions from the American colonies were met by the French claim to the interior, and the strategic line of enveloping forts, the obvious nature of which later precipitated the war which settled the fate of Canada. The first phase of this rivalry was ended by the Peace of Ryswick (1697), which closed the War of the Grand Alliance in Europe and provided for mutual restoration of territories in Canada. The second phase finished with the Treaty of Utrecht (1713), which ended the War of the Spanish Succession, and by which Newfoundland, Nova Scotia, Hudson Bay and Straits were ceded to England, France retaining the St. Lawrence shores and Cape Breton Island and fishing rights of Newfoundland. The Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle (1748) closed the third phase by restoring to France Cape Breton Island in return for Madras captured by France in the War of the Austrian Succession. Unofficial war, however, continued, and Virginians fought to prevent the French from shutting them off from the west. The Seven Years' War broke out in Europe in 1756, and a systematic attempt was made by Britain to settle the quarrel in America by crushing the French. Quebec was captured in 1759, and the final conquest of Canada was completed the following year. By the Peace of Paris (1763) all New France was ceded to Great Britain, although France retained her rights west of the Mississippi and to fishing off Newfoundland.

From 1763 to 1867 the history of Canada is the record of Britain's attempt to govern a country of scattered settlements of rival cultures, each with a growing desire to govern themselves. Government under proclamation from 1763 to 1774 ensured religious freedom to the French "habitants." The Quebec Act (1774) defined the boundaries of the colony and confirmed the privileges to the Roman Catholics, but government was still a British despotism. In spite of this, however, the invitation to join the revolted American colonists was refused, and the American invasion repulsed by Governor Carleton. The Peace of Versailles (1783) was followed by a large influx of United Empire Loyalists who settled in Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, and what later became Upper Canada. The self-governing energetic American settler, intensely loyal to the Crown and jealous of his own rights as a citizen, was entirely different from the French settler educated by an exacting priesthood and living under an accepted feudalism. This was recognized in the Constitutional Act of 1791 by the separation of Upper from Lower Canada and by the grant of a certain measure of representative government. War with America broke out again in 1812, but from the Peace of Ghent in 1814 British tenure in Canada has not been challenged. A period of internal political dissension followed, marked by a number of constitutional expedients. In 1791 separate governors, councils, and assemblies had been created for Lower and Upper Canada, but in both friction developed, until by the eighteen-thirties a deadlock was the normal. In Lower Canada British immigration had introduced an alien element, and neither race would be ruled by the other. This culminated in the 1837 rebellion of the Frenchman Papineau. In Upper Canada the Loyalist immigrants formed a close governmental corporation from which other British colonists struggled to obtain political power in vain. In both provinces the assembly struggled to obtain financial control. In 1838 the Canadian constitutions were suspended and Lord Durham appointed high commissioner to report on the state of affairs and to suggest solutions. He reported that he found not a struggle of principle, but "two nations warring within the bosom of a single state." He advocated unification coupled with self-government and a deliberate policy of anglicization. In 1840 the Act of Union was passed; a nominated council and an elected assembly with equal representation to each of the two Canadas were granted with a view to a gradual assumption of self-government, which was recognized in 1842. In 1848 the Maritime Provinces of Nova Scotia and New Brunswick were granted self-government, and in 1851 Prince Edward Island. In 1886 the legislative council was made elective.

Internal dissension, provincial rivalries, and the need of co-operation for development, expansion westward and competition with the United States, led ultimately to a more complete union. This solution was advocated in 1791, when Dorchester had forwarded the Loyalist Smith's proposal to the colonial secretary, and again in 1841 by G. Brown. In 1854 the Nova Scotia legislature had passed a resolution in favour of union or confederation of the British provinces, and in 1858 Galt of Lower Canada carried the Union policy into the Cartier-Macdonald cabinet. In 1864 a conference, under the lead of Tupper, held at Charlottetown to discuss the union of the three Maritime Provinces, was enlarged to include representatives of Canada and removed to Quebec, where seventy-two resolutions were passed as a basis of discussion on the terms of union, a Canadian parliamentary committee under the chairmanship of Brown having reported in 1861 in favour of federation. Brown visited England and gained imperial approval; the proposal was

debated in the Canadian parliament and ultimately carried by three to one. In the end Macdonald and the convention representatives discussed the scheme in detail with the British cabinet in London. The plan was embodied in the British North America Act of 1867, confederating Canada, Nova Scotia, and New Brunswick. Newfoundland stood out in 1865, refused again in 1868, and apparently declined for ever to join in 1893, when her own terms were rejected by Canada. Prince Edward Island did not join until 1873, though British Columbia had done so in 1871.

The rest of Canadian history is one of consolidation and expansion. In 1869 the Hudson Bay Territory was bought by Canada, and the consequent Red River revolt crushed. In 1878 by an imperial order in council all British North America was annexed to Canada, save Newfoundland. The Inter-Colonial Railway was opened in 1876, and the Canadian Pacific Railway in 1886. A rebellion in the north-west was crushed in 1885, and the Alaska settlement in 1903 ended the boundary questions with the United States, leaving outstanding only the dispute with Newfoundland over Labrador, which was decided in 1927 in her favour by the Judicial Committee of the privy council. The Canadian constitution is an amalgamation of the British and American systems, representation being proportional to population in the Lower House and being according to states in the Upper.

The Canadian Senate was to consist of 72 members, 24 were from the three provinces of Quebec, Ontario, and the Maritime Provinces jointly, sitting for life, nominated by the governor-general, on an age (thirty years) and property ($4,000) qualification. The House of Commons was to consist of 181 (65 from Quebec, 82 from Ontario, 19 from Nova Scotia, and 15 from New Brunswick), elected for five years by the electors qualified to vote for provincial assemblies, on the same qualifications as for senators. The Senate could amend finance bills, while the governor-general could reserve bills for his majesty's consent, and even the governor-general's consent could be revoked within two years by the home government. Resting on an imperial act, only a similar act can amend the constitution; while in the case of a clash between the Houses additional senators can be created. Members of both Houses receive $4,000 a session. The Senate now consists of 96, 6 each having been added for British Columbia, Manitoba, Alberta, and Saskatchewan, while the 24 for the Maritime Provinces are elected, 10 each by Nova Scotia and New Brunswick, and the remaining 4 by Prince Edward Island. The House of Commons now consists of 245 (82 for Ontario, 65 for Quebec, 14 for Nova Scotia, 11 for New Brunswick, 17 for Manitoba, 14 for British Columbia, 4 for Prince Edward Island, 16 for Alberta, 21 for Saskatchewan, and 1 for Yukon. No property qualification is now necessary, and women have voted on an equality with men since 1921. Education is a provincial matter. The executive is vested in the governor-general and a privy council, which, by the custom of the constitution, is identical with the cabinet formed by the leader of the party having a majority in the Lower House. The various provinces are administered by lieutenant-governors, appointed by the governor-general, and have separate chambers of legislature. The Province of Canada proper in the Dominion of Canada consists of the two districts of Ontario and Quebec, each having a provincial government, vested, in the case of Ontario, in a lieutenant-governor, an executive council of 11, which is the ministry, and a legislative assembly of 111 members elected for four years; in the case of Quebec, in a lieutenant-governor, a legislative council of 21, and a legislative assembly of 86 members. Nova Scotia has a legislative council of 21 and an assembly of 43, which acts also for Cape Breton Island; New Brunswick a council of 8, and an assembly of 48; Manitoba a council of 6 and an assembly of 55; British Columbia a council of 7 and an assembly of 48; Prince Edward Island a council of 9 and an assembly of 30; Alberta of 8 and 60; Saskatchewan of 7 and 66; Yukon is governed by a gold commissioner and an elected council of 3. A Supreme Court of Appeal for the Dominion was established in 1875, but in virtue of the royal prerogative the judicial committee of the privy council can consent to hear appeals from its decisions. A direct appeal to that committee may also be made from the inferior Dominion and the provincial courts under certain conditions. The legal system in the older provinces is somewhat complicated, and in Quebec the old laws and customs of French Canada, founded on the jurisprudence of the Parliament of Paris, the edicts of the French kings, and the Civil Law, are still recognized by the courts for certain purposes. The area of the Dominion of Canada is about 3,700,000 square miles, and its population, which is increasing fast, is nearly nine millions, of whom two and a half millions are of French descent.

A. G. Bradley, "Canada," H.U.L., 1912; W. L. Grant, "History of Canada," 1919; G. Bryce, "A Short History of the Canadian People," 1914; Sir C. P. Lucas, "Historical Geography of the British Colonies," vol. v in 4 parts: Canada, part i, 1916; part ii, 1923; A. Shortt and A. G. Doughty, "Canada and its Provinces," 22 vols., 1913; J. G. Bourinot, "Canada Under British Rule, 1760–1900," 1901; F. Parkman, "France and England in America," 12 vols.; H. E. Egerton and W. L. Grant, "Canada's Constitutional Development," 1907; Sir C. P. Lucas, "History of Canada, 1763–1812," 1909, and "Lord Durham's Report," 3 vols., 1912; E. Porritt, "Evolution of the Dominion of Canada," 1918; R. G. Trotter, "Canadian Federation," 1924; "Statistical Year Book of Canada"; "Official Handbook to the Dominion of Canada"; B. Wilson, "Nova Scotia," 1912; R. Christie, "History of Lower Canada," 6 vols., 1866; R. Brown, "History of Cape Breton Island," 1869; H. P. Biggar, "Early Trading Companies of New France," 1901; D. C. Harvey, "French Régime in Prince Edward Island," 1926; J. C. Bracq, "Evolution of French Canada," 1924; G. M. Wrong, "Conquest of New France," 1920; R. Coupland, "The Quebec Act," 1925; A. G. Bradley, "Canada in the

Twentieth Century," 1906; for bibliographies see G. M. Wrong, "Writings on Canadian History," 21 vols., now continued in the "Canadian Historical Review." [H. R.]

Canberra, the federal capital of Australia, and the seat of the central government, situated about 200 miles from Sydney and 429 from Melbourne, began its official life on May 9, 1927.

Canning, Charles John, Earl (1812–1862), third son of George Canning, was born at Gloucester Lodge, Kensington. He was educated at Eton and Christ Church. In 1836 he was returned for Warwick, and remained a member of the House of Commons for six weeks. On the death of his mother, Viscountess Canning, in 1837, he succeeded to the title in consequence of the deaths of his two elder brothers. In 1841 he took office under Sir Robert Peel, as under-secretary for foreign affairs. In 1846 he became chief commissioner of woods and forests, and began to take a larger share in the business of the House. In 1848 he supported the Jewish Disabilities Bill; in 1850 he supported Lord Derby's resolution condemning Palmerston's foreign policy, and spoke against Lord John Russell's Ecclesiastical Titles Bill. In 1851 Derby offered him the foreign office, but he refused, feeling himself really a Liberal. In 1852 the coalition ministry of Lord Aberdeen came into office, and Canning became postmaster-general. This office he continued to hold under Palmerston. In 1855 he was appointed governor-general of India, in which capacity he had the task of quelling the Mutiny (q.v.). In 1858, on the termination of the Mutiny, he ordered the confiscation of all Oudh, though this was repudiated by the board of control. In the same year he issued the proclamation providing for the sole dominion of the Crown, and putting an end to the rule of the East India Company. The rest of Canning's administration was chiefly remarkable for the judicial reforms in 1860–1, the completion of many railways and canals, and the famine in the North-west Provinces, 1860–1. He died in June 1862, soon after his return to England.

Biography by Sir H. S. Cunningham, 1890.

Canning, George (1770–1827), was born in London, the son of a poor barrister. His mother, left in needy circumstances, went upon the stage, and afterwards married an actor. George was sent by his uncle, Stratford Canning, a London merchant, the father of Lord Stratford de Redcliffe, to Eton, where he had a brilliant career. Whilst at school he founded and contributed largely to a school magazine called *The Microcosm.* In 1788 he went to Oxford, where he attracted the attention of Pitt, and formed a close friendship with Jenkinson, afterwards Earl of Liverpool, which was of great service to him in later life. He was at this time a Whig, devoted to Fox and Sheridan, and inclined to look favourably on the French Revolution. On leaving Oxford, he at first went to the bar, but in 1794 was induced to enter parliament as member for Newtown, and as a follower of Mr. Pitt. He spoke frequently during his first years in the House of Commons, and always as a supporter of the ministry. In 1796 he became member for Wendover and under-secretary for foreign affairs. In the autumn of 1797 he published, in conjunction with John Hookham Frere, Jenkinson, George Ellis, and Gifford, a satirical paper called *The Anti-Jacobin.* Some of Canning's contributions have taken a permanent place in literature. In the year 1799 he laboured earnestly with Pitt to effect the union with Ireland, on the basis of giving equal political rights to the Roman Catholics. When this measure failed, owing to the persistent opposition of the king, Canning left the government with his chief. Pitt was succeeded by Addington, who was assailed by Canning with untiring ridicule. "Pitt is to Addington," he said, "as London to Paddington." In 1799 he married the daughter of General John Scott, who brought him a large fortune. In 1804 he returned to office, with Pitt as treasurer of the navy. On the death of Pitt in 1806, Fox came into office, and Canning had to retire. In March 1807 he took office, under the Duke of Portland, as minister for foreign affairs. In this capacity he executed the bold stroke of securing the Danish fleet lest it should fall into the hands of Napoleon (September 1807). He also organized the assistance given by England to Spain against Napoleon, which eventually tended more than anything else to effect the emperor's downfall. He could not agree with Lord Castlereagh, the secretary at war, and after the failure of the disastrous Walcheren expedition, for which Castlereagh had been largely responsible, resigned his office. Castlereagh became aware that Canning had intrigued against him with the Duke of Portland, and challenged him to a duel. They met at Putney, and Canning was wounded in the thigh. Canning's resignation of office was an event which long retarded his advancement. He remained a strong advocate of the emancipation of the Catholics. After the murder of Perceval in May 1812, Canning and Wellesley received the king's commands to form a ministry, but they were unable to come to terms with Grey and Grenville. Lord Liverpool became prime minister instead, and offered Canning the post of foreign secretary, which he refused. In 1814 he went as ambassador to Portugal. Two years later his impatience at being out of office led him to accept the post of president of the board of control in Lord Castlereagh's cabinet. In this ministry he was forced to sanction measures of repression of which he could not approve. He agreed with his colleagues in their dislike of parliamentary reform, but differed from them both with regard to the emancipation of the Catholics and the harsh measures adopted towards the Princess of Wales. During the trial which

followed at the accession of George IV, Canning travelled abroad and refused the home office offered him by Liverpool. In November 1820 he came to London, resigned office, and then returned to France. In 1822 the directors of the East India Company appointed him to succeed Lord Hastings as governor-general. He made all preparations for departure, and went down to Liverpool to take leave of his friends, when Lord Castlereagh (the Marquis of Londonderry, and secretary for foreign affairs) suddenly committed suicide. Canning gave up the brilliant prospect of the viceroyalty, and succeeded Londonderry. He now showed his resemblance to those British statesmen who, like Chatham and Palmerston, have been able to sympathize with the aspirations of foreign Liberals. He supported constitutional principles against the reactionary efforts of Metternich. He protested against the Congress of Verona, and against the intervention of France in the affairs of Spain. He opposed the policy of the Holy Alliance (q.v.). He was the first to recognize the independence of the Spanish colonies in America, when, as he said, he "called a new world into existence to redress the balance of the old." He protected constitutional government in Portugal, and effected the severance between Portugal and Brazil. He still longed anxiously for the emancipation of the Catholics, but this was temporarily hindered by the agitation of O'Connell, and was not effected until two years after Canning's death. He supported Huskisson in preparing the way for free trade, and laboured to effect the abolition of the slave trade. On the death of Lord Liverpool in February 1827, Canning became prime minister. His last act was to hasten the liberation of Greece by the Treaty of London, July 1827. He died on the following August 8. His death was felt as a shock to the whole of the civilized world, for he was the most prominent opponent of the system of reaction which was endeavouring to stamp out aspirations for liberty wherever they were found.

Canning's "Speeches," 6 vols., London, 1828; Stapleton, "The Political Life of the Rt. Hon. George Canning," 3 vols., 1831; and "George Canning and His Times," 1859; Canning's "Letters and Papers," edited by F. Stapleton, 1887; Lord Dalling's "Historical Characters"; H. W. V. Temperley, "Life of Canning," 1905, and "The Foreign Policy of Canning, 1822–7," 1925. [O. B.]

Canning, Stratford, Viscount Stratford de Redcliffe (1786–1880), was a cousin of George Canning. He was born in London, and educated at Eton and King's College, Cambridge. His career began with his appointment as a précis-writer at the foreign office under his cousin in 1807. He was present at Copenhagen (1807) as secretary to Merry, and at Constantinople (1808) as secretary to Adair, whose mission was successful in achieving a treaty of peace with the Porte in January 1809. Stratford Canning remained at Constantinople as British minister plenipotentiary pending the arrival of Adair's successor (Adair was transferred to Vienna in 1810). His task —in which he was left without instructions from home—was to destroy French influence at Constantinople, foster British trade in the Levant, and effect a reconciliation between Russia and the Porte. He was successful, and resigned his embassy to Liston just after the conclusion of the Peace of Bukarest (1812). His share in the treaty laid a foundation for British influence in Turkey: it also released the Russian army for service against Napoleon. In 1814 Castlereagh appointed him minister to Switzerland, in which capacity he played a prominent part in the drafting of the Swiss Confederation of 1815. On the death of his wife in 1817 he was recalled and transferred to Washington, where he had to deal with the ill-feeling produced by the British right of search. In 1823 he returned to London. Next year, after a short rest, he went on a special mission to sound the Tsar Alexander I as to a policy of Anglo-Russian co-operation in the Near East. His second mission to Constantinople began in October 1825, and was directed towards achieving the pacification of Greece and a reconciliation between Russia and Turkey. But he could not overcome the obstinacy of Mahmud II, nor the non-pacifist counsels of Prussia and Austria. He became isolated, as the only minister who wished for peace. Thus his influence was not sufficient to secure for the Turks mild terms at Ackerman in October 1826. After the battle of Navarino (October 20, 1827), which arose out of the allied admirals' action under the Treaty of London, Stratford and his French and Russian colleagues were dismissed by the sultan. They reassembled at Poros in September 1828 to investigate and report on the most satisfactory settlement to be achieved for Greece under the Treaty of London. And here Stratford's Philhellenism and his desire to see Greece safeguarded by a strong natural frontier caused him (against the intentions of the Wellington cabinet) to join his colleagues in offering, by the Poros protocol of December 12, 1828, terms far more comprehensive than Wellington would allow. He was therefore recalled in April 1829 and succeeded by Sir R. Gordon. On his return to England he sat in parliament until 1841, when the second period of his diplomatic career opened, his chief work during the interim being his mission to Constantinople in November 1831 to extend the Greek frontier according to the policy of Palmerston, and his abortive mission to Portugal in 1832 to compose the dispute between Dom Miguel and Dom Pedro. In 1842 he resumed the embassy at Constantinople, where he stayed for the next sixteen years, encouraging the reforms of Sultan Abdul Mejid and improving Anglo-Turkish relations. In 1852 he became Viscount Stratford de Redcliffe while on leave. And on his return to his post he was met by the crisis which terminated in the Crimean War. His influence

preserved a moderate tone in the Turkish replies to Menshikov's demands, and it was on his advice that the Porte rejected the Russian ultimatum and entered the war (July 2, 1853) in circumstances which reflect on Stratford the credit of having placed Russia in a morally unjustifiable position. At the close of the war he returned to England, and spent the remaining years of his life in retirement. His periodical essays on eastern politics were published as "The Eastern Question" in 1881.

His policy throughout his career in the East had been to preserve the integrity of Turkey with a view to restraining Russian ambition, and in order also to ameliorate the lot of the subject-populations in Turkey. He did not believe, however, that the Ottoman Empire could be preserved for long. Accordingly he welcomed the formation of Christian states throughout the Balkans capable of sustaining the Ottoman inheritance.

Lane-Poole, "Life of Stratford de Redcliffe," 1888; H. W. V. Temperley, "The Foreign Policy of Canning, 1822–7," 1925. [A. C. F. B.]

Canon Law. [Ecclesiastical Jurisdiction.]

Cantelupe, St. Thomas de (*d.* 1282), the nephew of Walter de Cantelupe, was a man greatly respected for his piety and learning. In 1265 he was appointed chancellor by Simon de Montfort, but relinquished the office in the same year, after the battle of Evesham. He is remarkable as being the last Englishman to be canonized before the Reformation.

Cantelupe, Walter de (*d.* 1266), was the son of William de Cantelupe, one of John's constant supporters. In 1231 he was appointed an itinerant justice. In 1236 he became Bishop of Worcester, when he boldly resisted the exactions of the pope and the king. He supported Simon de Montfort in the Barons' War, and was one of the twenty-four councillors appointed to watch the execution of the Provisions of Oxford, and he solemnly absolved the barons before the battle of Lewes. For the part he took in the contest he was suspended by Ottoboni and summoned to Rome, but died before he could set out.

S. Bateford, "Simon de Montfort," 1923.

Canterbury (Kent) was probably of small importance before the Roman occupation of Britain. By the Romans it was called Durovernum, a Latinized form of its Celtic name, which means the town of the rapid river. The fact that the Saxons called it the burgh of the Kentish men would show that it was the most important place in the province. Under the Anglo-Saxon kings it became the capital of Kent, and owing to this circumstance the first bishopric, and the metropolitan see, of England. The town was ravaged several times by the Danes, and almost destroyed by them in 1011. In 1067 the Danes burnt down the cathedral. It was rebuilt by Lanfranc and Anselm; but partially destroyed (including the choir) in 1174. It was rebuilt by William of Sens immediately afterwards. Important additions were made in the two following centuries, but it was not till 1495 that the great central tower was completed. Its importance was considerably increased after the canonization of Becket, when it became the principal centre of pilgrimage in England. It was at the time of Domesday Book part of the royal demesne, and was governed by a portreeve, as it had been before the Conquest, till the time of John, when two bailiffs were appointed, the right of electing the bailiffs being granted in 1256 by Henry III. A charter was granted by Henry VI, establishing a mayor and commonalty, and Edward IV extended the jurisdiction of the city, and formed it into a county. James I confirmed and enlarged these privileges. The city came under the operation of the Municipal Reform Act of 1835. It returned two members under Edward I and later, but since the act of 1885 has only one.

Dean Stanley, "Historical Memorials of Canterbury," ed. 1912; G. R. S. Taylor, "Story of Canterbury," 1912.

Canterbury, Archbishops of; See of. [Archbishops.]

Canterbury, Charles Manners-Sutton, 1st Viscount (1780–1845). [Manners-Sutton.]

Cantii, The, were a British tribe, occupying the extreme south-east of the island of Britain. From them is derived the modern county name of Kent. They were the most important of the peoples of south-eastern England; and from their proximity to Gaul they seem likewise to have been the most civilized of all the native tribes at the time of Cæsar's invasion.

Canton was first visited by the English about 1634. From 1689 to 1834 the East India Company had a monopoly of the trade with that port. In 1841, during the first China War, Canton surrendered to Sir Hugh Gough, and in the following year, by the Treaty of Nanking, foreigners were granted permission to settle in the town. In 1856, after the affair of the *Arrow*, war was declared between Great Britain and China, and Canton was bombarded. The bombardment led to an exciting debate in the House of Commons (beginning February 26, 1857), in which men of all parties strongly condemned the action of Palmerston's government; and a motion, proposed by Richard Cobden, was carried against the ministry by a majority of 16. Canton was occupied by the British and French in December 1857, and held, under British and French Commissioners, till October 1861. A British consulate was erected in 1865. Canton became prominent during the anti-foreign disturbances in China in 1926. It was involved in the general strike proclaimed in Shanghai in May of that year, and was the scene of bloodshed in June.

Canute (called Cnut in the English of his own day—a word that Pope Paschal II could not pronounce, and therefore Latinized into Canutus), King (*b.* c. 995, *s.* 1017, *d.* 1035), was the younger son of Sweyn, King of Denmark, and the first foreign conqueror of all England. Of his childhood little is known save that he is said to have been fostered by Thurkil the Tall, whom he later raised to high honours. His connexion with England began in 1013, when, being still a lad in years, he accompanied his father on the great expedition that forced the English to take Sweyn as their king, and drove Ethelred into exile. Young as he was, his father entrusted him with the command of the fleet and the care of the hostages when starting on his southward march from Gainsborough. But a few months later (February 1014) Sweyn ended his days; and the Danish host, with one voice, chose Canute as his successor. By his father's death he became, for a time, a landless viking, a splendid adventurer; for the English at once restored their native king to the throne, and the Danish crown fell to Sweyn's elder son Harold. Caught unprepared by a sudden march of Ethelred, Canute sailed away from Lindsey, cut off the hands, ears, and noses of the hostages, put the wretches ashore at Sandwich, and went off to Denmark. Next year (1015) he was back again at Sandwich with a powerful fleet and army. Coasting round to Poole Bay, he landed his men, and in a few months was master of Wessex. The first days of 1016 saw him in Mercia also. His burnings and ravagings soon compelled submission; at Easter he was getting ready to lay siege to London, the only part of England that still defied his power. But at this moment the death of Ethelred, and the accession of his vigorous son Edmund to the command of the national cause, gave a new turn to the conflict. Inside London, Edmund was chosen king; outside, Canute; and a fierce and chequered struggle between the rivals began. Edmund rallied the men of Wessex to his standard; there were two Danish sieges of London, both unsuccessful; five minor battles, four of which are given as English victories, one as doubtful; and one last great battle, that of Assandun (Ashington in Essex). This was a terrible, seemingly a crushing, overthrow of Edmund. But while the triumph assured Canute a kingdom in England, it failed to tear Wessex from the indomitable Edmund. On some little island in the Severn in the neighbourhood of Deerhurst (probably not, as usually asserted, at Olney), the rivals came together and agreed on a division of land between them, whereby Northumbria and Danish Mercia were assigned to Canute, while Wessex, and apparently also Essex, East Anglia, and English Mercia with the city of London remained with Edmund. This compact had, however, but a brief trial. On St. Andrew's day (November 30) Edmund died, not without suspicion of foul play; and in 1017 Canute was accepted as ruler of the whole kingdom. His first task was to secure himself against possible rivals. He slew Edwy, the one son of Ethelred who was within his reach; and sent the two little sons of Edmund to the court of Boleslav of Poland, there to be made away with; while by the execution of a number of magnates of doubtful loyalty, of whom the traitor Earl Edric of Mercia was one, he deprived the English cause of all effective leadership. Finally, to safeguard himself from the side of Normandy, Canute put away his Danish concubine Elgiva and married Emma, King Ethelred's widow, a lady many years his senior. He then turned to the settlement of the conquered kingdom; and, as a preliminary, levied in 1018 a danegeld of £82,000 with which he paid off the bulk of the Danish host, retaining only forty ships and their crews to constitute a standing bodyguard (*huscarls*). According to the Anglo-Saxon Chronicle, one of his earliest acts was to divide England for administrative purposes into four areas, of which he himself retained Wessex, while he bestowed East Anglia upon his foster-father and virtual lieutenant in the work of government—Thurkil the Tall; Northumbria upon his kinsman Eric; and Mercia, after the death of Edric Streona, upon Leofwine. It is clear, however, that Canute did not intend this quadripartite division of the realm to be final or permanent. The early charters of his reign are witnessed by no fewer than eleven earls, of whom the majority are Danes. The traditional view that Canute pursued from the outset a consciously pro-English policy has been challenged by Dr. L. M. Larson, his latest biographer, but it seems evident that, once the subjugation of the realm was complete, he adopted a definitely conciliatory attitude towards his new subjects. In 1018, at an assembly of magnates held at Oxford, it was agreed that Danes and Englishmen alike should be obedient to the laws of Edgar. The goodwill of the English Church was sedulously cultivated. Canute showed special veneration for English saints—particularly for St. Alphege and St. Edmund, the victims of his own countrymen—and was lavish in his gifts to English monasteries. The penalties imposed by his laws on offenders against ecclesiastical law were no less severe than those for secular offences. As his reign progressed the proportion of Saxons to Danes in his household and in the various administrative offices of the kingdom steadily increased. The earldom of Wessex, which Canute in 1017 had reserved for himself, was bestowed as early as 1020 upon the English Godwin, who came in time to enjoy a position analogous to that held by Thurkil at an earlier date. Godwin accompanied the king on many of his northern expeditions, and at home ranked as the first subject in the realm. The great Dane's idea of government is set forth in the letter which he addressed to the English people from Rome in 1027, promising to rule justly and piously

and to mete out justice to all with an even hand. It is not merely, however, as King of England, but as the founder of a great Northern Empire, that Canute deserves to be remembered. Harold's death in 1018 gave him Denmark, together with considerable possessions on the Baltic coast; Norway he conquered between 1028 and 1030, and with it he acquired a claim to the lordship of such of its dependencies as Iceland, Greenland, and the Orkneys. Sweden may be reckoned among his vassal kingdoms, and it is probable also that he exercised some sway over the Viking settlements of the Hebrides and Man, and on the Irish coast. Scotland gave him some trouble early in his reign, when Malcolm seized Lothian; but in 1027 Canute invaded Malcolm's territory, and compelled his submission and homage, although confirming him in possession of his earlier conquests. In this great empire, England, in virtue of her superior culture, held the pre-eminent place. English workmen were installed in Denmark to teach Canute's Danish subjects their handicrafts. English bishops were appointed to Danish sees, and a colony of English monks from Evesham was established at Odense; while so great a part was played by English missionaries in the evangelization of Norway that the Norwegian Church has been called "the daughter of the English Church." Among the princes of Europe Canute was held in high esteem; indeed, in his later days his power rivalled that of the Holy Roman Emperor himself. Through his mother he was connected with the ruling house in Poland; through his wife, Emma, and his sister, Edith, who married Duke Robert, he was allied to the ducal house of Normandy. His Baltic territories marched with those of the Emperor Conrad, whose coronation he attended at Rome in 1027, and whose son Henry (afterwards the Emperor Henry III) married the Danish king's daughter Gunhild. With the papacy no less than with the empire Canute was on friendly terms. During his pilgrimage to Rome he came to an understanding with Pope John XIX whereby, in return for the promise of the regular payment of Peter's pence and of all church dues, he secured better conditions for English pilgrims, the exemption of the English school at Rome from tribute, and the reduction of the payment exacted from the English archbishops for the *pallium*. That his reign was beneficial to England there can be little doubt. He not only gave peace and good government to the disordered realm of Ethelred, but, as master of both the North Sea and the Baltic, he opened up to his English subjects new avenues of trade and new sources of prosperity. Not without reason did the common folk cherish his memory, and enshrine it in legend and folk-lore.

Biography by L. M. Larson, 1912; also E. A. Freeman, "Norman Conquest," 1867–71.

Cape Breton Island lies east of Nova Scotia, with which it is now incorporated. It was first discovered by Cabot in 1497, but remained practically uninhabited until about 1714, when it was occupied by the French for fishing purposes. The town of Louisburg was built, and the French established a regular settlement on the island, which formed a convenient basis for hostilities against Nova Scotia. In 1744 an attack was made upon Port Royal, the capital of Nova Scotia, by de Quesnay, the governor of Cape Breton; the British, in retaliation, attacked and took Louisburg, and held Cape Breton until the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle in 1748. In 1758 Louisburg was again taken by the British under the command of Admiral Boscawen and General Wolfe, and all its fortifications destroyed. By the Treaty of Paris (1763), Cape Breton was made a British colony, and Sydney, its present capital, was founded in 1820. It was incorporated with Nova Scotia (1820), and has ever since that time remained a part of that province. [CANADA, DOMINION OF.]

J. G. Bourinot, "Historical Account of Cape Breton," 1892.

Cape Coast Castle. [WEST AFRICA, BRITISH DOMINIONS IN.]

Cape Colony. [SOUTH AFRICA, UNION OF.]

Capel, ARTHUR, EARL OF ESSEX (1631–1683), son of Arthur, Lord Capel, was created Earl of Essex in 1661, and became a leading member of the Country party in the reign of Charles II. From 1672 to 1677 he was lord-lieutenant of Ireland, and in 1679 he was appointed first commissioner of the treasury, but resigned before the end of the year. In 1683 he was concerned in the Rye House Plot (q.v.), and was arrested and committed to the Tower. But before his trial could come on, he committed suicide. Macaulay characterizes him as "a man of solid, though not brilliant parts, and of grave and melancholy character."

Capital Punishment, the infliction of the penalty of death for crime, by some properly constituted authority, existed in Saxon times in several forms: hanging, drowning, burning, beheading, stoning, etc. By the thirteenth century it had become the usual punishment for all treasons and felonies, with the exception of petty larceny. It was extended to heretics, and to all statutory felonies except those specially exempted. Its decline was due to the influence of the Church and the spread of Roman law; in particular, to the privilege of benefit of clergy (abolished 1827). Later the sentence of transportation for life to the newly-founded American settlements was substituted for the death sentence (Cromwell adopted a policy of transportation in his Irish campaign). The power of the courts to sentence felons to transportation endured until 1853 (16 & 17 Vict. c. 99). The severity of the criminal law

was meanwhile assailed by Goldsmith, Bentham, Mackintosh, and others, until the 180 capital offences existing in 1819 were considerably reduced by Peel. To-day there are only four offences punishable by death (exclusive of military and naval offences): high treason (Acts of 1814, 1842, 1889, and Treason Act of 1351), murder (24 & 25 Vict., c. 100, 1861), piracy with violence (Piracy Act, 1837), and destruction of public arsenals and dockyards (Protection Act, 1772). Since 1838 the penalty has in practice been inflicted for murder and treason (see CASEMENT, ROGER) only. And since 1868 the executions have not been public.

Oldfield, "The Penalty of Death," 1901; E. Roy Calvert, "Capital Punishment in the Twentieth Century," 1927. [A. C. F. B.]

Capitulations, treaties granted by a state conferring the privilege of extra-territorial jurisdiction within that state on the subjects of another state, have existed since the time of Haroun al-Raschid, originating in the principle that the sovereignty of a state covered only its own citizens and that citizenship was not to be extended to foreigners. The first capitulations granted in Europe were those of the Ottoman Empire to France in 1535. England obtained capitulations from the sultan in 1583, and shared with France from that date the protection of Europeans in Turkey. The system is in existence in several other countries. At present Great Britain enjoys capitulations in Abyssinia, China, Egypt, Morocco, and Persia; formerly also in Albania (till 1926), Crete and Greece (till 1914), Siam (till 1925), Tripolitana (till 1911), and Turkey (till 1923). The chief privileges secured by them are liberty of residence, freedom of travel, commerce and religion, and immunity from local jurisdiction. [A. C. F. B.]

Caradoc (CARATACUS) (*d.* c. 54) was a son of Cunobelinus, to whose kingdom he succeeded with his brother Togodumnus. It was on the petition of Bericus, their exiled rival, that Claudius dispatched the expedition of 43 to Britain. Togodumnus was defeated and slain by Aulus Plautius, but Caradoc escaped to South Wales. At the head of the Silures of the west, he carried on a struggle of many years against the Romans under Vespasian and Plautius. After sustaining frequent defeats, he was at length driven out of his own district and compelled to take refuge with the Brigantes, whose queen, Cartimandua (q.v.), delivered him up to Ostorius Scapula (A.D. 51 or 52). He was carried in chains to Rome, where his dignity and noble bearing are said to have induced the Emperor Claudius to order his release. His subsequent history is unknown.

Tacitus, "Annals," lib. xii, and "Hist.," lib. iii; Dio Cassius, lib. ix.

Carausius (*d.* 293), the Menagian, was a native of Flanders or perhaps of Ireland, and commander of the naval squadron stationed at Boulogne for the defence of the Channel against the Saxon pirates. In this capacity he managed to accumulate great wealth, and in 287 crossed to Britain, where he declared himself emperor. His talents enabled him to keep this position and maintain his power in Britain till 293, when he was murdered by his own officer, Allectus (q.v.).

Sir C. Oman, "England Before the Norman Conquest."

Carberry Hill (near Musselburgh) is the place where the forces of Bothwell and Queen Mary met those of the Confederate Lords, June 15, 1567. There was no actual collision, but Bothwell, seeing that his chances of victory were almost hopeless, made his escape, while Mary surrendered herself to Kirkcaldy of Grange.

Biographies of Mary Stuart.

Cardwell, EDWARD, VISCOUNT (1813–1886), was educated at Winchester, and Balliol College, Oxford, where he was elected fellow. He entered parliament in 1842 as member for Clitheroe. He supported Sir Robert Peel in the financial changes of 1845–6. He was secretary to the treasury, 1845–6, and president of the board of trade in Lord Aberdeen's administration. In 1859 he accepted the office of chief secretary for Ireland under Palmerston, and was chancellor of the duchy of Lancaster from 1861 to 1864, when he became secretary of state for the colonies. In 1868 he became secretary for war under Gladstone. In this capacity his name is associated with a very important reform of the British army. The increased demands of India, the striking success of the Prussian army reserve system in the war with Austria (1866) and the Franco-German War (1870–1), combined to suggest the need of an increased army reserve. Cardwell provided this by shortening the term of service to twelve years—six "with the colours," six in the reserve; and "linked" the existing battalions in pairs, assigning to each pair, as a recruiting-ground, some county or district with which they had usually a traditional connexion. A "military centre," or depot, was formed for each such district, and the militia and volunteers also associated with it. It was during his tenure of office (in 1871) that the purchase of commissions, after the House of Lords had refused to abolish it, was done away with by royal warrant. He completed the competitive system in the army. His reforms, which destroyed the historical associations of the old (numbered) regiments, were violently opposed, but have since been fully justified. In 1874 he resigned with his colleagues, and was made a peer.

Sir R. Biddulph, "Lord Cardwell at the War Office," 1904.

Carénage Bay, in St. Lucia. Here, in 1778, the French, under the Count d'Estaing, were defeated by the British, under Admiral Barrington and General Meadows.

Carew, Sir George (*d.* 1612), secretary to Sir Christopher Hatton, was sent by Elizabeth as her ambassador to Poland, 1598, and by James I to France, 1605–9. His "Relation of the State of France" was printed by Dr. Birch in 1749.

Carew, George, Earl of Totnes (1555–1629), son of George Carew, Dean of Windsor, served with credit in Ireland during his youth, and was entrusted by Elizabeth with a high command in the expedition to Cadiz (1596). The following year he accompanied Ralegh in his disastrous attempt on the Azores, and on his return was made president of Munster (1600). His government in Ireland was firm, and in 1601 he totally defeated a Spanish force which had landed at Kinsale. Two years later Sir George became governor of Guernsey, and in 1605 was made a peer by James I, being subsequently appointed master of the ordnance. He was created Earl of Totnes by Charles I as a reward for his military services.

R. Bagwell, "Ireland Under the Tudors," 1885–90.

Carew, Sir Peter (*d.* 1575), of Mohun Ottery, in Devonshire, spent his boyhood at the court of France, and on his return to England entered the service of Henry VIII. On the outbreak of the western rebellion, in 1549, Sir Peter and his brother were sent down to Devonshire with orders to crush the insurgents. They were, however, unable to make head against them until the arrival of reinforcements under Lord Russell and Lord Grey; in fact, the violence of the Carew party was said by Somerset to have widely extended the rebellion. After the defeat of the insurgents, Carew espoused the cause of Mary, whom he proclaimed in Devonshire (1553). Very soon afterwards, however, he joined the anti-Spanish party, and was entrusted with the task of raising Devonshire, while Sir Thomas Wyatt was to raise Kent. His action in the rebellion of 1549 had made him so unpopular with the country people, however, that he was unable to do anything effectual against the government, and was compelled to seek an asylum in France. He was intercepted and sent back—to the Tower, where he remained till 1556. In 1560 he was appointed one of the commissioners to negotiate the Treaty of Leith, and in the same year was entrusted with a mission to reorganize the army in Scotland. A few years later Sir Peter became one of the colonists of Munster, where many cruelties are attributed to him. He joined the expedition of Essex in 1575, but died the same year.

Carew's "Life," by John Hooker (or Vowell), was edited by Sir John Maclean, London, 1857; also R. Dunlop, "Ireland Under the Commonwealth," vol. i, 1913.

Carey, Henry, 1st Lord Hunsdon (1524 ?–96), cousin of Queen Elizabeth and one of her truest friends and most trusted advisers, was frequently employed on confidential missions, and filled many posts of trust. In 1564 he was sent to France to invest Charles IX with the Order of the Garter, but was usually in attendance on the queen at court. Vehemently opposed to the scheme of a marriage between Mary Stuart and the Duke of Norfolk, Hunsdon was sent to Scotland in 1569 with proposals for the delivery of the Queen of Scots into the hands of Moray, in order to get her out of the way of any movement in her favour on the part of the rebel lords. Later in the same year he was associated with the Earl of Sussex in the command against the insurgents of the north. In the beginning of 1570 he attacked the forces of Leonard Dacres on the banks of the River Chelt, in Cumberland, and completely routed them, doing such good service to the queen that Elizabeth wrote to him. In 1584 he was sent on a special mission to Scotland. During the alarm which held England in the days when the Spanish Armada was threatening, Lord Hunsdon had command of a body-guard of 36,000 men, enrolled especially for the queen's defence. A soldier rather than a statesman, he gave the queen frequent momentary offence by his plain speaking, but he remained till the end one of her most trusted supporters.

Cargill, Donald, one of the most extreme of the Covenanting clergy, was a chief promoter of the Sanquhar Declaration (q.v.), 1680. For having excommunicated Charles II and the Duke of York, he was, on his capture at Covington Mill, taken to Edinburgh and executed, July 2, 1681. [Cameronians.]

Caribbee Islands. [West Indies.]

Carleton, Dudley, Viscount Dorchester (1573–1632), was ambassador to the republic of Venice from 1610 to 1615, and to the United Provinces from 1615 to 1626. During the second parliament of Charles I he maintained the cause of the king in the House of Commons, and attached himself to the party of Buckingham. In May 1626 he was created Baron Carleton, and on July 25, 1628, Viscount Dorchester. Next year he was appointed secretary of state, and in that capacity advocated peace with France and alliance with the German Protestants. Clarendon says that his knowledge of "foreign employment, and the condition of other princes and nations," was combined with an utter ignorance of English institutions and temper.

Carleton, Henry Boyle, 1st Baron (*d.* 1725). [Boyle.]

Carlisle (Cumberland) seems to have been identical with the Roman station of Luguvallium, which is mentioned in the Itinerary of Antoninus, and from which it seems clear that the name has been derived—Caer-Luel. The town was sacked by the Danes in

the ninth century, after which it disappears from history, until we find it being rebuilt with a strong castle by William Rufus in 1092. It was held by the Scots during their tenure of Cumberland, and the beginning of the great church of St. Mary's is attributed to David I, King of Scotland. Subsequently it was frequently besieged in the course of the border wars, one of the most celebrated sieges being the unsuccessful one by William the Lion (1173). The place surrendered to Charles Edward in 1745, and the mayor and corporation proclaimed him king. The cathedral, begun in the reign of William Rufus, was partly destroyed by Cromwell in 1648.

M. Creighton, "Carlisle," 1887.

Carlisle, George William Frederick Howard, 7th Earl of (1802–64.) [Howard.]

Carlisle, Lucy Hay, Countess of (1599–1660). [Hay.]

Carlisle, The Statute of (1307), passed by Edward I in full parliament, after he had previously obtained the consent of the barons to it in 1305, was intended to prevent the drain of English gold to Rome by clerical exactions. It forbade the payment of tallages on monastic property, and rendered illegal other imposts by which money was to be sent out of the country. It was accompanied by a petition from the laity against abuses of the papal power in England. Since Edward was unwilling to quarrel with the pope, it was never acted upon, but it is most important as the precedent on which were based the Acts of Provisors and Præmunire and the whole series of anti-papal measures of the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries.

"Statutes of the Realm," i, 150.

Carmelites, The, were an order of friars, who received their name from the place of their origin—Mount Carmel in Palestine. They were popularly known, from the colour of their habits, as the White Friars. Their rule, which was based largely on that of St. Basil, was approved by Honorius III in 1224 and finally confirmed by Innocent IV in 1250. The order was introduced into England in 1240 by John Vesey and Richard Grey, crusaders returning from the East; and the first houses were established at Alnwick in Northumberland and Aylesford in Kent. At the time of the Dissolution there were about forty convents of Carmelites in existence in England. [Friars.]

Carnarvon, Earls of. [Herbert.]

Carnatic was the name formerly given to the district in south-eastern India extending along the Coromandel Coast. In the middle of the eighteenth century the country was governed by the Nawab of the Carnatic at Arcot. It was cut up, however, in the south by the Mahratta kingdom of Tanjore, the British and French settlements, and the almost independent districts of the Polygars of Madura, Tinnevelly, etc. It was feudally subject to the Viceroy, or Nizam, of the Deccan. In 1743 Anwar-ud-Din was appointed Nawab by the Nizam-ul-Mulk. On his death the succession was disputed between Chanda Sahib, who was assisted by the French, and Mohammed Ali, who was supported by the British. The latter succeeded in establishing their nominee as Nawab over the greater part of the Carnatic; but both he and his son, Omdat-ul-Omrah, who succeeded in 1795, failed to regain their independence. As a result of their correspondence with Tippoo Sultan (q.v.), Lord Wellesley determined on annexing the country. On the death of Omdat-ul-Omrah an arrangement was made (1801) with Azim-ud-Dowlah, his nephew, to the effect that the entire civil and military government of the state should be resigned to the company, and one-fifth of the revenue should be reserved for his support. On his death, in 1825, the title was continued to his infant son, and on the death of the latter, childless, in 1853, the title was extinguished.

Carne, Sir Edward (*d.* 1561), was a graduate of Oxford, where he became doctor of civil law in 1524. He was frequently employed as envoy to various foreign princes by Henry VIII. In 1530 he was sent by the king to Rome to argue against the citation of Henry to appear at the papal court. He frequently represented the English sovereign at Rome under Mary, and in the earlier years of Elizabeth's reign; but was finally detained by Paul IV at Rome, and compelled to become governor of the English hospital there. This was declared to be a gross violation of the privilege of an ambassador; but it is probable that Sir Edward, who disliked the religious changes of Elizabeth's rule, was a willing captive.

Carolina. [American Colonies.]

Caroline of Anspach, Queen (1683–1737), wife of King George II, was the daughter of John Frederick, Margrave of Brandenburg-Anspach. In the year 1705 she married Prince George of Hanover, over whom, in spite of his immorality, she maintained the greatest influence during his life. During the quarrels of her husband and his father she retained her influence over the first without forfeiting the esteem of the second. In 1727 she was crowned with her husband. When Walpole was displaced from power, at the commencement of the reign, she espoused his cause, being persuaded of his financial abilities, and attracted by the jointure of £100,000 a year he secured in her favour. She therefore persuaded the king that Compton was unfitted for the post of minister. During her life she continued the firm friend of Walpole, and upheld his policy of peace at home and abroad. She was deeply mortified when

he was obliged to relinquish his excise scheme. In 1737 she reprieved Porteous, who was condemned for firing on the crowd at Edinburgh. On the outbreak of the quarrel between Frederick, Prince of Wales, and her husband, she violently espoused the cause of the latter. In consequence, she and her son were on extremely bad terms, and the queen often expressed a wish for the prince's death. Her influence over the king continued unimpaired till the end of her life, and on her death-bed the monarch gave a rather curious testimony of it. The dying queen besought her husband to marry again. "Non," answered the sobbing prince, "j'aurai des maîtresses." "Oh, mon Dieu!" was the reply; "cela n'empêche pas." Caroline was a woman of considerable intellectual ability. She knew something of philosophy and theology, and affected the character of patroness of literature and poetry. She took creditable pains to get the higher posts in the Church filled by men of learning and character. She was a valuable ally of Walpole, and materially assisted him in carrying out his policy.

The best account of the queen is gained from Hervey's "Memoirs," 1884; also biography by W. H. Wilkins, 1901; Horace Walpole, "Memoirs," 1798.

Caroline of Brunswick, QUEEN, wife of George IV (1768–1821), was the daughter of Duke Charles William Ferdinand of Brunswick, who died after the battles of Jena and Auerstadt, 1806, and sister of Duke William Frederick, who was killed at the battle of Ligny, 1815. Her mother, Augusta, was daughter of Prince Frederick of Wales, and sister of George III. At the age of twenty-seven the princess was married to George, Prince of Wales, afterwards regent and king. A more unfortunate choice could not have been made. The prince was already married to Mrs. Fitzherbert, and although that marriage was considered void under the Royal Marriage Act, he was averse to contracting any other similar tie. The princess had been badly brought up, was clever, but uneducated and undisciplined, impulsive and indiscreet, with a good heart, but devoid of regulating judgment. The marriage took place on April 8, 1795. A daughter, afterwards Princess Charlotte of Wales, was born on January 7, 1796. Even before this the prince had treated his wife so badly as to call forth a remonstrance from his father. He now wrote, on April 30, 1796, to say that they were to live apart. This repudiation of his wife without any reason except personal dislike, within a year of their marriage, is sufficient to account for any conduct of which she might afterwards have been guilty. Matters remained thus for the next ten years. The princess lived quietly at Blackheath. In the year 1806 rumours were set afloat that the conduct of the princess had been improper. She always had a fancy for children, and before her death had adopted half a dozen. At this time she had with her a child named William Austin, and scandal said she was his mother. A delicate investigation was ordered, evidence was laboriously collected, and a report laid before the king. The report acquitted the princess of improper conduct, but seemed to fix upon her the charge of indiscretion. Assisted by Perceval and others, she vigorously defended herself, and was entirely acquitted by a minute of council in 1807. Princess Charlotte of Wales was heir to the crown. As a child she had been allowed to see her mother regularly, but as she was growing up the permission began to be refused. Canning and Brougham arrayed themselves on the side of Caroline. She had the whole force of popular opinion with her, for the prince was very much disliked, and the wrongs of the princess were calculated to touch the heart of the multitude. The queen took a strong dislike to her, and about 1813 she was forbidden to attend the royal drawing-room. In August 1814 she left England, with an allowance of £35,000 a year. She went first to Brunswick, and then to Switzerland and Italy. Her conduct was very eccentric and her suite gradually left her, upon which she fell into the hands of an Italian family named Bergami. She went to Jerusalem, and then returned to Italy, living at the Villa d'Este, on the Lake of Como. On January 29, 1820, George IV succeeded to the throne, and his wife assumed the title of queen. Before this a commission had been sent out to Milan to collect evidence of the queen's conduct during her sojourn at the Villa d'Este. The king ordered her name to be omitted from the Liturgy, and forbade royal honours to be paid her at foreign courts. The queen, finding herself thus treated at Rome, determined to come to England. Immediately after her arrival steps for bringing her to trial were taken. On November 6 a Bill of Pains and Penalties, the proceedings in connexion with which are popularly known as the queen's "trial," was passed in the House of Lords by a majority of twenty-eight, but on the third reading the majority was only nine, and it was withdrawn. The result was received with general delight throughout the country. On November 30 the queen went in procession to St. Paul's to return thanks for her deliverance from a great peril and affliction. In the next session of parliament she accepted a pension of £50,000 a year from the government, and from that time her popularity gradually declined. In 1821 George IV determined to be crowned with great pomp in Westminster Hall. The queen claimed, according to ancient precedent, to share the ceremony with him. At an early hour on the morning of the coronation she set out with a coach and six. She had no ticket of admittance, and was repulsed by the officials. As she retreated the jeers of the crowd followed her. This was on July 19, and she died on August 7. However much she may have been deficient in moral dignity, we may feel convinced

that there was no foundation for the grave charges brought against her character.

Spencer Walpole, "History of England since 1815," 1879; "The Greville Memoirs," 1874–87; G. Rose, "Diary," 1860; Duke of Buckingham, "Memoirs of the Court of the Regency"; biographies by Lewis Melville, 1912, and E. P. Clerici, 1907. [O. B.]

Carr, Robert, Earl of Somerset (*d.* 1645), was descended from the great border family of the Kers of Ferniehurst. As a boy he had served James VI as a page, and a short time after that monarch became King of England, Carr succeeded in attracting his notice and winning his favour. In 1611 his creation as Viscount Rochester made him the first Scotsman who took a seat in the English House of Lords. He became a privy councillor, and though without office and ignorant of business, he soon became the confidential minister of James. About 1613 he formed that connexion with Frances Howard, Countess of Essex, which resulted in her divorce from her husband, the imprisonment and murder of Sir Thomas Overbury (q.v.), her husband's confidant, and ultimately in her marriage with Carr (December 26), who was made Earl of Somerset (November 3) that the lady might not lose in rank. Somerset became the tool of the Howards, his wife's relations, and squandered the immense sums of money which flowed to him on every side. At last a courtiers' intrigue against him endangered a power precarious in its very nature. The circumstances attending Overbury's death were brought to light. The complicity of Somerset was thought to be involved in the ascertained guilt of his wife. He was convicted (1615), but after a long imprisonment was pardoned in 1622. He ended his life in an obscurity only broken by a Star Chamber prosecution in 1630.

P. Gibbs, "A King's Favourite," 1909.

Carr, William, 1st Viscount Beresford (1768–1854), a natural son of the first Marquis of Waterford, entered the army in 1785, and first saw active service at the siege of Toulon in 1793. In 1799 he went to India and took command of a brigade of Sir David Baird's army, which was on its way to oppose Napoleon in Egypt. In Egypt he remained as commandant of Alexandria till its evacuation, when he returned home, and was sent to Ireland. In 1805 he shared in the conquest of the Cape of Good Hope, whence he was dispatched as brigadier-general with a small force against Buenos Ayres, which he took, only, however, in turn to be compelled to surrender to an overwhelming force. After remaining a prisoner for six months, he managed to escape, and on his return to England was sent in command of an expedition against Madeira, of which, on its capture, he became governor. In 1808, with the rank of major-general, he joined the British armies in Portugal. In the spring of 1809 he was appointed marshal and generalissimo of the Portuguese armies, and proceeded to co-operate with the commander-in-chief. But in May 1811 he rashly engaged the French at Albuera, and by good fortune, rather than skill of his own, gained a victory. [Albuera.] In the campaigns of 1812 and 1813 he was second in command to Wellesley. In 1814 he was raised to the peerage and was immediately charged with an important mission to Brazil. In the year 1815 he was appointed to the command of the Portuguese armies by the King of Portugal, and for some time held that office, until he came into political conflict with the people, when he threw up his appointment, and returned to England in 1822.

Sir C. Oman, "Peninsular War," 1902–20; Clark, "Georgian Era"; biography by Mrs. S. Menzies, 1917. [W. R. S.]

Carson, Edward Henry Carson, Baron (*b.* 1854), was educated at Trinity College, Dublin, and became a Q.C. at the Irish bar in 1889, and an English K.C. in 1894. He was elected Unionist M.P. for Dublin University in 1892, and from 1900 till 1905 he was solicitor-general. His importance as a politician began in 1911 when he strongly resisted the Home Rule Bill and the Parliament Bill. He organized the resistance of Ulster to Home Rule, forming a volunteer corps and establishing the Ulster Unionist Council (1912). He joined the Asquith government of 1915 as attorney-general, until October of that year, and became first lord of the admiralty in the Lloyd George cabinet of December 1916. In July 1917 he entered the war cabinet. He was not in favour of the treaty which constituted the Irish Free State.

Carstares, William (1649–1715), was educated at Utrecht, where he became acquainted with William III. He was accused of being implicated in the Rye House Plot (q.v.), and was tortured at Edinburgh. After the Revolution he acquired great influence with William, to whom he acted as a sort of unofficial secretary for Scottish affairs. The king appointed Carstares his chaplain in Scotland. In 1703 he became principal of Edinburgh University, and was one of the active supporters of the Union. Carstares was a man of undoubted ability, and is honourably distinguished among the public men of his age by his firmness and honesty. A volume of his "State Papers and Letters" was published in 1774, and is of considerable value as illustrating Scottish affairs during the Revolution.

M'Cormick, "Life of Carstares," prefixed to the "State Papers"; Story, "Character and Career of William Carstares," 1874.

Carteret, John, 1st Earl Granville (1690–1763), eldest surviving son of George, Lord Carteret, early distinguished himself in the House of Lords by his defence of Whig doctrines and the Revolution settlement. He was sent as ambassador to Sweden in 1719, and to the Congress of Cambrai in 1720. In 1721 he was made secretary of state, and in

1724 lord-lieutenant of Ireland, which office he filled with great success. In 1730 he returned to England and became one of the most formidable opponents of Walpole. On the fall of that minister he became secretary of state (February 1742). He resigned office, however, in 1744 (November 23). He unsuccessfully attempted to form a ministry in company with Lord Bath in 1746. He succeeded to the earldom of Granville in 1744, and was appointed president of the council in 1751. He was a man of brilliant genius, and an accomplished scholar, but was deficient in steadiness of purpose and judgment.

Biography by A. Ballantyne, 1887.

Carthusians, The, one of the regular monastic orders, were an offshoot of the Benedictines, instituted at Chartreuse near Grenoble, by St. Bruno of Cologne, in 1086. The rule was based upon that of the Benedictines, but was much more rigorous and austere. Its members were vowed to fasting and the solitary life. Each had his separate cell, the monastery being composed of one or more courts round which these dwellings were arranged. The brethren met together only for the more solemn services; the lesser hours being said and meals, in general, taken by each monk separately. The Carthusians came into England about 1180; but they failed to make much way in the country. There were only nine monasteries of the order in England: the Charterhouse (the name, of course, is a corruption of Chartreuse) in London, and those at Witham (or Selwood), Hinton, Beauvale (or Gresley Park), St. Anne's Coventry, Kingston-upon-Hull, Mountgrace, Epworth (or Axholme), and Shene. There were no Carthusian nunneries in England.

M. M. Gorse, "St. Bruno," 1902.

Cartimandua was the queen of the Brigantes, from whom Caradoc (q.v.), after his defeat by the Romans (A.D. 51), sought shelter and assistance, and by whom he was treacherously betrayed to his enemies. According to Tacitus, Cartimandua quitted her husband, Venusius, and married his armour-bearer, Vellocatus. Venusius at the head of her outraged people drove her from her territories, and forced her to seek an asylum in the camp of the Romans, who marched into the district and took possession of it.

Tacitus, "Annals," xii, 36, 40; "History," ii, 45.

Cartwright, Thomas (1535–1603), the leader of the Church of England party in Elizabeth's reign which advocated the abolition of Episcopacy, was educated at Cambridge, whence he was compelled to withdraw during the Marian persecution. On the accession of Elizabeth he returned, and acquired great reputation as a preacher, becoming so active a supporter of a Presbyterian polity and so determined an opponent of Episcopacy that he was prohibited from occupying the pulpit, and expelled from the university. In 1572 he published his "Admonition to the Parliament" (q.v.), and was drawn into a long controversy with Archbishop Whitgift. In 1584 he was imprisoned by order of Bishop Aylmer, but released by the queen. In 1590, after the death of his patron, Leicester, Cartwright was examined by the Court of Star Chamber, and sent to the Fleet Prison, "for setting up a new discipline and a new form of worship," remaining in confinement for nearly two years.

R. G. Usher, "Reconstruction of the English Church," 2 vols., 1910.

Carucage was a tax on the hides or carucates of the Domesday assessment, and was first imposed over the whole country by Richard I in 1198, when the tax was five shillings. John, in the first year of his reign, fixed it at three shillings. A carucate was originally as much land as could be ploughed by one full plough team of eight oxen in a season, but it afterwards became fixed at one hundred long acres, or one hundred and twenty acres.

S. K. Mitchell, "Studies in Taxation Under John and Henry III."

Cary, Henry, 1st Viscount Falkland (*d.* 1633), was lord deputy of Ireland between 1622 and 1629. His inquiry into defective titles, and transplantation of many native septs in favour of English settlers, were among the causes of the rebellion of 1641. But his comparatively mild government was ill adapted to carry out Charles I's policy, and he was removed to make room for Strafford.

Cary, Lucius, 2nd Viscount Falkland (1610–43), son of the preceding, was educated at Dublin, and served in the Low Countries. Returning to his seat of Great Tew, in Oxfordshire, he gathered round him there, and at the neighbouring university, a small band of liberal theologians. In 1640 he entered the Long Parliament. A devoted lover of constitutionalism, and an opponent of arbitrary power in any shape, Falkland had no sympathy with the government of Strafford and Charles; but he believed that the royal government might be amended or reformed. He accordingly became the leader of that Parliamentary Royalist party which almost succeeded in preventing the passage of the Grand Remonstrance. He very unwillingly joined the war on the Royalist side, and almost courted the death he met at Newbury. His personal gifts, liberal spirit, and relations to the parties of his time, invest his career with unusual interest.

Biographies by T. Longueville, 1897, and Sir John Marriott, 1907.

Casement, Roger David (1864–1916), a member of the British consular service, was executed at Pentonville on August 3, 1916, for treason, having attempted in Berlin to form a brigade from among Irish prisoners of war and to use them against Great Britain in the Great War. He was captured on his way

from Germany to Ireland, where his intention was to have aided a rising at Easter 1916.

Cashel, The Synod of (1171), was a great assembly of the Irish Church, attended by all the archbishops and bishops. The ecclesiastical disorders, which had formed one at least of the causes which led to the papal grant of the sovereignty of Ireland to Henry II and to the latter's invasion were condemned. Thus the marriage of the clergy was forbidden, the tithe system established, the appropriation of benefices by laymen and levying of coshery on the clergy abolished, and the observance of the degrees of affinity in marriage enforced. In other ways, too, the Roman discipline and the authority of the pope were recognized.

G. Orpen, "Ireland Under the Normans," 1911–20.

Casket Letters, The, are a celebrated collection of documents, supposed to be the correspondence between Bothwell and Mary Stuart. Bothwell left in Edinburgh Castle a casket containing some papers, for which he sent after his flight from Carberry Hill. His messenger was intercepted whilst returning, and the casket and its contents fell into the hands of the Earl of Morton. On a letter from the queen to Bothwell contained in it, the charge that she was an accomplice of Darnley's murder was founded. The letters were laid before the Scots council of government, and the Scots parliament adjudged the charge proven (December 1567). They were again produced before the English commissioners at Westminster, and compared with other writings of the queen's, with which they corresponded (December 1568). The letters descended from one Scottish regent to another, and finally passed into the hands of the Earl of Gowrie. After his execution (1584) they disappeared. They had, however, been translated into different languages and published. Mary continually asserted them to be forgeries, and demanded first to see the originals, then to be provided with copies. Neither of these requests was granted. An argument in favour of the theory that the letters were forgeries is furnished by the fact that the two most criminatory letters were evidently originally written in Scots, and the copies published were a translation of this Scots original into French. But Mary, until after her flight into England, always used the French language in her letters. Therefore the conclusion is that she could not have written these letters. But the question of the genuineness of non-existent documents is naturally difficult to solve. Amongst English historians, Froude, Burton, and Laing believe the letters genuine; Caird and Hosack take the opposite view. Of foreign writers on the subject, Ranke, Pauli, Mignet, and Gaedeke accept the letters, whilst Schiern, Philippson, Gauthier, and Chantelauze deny their authenticity.

Gauthier, "Marie Stuart," 1869; Mignet, "Marie Stuart," 1851; also T. F. Henderson, "Casket Letters," 2nd edition, 1890 (which examines all the evidence, discusses the opinions of older historians, and pronounces the letters to be genuine. It also contains translations of the letters, and reports of the proceedings of the privy council relative to them). See also Andrew Lang, "The Mystery of Mary Stuart," 4th edition, 1904; art. *Casket Letters*, in the "Encyclopædia Britannica," 13th edition. On the other side, see S. Cowan, "Mary Queen of Scots and Who Wrote the Casket Letters?" 1901 (which ascribes the letters to Maitland, Buchanan and others, inspired by Moray and Morton).

Cassiterides, The, or Tin Islands, mentioned by Herodotus, and alluded to by Polybius and other early writers, are often identified with the Scilly Isles; but under the name Cassiterides it is very probable that the adjacent parts of Devon and Cornwall were included if not the British islands generally. [Scilly Islands.]

T. Rice Holmes, "Ancient Britain."

Cassivellaunus (Caswallon), at the time of Cæsar's second invasion of Britain (54 B.C.), was chief of the Catuvellauni (q.v.), a tribe occupying the area north of the Thames; and had shortly before usurped the sovereignty of the Trinobantes and murdered the lawful king. The Roman invasion drove the tribes of the south-east of Britain to form a league, at the head of which Cassivellaunus was placed. For a short time he succeeded in repelling the Romans, but his stronghold (perhaps Verulamium) being captured, and the other tribes deserting him, he submitted to Cæsar. He gave up the country of the Trinobantes to Mandubracius, son of the late king, and contented himself with keeping his own domains. After the departure of Cæsar we hear nothing more of Cassivellaunus.

Sir C. Oman, "England Before the Norman Conquest."

Castillon, The Battle of (1453), was the last engagement in the Hundred Years' War between England and France. In 1452 the Gascons rose against the French, and besought aid from England. Talbot, Earl of Shrewsbury, was sent out, and was at first very successful. In July 1453, hearing that the French were besieging Castillon, a fortress on the Dordogne, he marched with a small force to relieve it, but the French were stronger than he imagined, and he was defeated and slain. With his death all the hopes of the English were at an end.

Sir C. Oman, "England and the Hundred Years' War," 1898.

Castlebar Races (1798). The name given to the engagement fought near Castlebar on August 27, 1798, during the French raid on Ireland. Generals Lake and Hutchinson, with 2,000 Irish militia, a large body of yeomanry, and Lord Roden's fencibles, advanced against General Humbert, who had landed at Killala on the 20th of the month. Humbert had with him 1,017 French troops, and about 1,000 of the Irish rebels. The militia, however, would not stand their ground, and at once ran; and the yeomanry following,

Lake's guns were taken, and Roden's horse were unable to save the day. Of Lake's men 53 were killed and 34 wounded; the French loss was heavier, but they took 9 guns and 200 prisoners, and the town of Castlebar fell into the hands of the insurgents, with whom it remained for about a fortnight, till the surrender of Humbert at Ballinamuck, on September 9.

P. F. Kavanagh, "Rebellion of 1798," 1913.

Castlereagh, Robert Stewart, Viscount (1769–1822). [Stewart.]

Castles, of which there are remains of nearly 500 in England alone, belong chiefly to the period between the Norman Conquest and the middle of the fourteenth century. It is true that strong places were fortified by Alfred and his successors; but these would rarely be more than a mound and a ditch, with wooden tower and palisade; and Domesday, which mentions 49 castles, gives only one stone castle, viz., Arundel, as existing under the Confessor. They were a Norman product, even when, as at Hereford and Warwick, strong earthworks in place of masonry show that the Norman builder used an existing English fortress. They are identical in type with the great castles of Normandy, and keep pace with them in development. Thus the essential point of the Norman castle is the massive rectangular keep, with walls as much as 20 feet thick, and, as at Rochester, over 100 feet high, with its stairs, chapel, chambers, kitchen, well—making it complete in itself as a last resort. The base court in the castles built immediately after the Norman Conquest (e.g., Oxford, London, Newcastle) was for some years left to the protection of a stockade. When this was replaced by circuit walls, with a strong gatehouse, we have complete the Norman system of fortification by solid works of great passive strength. The "Edwardian" castle (e.g., Carnarvon) exhibits a system, which completely superseded this, of concentric works, with skilful arrangement of parts, so as to include a far larger area. Such a castle as Bamburgh could accommodate a large garrison with stores, horses and cattle, and could be stormed only in detail. The duke in Normandy had exercised the right of holding a garrison in the castles of his barons, and the Norman kings of England jealously maintained the requirement of a royal licence for their erection. Of the 49 in Domesday, 30 were built by the Conqueror himself. In the anarchy of Stephen's days, 375 were built, or, according to Ralph de Diceto, 1,115. Henry II, on his accession, had to besiege and recover for the Crown the "adulterine" castles; and after the revolt of 1173 it became a definite policy of the Crown to keep down their number, and have a voice in the appointment of castellans. One of the first steps of the barons of 1258 was to substitute nineteen of themselves for the alien favourites as guardians of the royal castles, and the last stand of the defeated party was made in de Montfort's castle of Kenilworth from October 1265, to December 1266. After this the castles ceased to be a menace to royal power. The Edwardian castles were chiefly national defences on the coast or the Welsh and Scottish Marches. The number of licences to "crenellate and tenellate" rises to its height in the reigns of Edward II and Edward III; the Commons in 1371 even petition that leave to do this may be given freely for all men's houses and for the walls of boroughs. But these were castellated mansions rather than true castles. In them the keep sinks to a guard-house, the walls are less solid, the windows are adapted to convenience rather than defence. However, under the Stuarts such fortified mansions proved capable of standing a siege. But the last castles are not later than Tudor times, and even the "Peil" towers, for defence against the Scots, fell into ruin after the union of the kingdoms. The castles had been a heavy cost and trouble to the Crown. Bridgnorth alone had cost in repairs £213 during Henry II's reign; the constable of Bridgnorth besides was paid 40 marks salary; and the jurors of 1258 declared it required £20 a year to keep it up in time of peace. The duty of castle guard, at the rate of forty days' service for a knight's fee, commuted often for a mark on the fee, was a burden vexatious both to nobles and gentry. Some castles, like Lancaster and Richmond, were associated with a quasi-royal jurisdiction over the district. In others the lords would be only too ready to arrogate such rights. Many, no doubt, like Bridgnorth, served as centres of tyranny, even when in royal hands. And this tendency probably accounts for the frequent changes made by the Crown in the persons chosen as royal constables, and for the fact that Edward I found it necessary, even after Henry II's determined assertion of royal rights, to make the *Quo Warranto* inquiry into the jurisdictions claimed by each of his barons. It is only by closely tracing the local history of some one great castle that the justice can be realized of Matthew Paris's description of them as "nests of devils and dens of thieves," or the bitter words of the contemporary English monk of Peterborough on the castles of Stephen's reign:—"They filled the land full of castles, and when they were finished, filled them with devils and evil men; . . . then they tortured men and women for their gold and silver; . . . then plundered they and burned all the towns: . . . they spared neither church nor churchyard; . . . they robbed the monks and the clergy; . . . the earth bare no corn; the land was all ruined by such deeds; and it was said openly that Christ slept and His saints." The castles of England, on many sides, illustrate the national history. Berkeley has its story of royal tragedy, Kenilworth of constitutional struggle, Carlisle of border romance. The names of Mont-

gomery and Balliol and Granville recall the baronial families who brought into England the titles of their Norman castles. And the immense households which the later spirit of chivalry gathered together into Alnwick, or Lancaster, or Warwick, made the castle of the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries a local centre of vast social influence, even when the days of its military and constitutional domination had passed away.

G. T. Clark, "Mediæval Military Architecture in England," 2 vols.; C. W. C. Oman, "Art of War in the Middle Ages," 2 vols.; F. P. Barnard, "Companion of English History" revised under the title of "Mediæval England," by H. W. C. Davis, 1924; The "Victoria County History"; Royal Commission on Historical Manuscripts; Hamilton Thompson, "Military Architecture in England During the Middle Ages," 1912; F. M. Stenton, "Development of the Castle in England and Wales," 1910; Armitage, "Early Norman Castles of Great Britain," 1912.

[A. L. S.]

Caswallon. [CASSIVELLAUNUS.]

Cateau-Cambrésis, THE TREATY OF (April 2, 1559), was concluded between France, Spain, and England after the accession of Elizabeth. The chief difficulty in bringing about the peace had been the question of Calais, which the French were determined to retain. Finally it was arranged that the French should keep the town for eight years, and then restore it. The French gave up their claims on Milan and Naples; they also agreed to evacuate and raze the fortresses they had built on the Scottish border, and to give substantial bonds for the restitution of Calais. The dauphin and dauphiness were to confirm the treaty, and to agree to recognize Elizabeth's right to the English crown.

The treaty is given in Rymer, "Fœdera," xv, 505.

Catesby, WILLIAM (*d.* 1485), one of Richard III's councillors, was chancellor of the exchequer in 1483 and Speaker of the House of Commons in 1484, and seems to have owed his rise to Lord Hastings, of whom he was at first a close follower, though he afterwards deserted his cause when Hastings fell under the displeasure of Richard. He was taken at the battle of Bosworth and put to death by the orders of Henry VII. The three principal advisers of Richard III—Catesby, Sir Richard Ratcliff, and Lord Lovel—are held up to opprobrium with him in the well-known contemporary rhyme:—

"The Cat, the Rat, and Lovel our Dog,
Rule all England under a Hog."

J. Gairdner, "Richard III," 1878 and 1898.

Cathedral is properly the chief church of the diocese, in which the bishop's seat or throne was established. The ecclesiastical organization on the continent generally followed the lines of the political organization of the Roman Empire. The province usually became the diocese, and the church of the provincial capital became the seat of the bishop. England, however, was mainly evangelized by missionaries who lived together under monastic rules; hence many of the English cathedrals—e.g., Worcester—were originally monastery churches, over which a bishop was set. In other cases the bishop was set over a district, and chose his own cathedral church. Hence the bishops' seats were frequently changed, till after the Norman Conquest they were ordered to be fixed in cities and walled towns. Thus, among others, the older cathedrals of Sherborne, Selsey, and Dorchester gave place to those of Salisbury, Chichester, and Lincoln. [Occasionally two churches jointly shared the distinction of containing the bishop's "cathedra," as in the case of Bath and Wells or Coventry and Lichfield. Such churches are said to be con-cathedral in relation to each other.] English cathedrals were of two classes, according to their origin. The clergy attached to them were in some cases monks, in others secular canons. In the first case the bishop reckoned as abbot of the monastery, in the second case he was the head of his chapter. In both cases, however, the secular and official duties of the bishop tended to sever him from his cathedral, and the chapter took possession of it. The dean became more powerful than the absent bishop, who was gradually driven from his own church, and retained little save a visitatorial power over his chapter. The annals of most mediæval episcopates are full of the quarrels between the bishop and the monks or chapter, leading to constant appeals to Rome and a diminution of the episcopal authority. In the reign of Henry VIII, after the suppression of the monasteries, the monastic cathedrals were remodelled. These "cathedrals of the new foundation" are Canterbury, Carlisle, Durham, Ely, Norwich, Rochester, Winchester, and Worcester. The bishoprics founded by Henry VIII—Bristol, Chester, Gloucester, Oxford, Peterborough, and Westminster—were provided with cathedrals after the same model. Westminster, though it lost its bishop, has retained its dean and its position as a collegiate church. In recent times many new bishoprics have been founded, and the bishop's seat established in old collegiate and parish churches, which have been turned into cathedrals. [At Liverpool (cr. 1880) a fine new cathedral, which is one of the most interesting specimens of modern ecclesiastical architecture, was founded in 1926.] [CHAPTER.]

See Series of Cathedral Guide-books, etc.

[M. C.]

Catherine of Aragon, QUEEN (1485–1536). [KATHARINE.]

Catherine of Braganza, QUEEN, wife of Charles II (1638–1705), was the daughter of John, King of Portugal. She was married to Charles II in 1662. Her married life seems not to have been happy, owing to her husband's infidelities and the harshness and neglect with which he treated her. She mixed very little in politics, and, though a sincere Roman

Catholic, never made any real attempts to get Romanism re-established in England. Notwithstanding this, she was accused by Titus Oates of plotting against the king's life, but the informer's equivocations were detected by Charles, and the charge was dropped. After her husband's death she lived quietly in England till 1692, when she returned to her native country, where she spent the rest of her life.

Biography by L. C. Davidson, 1908.

Catherine of France, QUEEN, wife of Henry V (1401–37), was the daughter of Charles VI. In 1420 she was married to Henry V, in accordance with the terms of the Treaty of Troyes. By him she had only one son, Henry VI, who was born in 1421. Subsequently she took for her second husband Owen Tudor, a poor Welsh gentleman attached to the court. This second marriage was strongly resented in England, and was never acknowledged by Henry VI. By Owen Tudor Catherine had three sons, the eldest of whom, Edmund Tudor, was the father of Henry VII. [TUDOR, FAMILY OF.]

Biographies of Henry V.

Catherine Howard, QUEEN, fifth wife of Henry VIII (*d.* 1542), was the daughter of Lord Edmund Howard, the son of the Duke of Norfolk. Educated under the care of the Dowager Duchess of Norfolk, she early developed a taste for levity and frivolity. Henry VIII was captivated by her beauty and vivacity, and married her, July 28, 1540. But the levity which had marked her before her marriage continued afterwards, and there can be little doubt that she was guilty of improper conduct with at least one of her former lovers, Dereham. In November 1541 she was charged with adultery, and sent to the Tower. On December 10 two of her paramours, Dereham and Culpepper, were beheaded. In 1542 a Bill of Attainder against her was passed; and on February 13 of that year she was executed. Immediately afterwards a bill was passed making it high treason for any woman whom the king married or sought in marriage to conceal any questionable circumstances in her past life.

M. Hume, "Wives of Henry VIII," 1927.

Catherine Parr, QUEEN, sixth wife of Henry VIII (1512–48), daughter of Sir Thomas Parr, was connected by birth with the Nevilles and other great families. She was carefully educated, and married, at an unusually early age, to Edward Borough, who left her a widow, and in her sixteenth year she was married, for the second time, to John Neville, Lord Latimer, with whom she lived happily for several years. During this period she became greatly attached to the doctrines of the Reformers. Lord Latimer died in 1542, and Catherine was besieged by many suitors. She was beautiful, and famed for her accomplishments, and her husband's death had left her in possession of one of the finest properties in the kingdom. The most favoured of her suitors was Sir Thomas Seymour, who, however, prudently withdrew his pretensions when the king cast his eyes upon the lady. In July 1543 she was married to Henry, and this, unlike the king's previous matrimonial alliances, excited no dissatisfaction among any class of his subjects. In the very difficult position of queen she acted with great prudence. She ministered to the growing bodily infirmities of the king, and endeared herself to his children. But there is no doubt that she was a sincere and, as far as prudence allowed her, an active supporter of the Reformers. In spite of her great caution, Henry conceived a mistrust of her theological learning, and was prevailed upon by Bishop Gardiner to sign articles of impeachment against her, and to order her arrest; but Catherine's skilful management succeeded in averting the danger. It is probable, however, that Henry was meditating a fresh charge of treason against her when he was overtaken by death. Almost immediately after this event Catherine married her former suitor, Sir Thomas Seymour of Sudeley, the lord high admiral. Her husband, however, neglected her, and had obviously fixed his affections on the Princess Elizabeth. The union was unhappy, and on September 7, 1548, she died in child-birth. From some words spoken by Catherine during her last illness, it has been supposed that Seymour poisoned her; but there is no evidence to confirm the suspicion. Catherine was the author of a volume of "Prayers and Meditations," and a tract called "The Lamentations of a Sinner," which is written with a good deal of vigour, and in parts with some genuine eloquence.

A. F. Pollard, "Henry VIII," 1902; M. Hume, "Wives of Henry VIII," 1927.

Catholic Association, THE, was founded by Daniel O'Connell (q.v.) in 1823. It embraced all classes, and was really representative in character, though not nominally so. It received petitions, appointed committees, ordered a census of the Catholic population, and collected the "Catholic Rent." This was a subscription raised all over Ireland by means of officers called wardens, appointed by the association. O'Connell managed all the money that came in, without accounting for it to anyone. In 1825 parliament attempted to put down the association by means of the Convention Bill, but the association was dissolved itself before the bill came into force. This, however, was merely in appearance; as a matter of fact, it continued to exist, and the Catholic Rent was still raised. In 1829, after the victory won at the Clare election, the Convention Bill having expired, the old association was renewed, and it declared that none but Catholics should in future be elected for Irish constituencies. The members also began to assemble at monster meetings, to which they marched in military array; but

a proclamation against these meetings was obeyed by the association. When the Emancipation Act was passed (April 10, 1829) it was accompanied by a measure for suppressing the association. But, its object being fulfilled, the association was dissolved before the bill became law. Sheil and Wyre were the leaders, next to the "Liberator" himself.

B. Ward, "Eve of Catholic Emancipation," 1911.

Catholic Committee, The, was an association of some of the leading Catholics in Ireland, which was established in the reign of William III, and was intended to watch over Catholic interests. The committee became extremely active during the agitation of the last quarter of the eighteenth century. In 1791 there was a split in the committee, the bishops and the noblemen, like Lord Fingal and Lord Kenmare, separating from the more violent party; the latter pressed for instant emancipation, while the former were willing to wait. The violent party determined on a convention, and on an alliance with the United Irishmen, under Byrne and Keogh. The consequence was the Back Lane Parliament (q.v.). Meanwhile, however, the committee itself, after a hot debate, accepted the Relief Bill of 1793, and the Back Lane Parliament dissolved. But from this time the moderate party lost influence, and in 1798 the committee dissolved itself. In 1810 and 1871 it was reconstituted, and reassembled for a short period. [Catholic Emancipation.]

B. Ward, "Eve of Catholic Emancipation," 1911.

Catholic Emancipation. In the reign of William III various statutes had been passed against the Roman Catholics which forbade them to hold property in land, and subjected their spiritual instructors to the penalties of felony. These acts had ceased to be applied, but they were a blot upon the statute book, and served as a temptation to informers. In 1778 an act, brought in by Sir G. Savile, repealed these penalties with general approval. These acts did not apply to Scotland, but it was contemplated to repeal similar enactments which still disgraced the Scots statute book. This stirred up fanaticism in Edinburgh and Glasgow in 1779; riots took place in the Scottish capital, and the houses of Roman Catholics were attacked. A Protestant Association was established in Scotland, and Lord George Gordon, who was more than half a madman, was chosen as its president. The association spread to England, and a branch was established in London, and in consequence the disturbances known as the Gordon Riots (q.v.) broke out. In 1791 John Mitford brought in a bill for the relief of "Protesting Catholic Dissenters"—that is, Roman Catholics who protested against the pope's temporal authority, and his right to excommunicate kings and absolve subjects from their allegiance, and the right of not keeping faith with heretics. Fox opposed the measure on the ground that relief should be given to all Roman Catholics. Pitt expressed similar sentiments. The bill was altered during its progress, and at last it passed in a form which allowed Roman Catholics who took an oath of allegiance to secure to themselves freedom of education, of holding property, and of practising the profession of the law. It also allowed Catholic peers to approach the king. Roman Catholics were still worse off in Ireland. Their public worship was proscribed; they were excluded from all offices in the learned professions; they were deprived of the guardianship of their children; if they had landed estates they were forbidden to intermarry with Protestants. In 1792 some of the worst of these disabilities were removed by the Irish parliament, and in 1793 this relief was further extended. [Back Lane Parliament; Catholic Committee.] The restraints on worship and education, even the disposition of property, were removed; Catholics were admitted to vote at elections on taking the oath of allegiance and abjuration; they could hold some of the higher civil and military offices, and could enjoy the honours and endowments of the University of Dublin. In the same year a similar bill was passed for the relief of Scottish Roman Catholics. In 1799, when the union with Ireland was in contemplation, Pitt intended to admit Irish Roman Catholics to the parliament of the United Kingdom. But George III was strongly opposed to this step, and would not allow his minister to give any direct pledge. When Pitt attempted, after the Union, to carry out his tempered scheme of relief, the king refused his consent, and Pitt resigned office. After this the question slept, but in 1803 the Catholics obtained a further slight measure of relief on condition of subscribing the oath of 1791. In May 1805 Lord Grenville moved for a committee of the whole House to consider a petition from the Roman Catholics of Ireland; but his motion was negatived by a majority of 129. A similar motion was made by Fox in the House of Commons, but it was lost by a majority of 112. In 1807 an attempt was made by the ministry to admit Roman Catholics in Ireland to the higher staff appointments of the army. This attempt they were obliged by the king to abandon, and as his Majesty went on to require from them a written declaration that they would propose to him no further concession to the Catholics, they were obliged to resign. Their successors, under the Duke of Portland and Spencer Perceval, were opposed to the Roman Catholic claims; still numerous petitions were presented by Irish Roman Catholics, and similar petitions were presented in 1810 in favour of English Roman Catholics. Many Protestants began to petition for the relief of their Catholic brethren, and the feeling in the universities became less strongly opposed to change. After the murder of Perceval the Marquis Wellesley was charged with the formation of a ministry, and made the settle-

ment of the Catholic claims the basis of his programme. He did not, however, succeed. In the same year Canning carried a motion for the consideration of the laws affecting Catholics by a majority of 129. In the Lords a similar motion was lost by a single vote. The Catholic Association (q.v.) had been formed in Ireland in 1823. During Canning's tenure of office it had been dissolved, in the hope that he would be sure to carry out his well-known views. After his death, in 1827, it was reconstructed. In 1828 it secured the return of Daniel O'Connell for the county of Clare. Peel and the Duke of Wellington were convinced that the time for settling the question of the Catholic claims had now arrived. Besides other difficulties, they had to face the strong opposition of the king, George IV, who now expressed as much objection to the measure as his father had done. At last the king was persuaded to allow the ministry to draw up three measures, one to suppress the Catholic Association, one a Relief Bill, and the third to revise the franchise in Ireland. After some delay caused by the king, Peel introduced the measure of Catholic Relief. It admitted Roman Catholics, on taking a new oath instead of the oath of supremacy, to both Houses of Parliament; to all corporate offices; to all judicial offices, except in the ecclesiastical courts; to all civil and political offices, except those of regent, lord chancellor in England and Ireland, and lord-lieutenant of Ireland. Roman Catholics were still restrained in the exercise of Church patronage. The motion to go into committee was agreed to by a majority of 188. The Duke of Wellington said, on the second reading of the bill, in the House of Lords: "I, my Lords, am one of those who have probably passed a longer period of my life engaged in war than most men, and principally, I may say, in civil war, and I must say this, that if I could avoid, by any sacrifice whatever, even one month of civil war in the country to which I am attached, I would sacrifice my life in order to do it." The bill was opposed in the Lords by the Archbishop of Canterbury and several others of the episcopal bench, but it was carried on April 10, 1829, by 213 to 109. The king gave his consent with great reluctance. Sir Robert Peel writes in his memoirs a solemn declaration that he acted throughout in this measure from a deep conviction that it was not only conducive to the general welfare, but that it had become imperatively necessary to avert an imminent and increasing danger from the interests of the Church, and of the institutions connected with the Church.

Peel's "Memoirs," 1856–7; "Wellington Correspondence," 1867, etc.; D. A. Chart, "Ireland from the Union to Catholic Emancipation," 1910; B. Ward, "Eve of Catholic Emancipation," 1911, and "Sequel to Catholic Emancipation," 1915. [O. B.]

Cato Street Conspiracy (1820) was the name given to a wild plot formed by a number of desperate men, having for its chief object the murder of Lord Castlereagh and the rest of the government. The originators were Arthur Thistlewood (q.v.), who had once been a subaltern officer, Ings, a butcher, Bryant, a shoemaker, Davidson, a man of colour, Adams, a retired soldier, and Hidon, a cowkeeper. They had arranged to murder the ministers at a dinner at Lord Harrowby's on the night of February 23, to set fire to London in several places, seize the Bank and Mansion House, and proclaim a provisional government. The plot, however, had been betrayed to the police by one of the conspirators, named Edwards, some weeks before. The conspirators were attacked by the police as they were arming themselves in a stable in Cato Street, near the Edgware Road. A scuffle ensued, in which one policeman was stabbed and several of the criminals escaped. Thistlewood was among these, but he was captured next morning. He and four others were executed, and five more were transported for life. A good deal of discussion took place in the House of Commons on the employment of the informer Edwards by the authorities.

Spencer Walpole, "History of England from 1815," 1879.

Catuvellauni (Catyeuchlani), The, were an ancient British tribe which occupied an area to the north of the Thames, comprising probably the present counties of Hertford, Bedford, and Buckingham. Cassivellaunus (q.v.) was chief of this tribe at the date of Cæsar's invasion of Britain.

Caulfeild, James, 1st Earl Charlemont (1728–99), was elected by the Irish Volunteers "General of the Patriot Army," in July 1780. In 1781 he opposed Catholic emancipation, and was one of the leaders in the first and second conventions at Dungannon, and president of the Dublin convention. He went over to England with the Regency Bill, and signed the "Round Robin" of 1789. He was also the founder of the Northern Whig Club. On his estates the rebellion of 1798 assumed a peculiarly dangerous form. Froude refers to him as "the most enthusiastic and the most feeble of revolutionary heroes."

Cavaliers. In December 1641 frequent tumults took place round the Houses of Parliament, in the course of which more than one collision occurred between the mob and the officers and courtiers who made Whitehall their head-quarters. The two parties assailed each other with nicknames, and the epithet, "Cavalier," was applied by the people to the Royalists. The original meaning of the term, which was to become the designation of a great political party, is difficult to discover. Gardiner says that it "carried with it a flavour of opprobrium as implying a certain looseness and idleness of military life." Forster thinks that it was used as a term of reproach on this occasion "to connect its French origin with the un-English character of the defenders of the queen

and her French papist adherents, to whom it was chiefly applied." According to the statement of William Lilly, an eye-witness of these riots, it referred at first rather to the personal appearance of the Royalists than to anything foreign or sinister in their characters. "The courtiers having long hair and locks, and always wearing swords, at last were called by these men 'Cavaliers'; and so all that took part or appeared for his Majesty were termed Cavaliers, few of the vulgar knowing the sense of the word 'Cavalier.'" It thus exactly corresponded to the term Roundhead [ROUNDHEAD]. The earliest uses of the word in the Journal of Sir S. D'Ewes are found under the dates of January 10 and March 4, 1641. The king complained of its use, accusing his opponents of attempting "to render all persons of honour, courage, and reputation odious to the common people under the style of Cavaliers, insomuch as the highways and villages have not been safe for gentlemen to pass through without violence or affront." The name at first used as a reproach came to be adopted by the Royalists themselves as a title of honour. "A complete Cavalier," wrote Dr. Symons, in a sermon preached before the royal army, "is a child of honour. He is the only reserve of English gentility and ancient valour, and hath chosen rather to bury himself in the tomb of honour than to see the nobility of his nation vassalaged, the dignity of his country captivated or obscured by any base domestic enemy, or by any foreign fore-conquered foe." The name thus originated continued to be used to describe the Church and King party till the introduction of the epithet "Tory." [TORY.]

Forster, "Five Members," 1860; Warburton, "Memoirs and Correspondence of Prince Rupert and the Cavaliers," 1849. For a list of Cavalier members of parliament see Sanford, "Studies and Illustrations of the Great Rebellion"; and for a list of officers, Peacock, "Army Lists of Cavaliers and Roundheads," 1863 and 1874.

Cavendish, SPENCER COMPTON, MARQUIS OF HARTINGTON AND 8TH DUKE OF DEVONSHIRE (1833–1908), eldest son of William, 7th duke, was returned to the House of Commons as one of the members for North Lancashire in the Liberal interest in 1857. In February 1863 he was appointed a lord of the admiralty, and in April under-secretary for war. On the reconstruction of Lord Russell's second administration in 1866 he took office as secretary for war. In 1868 he was returned for the Radnor Boroughs, and accepted the office of postmaster-general in Gladstone's first cabinet. In 1871 he became chief secretary for Ireland. When Gladstone abandoned the leadership of the Liberal party in 1875 Hartington assumed the post, but in 1880 accepted office under his old chief. He became secretary for India, and subsequently (1882) secretary for war, but refused to enter the Home Rule cabinet in 1886, became the leader of the dissentient Liberals, and firmly supported Lord Salisbury. On the retirement of Lord Salisbury in 1902 he became leader of the House of Lords, but resigned in 1903 in consequence of his devotion to the principles of free trade. He succeeded his father as Duke of Devonshire in 1892.

Biographies by B. H. Holland, 1911, and H. Leach, 1904.

Cavendish, THOMAS (1560–92), a gentleman of Suffolk, fitted out in 1586 an expedition for discovery and privateering, having imbibed a love for sea adventure during a voyage in 1585. A futile attack on Sierra Leone was followed by a descent on the coasts of Chile and Peru, where he met with more success, capturing some of the Spanish treasure-ships, notably the *Santa Anna* from the Manilas. He returned to Plymouth in September 1588, by the Moluccas, Java, and the Cape of Good Hope, with the honour of being the second Englishman who had circumnavigated the globe, and was knighted by the queen. He died on his way home from Brazil whilst engaged in another voyage of discovery.

R. Southey, "English Seamen," 1895.

Cavendish, WILLIAM, DUKE OF NEWCASTLE (1592–1676), son of Sir Charles Cavendish and Catherine, Lady Ogle, was created successively Viscount Mansfield (1620), Earl of Newcastle (1628), Marquis of Newcastle (1643), and Duke of Newcastle (1664). He took up arms for the king during the Civil War, and seized Newcastle, thus securing for Charles the communication he needed with the continent. At the close of 1642 he marched into Yorkshire, recovered York, defeating after a six months' campaign the army of Lord Fairfax, and forcing him to take refuge in Hull. But the siege of Hull was unsuccessful (September 2—October 27), and in the next campaign the advance of the Scots, and their junction with Fairfax, forced him to shut himself up in York. The city was relieved by Prince Rupert, who, against the advice of Newcastle, gave battle at Marston Moor (July 2, 1644). After this defeat the marquis took ship at Scarborough, and retired to the continent, where he lived until the Restoration. At Paris he married, in 1645, Margaret Lucas, celebrated for her learning and eccentricity, and author of a life of her husband. She estimates the losses sustained by the duke in consequence of his loyalty and his services to the king at £940,000. As compensation for these losses he was made Duke of Newcastle. Clarendon describes the duke as "a very fine gentleman," "active and full of courage," "amorous in poetry and music," but "the substantial part, and fatigue of a general, he did not in any degree understand, nor could submit to."

"Life of the Duke of Newcastle," by Margaret, Duchess of Newcastle, 1667, ed. C. H. Firth, 1886 and 1906; also biographies by T. Longueville, 1910, and H. T. E. Perry, 1921.

Cavendish, WILLIAM, 4TH EARL, AND 1ST DUKE OF DEVONSHIRE (1640–1707), sat in parliament as member for Derby in 1661.

He was sworn of the privy council in 1679, but at the end of the year he petitioned for his dismissal. He was a zealous Protestant and opponent of the court party. In 1685 he was insulted in a gambling house by Colonel Thomas Colepeper. Indignant at meeting this man at court, contrary to the king's promise, he publicly insulted him, after his challenge had been declined. He was tried before the King's Bench, pleaded guilty, and was fined the enormous sum of £30,000. He was imprisoned, but hearing that he was about to appeal from the judgment of the King's Bench, James allowed him to go free, on giving a bond for the amount of the fine. He eagerly joined the Revolution scheme, and was one of those who signed the invitation to William of Orange. When William landed in England, Devonshire appeared in arms at Derby, and proceeded to Nottingham, which became the head-quarters of the northern insurrection. A meeting of peers was held at his house to discuss the settlement of the crown. Soon after the Revolution he was made lord high steward, and knight of the Garter. On the departure of William to Ireland, Devonshire was created one of the Council of Nine, and vigorously superintended the fitting-out of the fleet. In 1690 he accompanied the king to Holland. He was accused, apparently falsely, by Preston of dealings with St. Germains, but the king declined to listen to the confession of the informer. He was created Duke of Devonshire and Marquis of Hartington in 1694. On William's departure for the Netherlands he was appointed one of the lords justices. We subsequently find him declaring against the bill on the Irish land-grants. He also opposed the second Partition Treaty, on which his opinion had not been asked. He was present at the death of William III. He was created lord steward in the reign of Queen Anne. He accompanied her to Cambridge in 1705, and was created an LL.D. He died, professing repentance, at Devonshire House, Piccadilly.

Cawnpore, Massacre of (1857). On June 4 the Cawnpore regiments mutinied, plundered the treasury, and set off to Delhi. On the 6th they were brought back by Nana Sahib (q.v.), and invested the Residency. Not fewer than 1,000 persons had taken refuge there, and they prolonged the defence from June 6 to June 24, till the ammunition and provisions were all gone. Then Nana Sahib offered to transmit them safely to Allahabad on condition of surrender. The offer was accepted, and on the 27th the survivors, men, women, and children, were marched down to the boats which had been prepared for them, in number about 450. They had no sooner embarked than a murderous fire was opened on them from both banks; some got off in their boats; but their crews had deserted them, and one by one they were again captured. A considerable number were at once shot, and otherwise put to death, but some 200 women and children were reserved for massacre later. After Havelock's victory at the Pandoo bridge, July 15, it was decided that they should be put to death. They were all brutally destroyed the following day; some by shot, some by sword-cuts; the bodies were cast into a well, and there is no doubt that many were thrown in while still alive. [Indian Mutiny.]

Sir J. Kaye, "Sepoy War," 1864–76.

Caxton, William (1422 ?–91), the first English printer, was born near Hadlow, in Kent, and apprenticed to a rich London mercer in 1438. He left England in 1441 to transact business in connexion with his trade in the Low Countries, and finally took up his residence at Bruges, where he remained until 1470. He joined there the gild of Merchant Adventurers, who had a depot in the city. In 1465 Caxton was formally promoted to the office of governor of the gild, but he seems to have exercised the functions of governor from 1462 onwards. Soon afterwards he, together with another English envoy, was entrusted by Edward IV with the task of renewing an expiring commercial treaty between England and Burgundy. In 1470 Caxton used his influence at Bruges in behalf of Edward IV, who was taking refuge there from the Lancastrians, and in the next year the Duchess of Burgundy offered him a post at her court. By the duchess's command he completed, in 1471, a translation into English of a popular French collection of romances concerning the Trojan War. He seems to have learned the art of printing at Cologne, and in 1474 he formed a connexion with Colard Mansion, who had set up a press in Bruges about a year earlier. Together they printed Caxton's translation—"The Recuyell of the Historyes of Troye"—and 1474 has been the year assigned as the date of the production of this, the first English-printed book. The experiment proved eminently successful, and another of Caxton's translations—"The Game and Playe of the Chess"—issued from the same press in 1475. In 1476 Caxton arrived in England with new type, and set up a press near the western entrance to Westminster Abbey. During the following fifteen years he printed many works—chivalric romances, religious works, and translations. His patrons included Edward IV, Richard III, and Henry VII, and the chief noblemen and many merchants of the day. Caxton was buried in St. Margaret's churchyard, outside Westminster Abbey.

Biography of Caxton by William Blades, 1861, which practically superseded all its predecessors. Plaver, "William Caxton," 1925. [S. L. L.]

Cayman Islands, a group of three West Indian islands, forming since 1863 a dependency to Jamaica, were discovered by Columbus, who called them "Las Tortugas"

(turtles). They were never occupied by Spain, but colonized by the British from Jamaica. They are administered by a commissioner and a local assembly whose laws are subject to the assent of the governor of Jamaica (q.v.).

Ceadwalla, King of Wessex (685–89), was a descendant of Ceawlin (q.v.). His name, which is the same as the Welsh Cadwallon, is generally considered to bespeak a British origin, and in support of this view it may be mentioned that his brother was called Mul, i.e., half-breed, or a man of mixed descent. He first appears in history as a free lance and adventurer, and in 685 we find him invading and subduing Sussex. He was, however, subsequently expelled. Returning to Wessex, he claimed the throne, and forced his kinsman Centwine to retire into a monastery. In 686 he conquered Sussex a second time, and then the Isle of Wight and the Meon valley; and he twice ravaged Kent. In 688 he abdicated, and went on a pilgrimage to Rome, where he was baptized by the pope, and received the name of Peter. He died in April 689. [Wessex.]

"Anglo-Saxon Chronicle."

Ceawlin, King of Wessex, succeeded to the throne in the latter half of the sixth century. He is said to have been the son of Cynric. Under his leadership the West Saxons enlarged their boundaries and the Britons were driven back. In 568 he defeated Ethelbert of Kent at Wibbandun (? Wimbledon), and three years later gained a great victory over the Britons at Bedford, which brought the important towns of Aylesbury, Lenborough, Bensington, and Eynsham under his dominion. In 577 he won a victory at Dereham, near Bath, in which three British kings fell, and as a result of this success he obtained possession of Bath, Gloucester, and Cirencester (or perhaps Worcester). In 584, attempting to extend his conquests still further westwards, he suffered a check at Fethanlea, the site of which is unknown, but after this he is said to have made an alliance with the Britons against Ethelbert, by whom he was defeated at Wodnesbeorh (? Wanborough, about three miles from Swindon) and driven out of his kingdom (? 592). In 593 he died. Ceawlin is reckoned as the second Bretwalda in the "Anglo-Saxon Chronicle," Aella of Sussex being the first and Ethelbert of Kent the third. [Wessex.]

"Anglo-Saxon Chronicle"; P. T. Godsal, "Conquests of Ceawlin," 1924.

Cecil, Edward, Viscount Wimbledon (1572–1638), was an admiral who is chiefly known to history as having in 1625 commanded a disastrous expedition against Cadiz, which was to form part of a general attack on Spain, planned by Charles I and Buckingham. The appointment proved very unfortunate. Cecil failed to destroy the shipping in the harbour of Cadiz, and was soon compelled to re-embark, owing to the disorderly behaviour of his crews. After having allowed the Plate fleet from the West Indies to escape him, he returned to England. On the return voyage pestilence, due to bad food, broke out, but Buckingham's influence saved Cecil from punishment.

Biography by C. Dalton, 1885.

Cecil, Robert, Earl of Salisbury (1563–1612), the son of William, Lord Burghley, by his second wife, was appointed a secretary of state in 1596, after a distinguished parliamentary career, in spite of the intrigues of the Earl of Essex to procure that office for Sir Thomas Bodley. On the death of his father he managed to obtain a large share of the queen's confidence, and so roused the enmity of Essex as to cause him to attempt his removal from court: Cecil was subsequently a chief instrument in the earl's disgrace and fall. During the last few years of Elizabeth's life, Cecil was engaged in a secret correspondence with James VI, and on her death was the first to proclaim the new king, by whom he was confirmed in all his offices. Cecil, who was the bitter enemy of Spain, found himself at variance with James on that point, but nevertheless managed to become so indispensable a minister that he was created in 1604 Viscount Cranborne, and in the following year Earl of Salisbury. In 1608, on the death of Thomas, Earl of Dorset, he became lord treasurer, and acquired immense power, being practically the king's only minister. He died in 1612, as it was said, "of too much business." The four years of his government were marked by vigorous administration, and by disputes on the question of the prerogative of the Crown in taxation, the chief example of which was the issue of the "Book of Rates." [James I.] Salisbury was a man of wisdom and experience, who kept up the traditions of Elizabeth's government in the court of James.

Biography by Algernon Cecil, 1915.

Cecil, Robert Arthur Talbot Gascoyne, 3rd Marquis of Salisbury (1830–1903), was educated at Eton and Christ Church; was elected to a fellowship at All Souls College; and was returned to parliament for Stamford as Conservative member in 1853. He represented that borough till 1868, when he succeeded to the marquisate. In Lord Derby's third administration he was, in July 1866, appointed secretary of state for India, but resigned on account of certain parts of the Reform Bill in the following year. In 1869 he was elected chancellor of the University of Oxford in succession to Lord Derby. In 1874 he again took office as secretary of state for India. During his tenure of office he introduced and carried the University Commission Bill for the reform of the colleges of the two universities. In 1878 he became secretary of state for foreign affairs, and in that capacity accompanied Beaconsfield to the conference at Berlin. He retired from office with his chief (1880); and on the death of the latter became leader of the Conservative party in the House of Lords. In 1885 he became premier

and foreign secretary, and was again prime minister in 1886, taking in addition (January 1887) the foreign secretary's portfolio. In 1895 he once more became premier and foreign secretary. He resigned office in 1902.

"Speeches," ed. F. S. Pulling, 1895; biographies by H. D. Traill, 1890, S. H. Jeyes, 1895, and Lady Gwendolen Cecil, 1921.

Cecil, Thomas, 1st Earl of Exeter (1542–1623), the eldest son of Lord Burghley, was one of the leaders of Elizabeth's troops against the northern rebels in 1569, and he took part in the Scottish expedition in favour of the Regent Moray. He subsequently did good service in the Low Countries, in reward for which he was made governor of the Brille, 1585. He was created Earl of Exeter by James I in 1605.

Cecil, William, Lord Burghley (1520–1598), born at Bourn in Lincolnshire, was the son of Richard Cecil, master of the robes to Henry VIII, who educated him for the law. Having married the sister of Sir John Cheke, he became intimate with the Protector Somerset, his friendship being increased by his second marriage with the daughter of Sir Anthony Cooke, the tutor of Edward VI. In 1547 he accompanied the Protector on his expedition to Scotland, and in the following year became secretary of state. On the fall of the Protector, he was imprisoned for a short time, but speedily restored to favour, and throughout the reign of Edward VI continued to perform the duties of secretary of state. Though no favourer of Northumberland's scheme for altering the succession, he was at length induced to sign "the device" as a witness; and at this most critical period of his career managed to avoid the displeasure of Mary; he conformed to the Catholic religion, and became very friendly with Pole. Before Mary's death, Cecil entered into correspondence with the Princess Elizabeth, on whose accession he found himself at once in high favour at court; he was immediately appointed secretary of state, and for forty years enjoyed the entire confidence of the queen, to whom he was "the oracle she consulted on every emergency, and whose answers she generally obeyed." During almost the whole of Elizabeth's reign, Sir William Cecil may be said to have practically directed the affairs of the nation; though on one or two occasions, disgusted at the treatment he received from his bitter enemies, the courtiers, chief of whom was Leicester, he was on the point of retiring altogether from public life. In 1560 he went to Scotland, as commissioner, to end the war, and on his return counteracted the progress which the Spanish ambassador, De Quadra, had made in his absence, by strongly advocating an alliance with the Huguenot leaders. In spite of his anti-Spanish policy, Cecil was no favourite with the people; and the court party, headed by Leicester, whose marriage with the queen he strenuously opposed, strove hard to work his ruin. The perfection to which he brought his system of espionage, by which every plot against the queen was known to her ministers almost as soon as it was hatched, undoubtedly, on more than one occasion, saved Elizabeth from assassination and the country from an internal war, though it provoked against Cecil the wrath of men like Arundel and Norfolk, whose aims he thwarted. His great scheme was the formation of a Protestant confederacy, to consist of England, Sweden, Denmark, the German princes, the Scots Protestants, and the Calvinists in France and Flanders, against the Catholic powers; his great stumbling-block was the Queen of Scots, whose execution he did not cease to advise as absolutely necessary for the safety of the queen and of the realm. More than once was the assassin's dagger directed against Cecil himself, and in 1572 the plot of Berney and Mather might have been successful but for the minister's spies. The great blot on his character and on his administration is the persecution of the Catholics for practising the rites and ceremonies of their religion, to which Cecil, and even Elizabeth herself, had not scrupled to conform in the time of their need. To his economical spirit may be ascribed that unprepared state of the arsenals and the navy which so materially increased the danger to be apprehended from the Armada. The history of Cecil, who in 1571 had been created Lord Burghley, from the accession of Elizabeth to his death, August 4, 1598, is the history of England, so closely is his name identified with the whole current of the foreign and domestic policy of the reign. He can hardly, perhaps, claim to be called a great man; but he was an adroit, skilful, and sensible statesman, of tried judgment, untiring perseverance and application, and boundless industry in mastering details.

The "Burghley Papers," ed. by Murdin, 1759; "Memoirs," etc., by Dr. E. Nares (3 vols., 4to, 1828–31); Macaulay's well-known "Essay"; M. A. S. Hume, "The Great Lord Burghley," 1898; A. Jessop, "Burleigh," 1904. For general authorities see Elizabeth. [F. S. P.]

Celts in the British Isles. The Celts form one among that large group of peoples which is commonly called the Aryan group, and which includes nearly all the present inhabitants of Europe with several considerable peoples of the East. The name *Celt* was that by which the people were first known to the Greeks, whereas the Romans always knew them under the name of Galli, or Gauls; both these words probably mean the same thing, namely *the warriors*, or, according to Professor Rhŷs, *the kilt-wearing, or clothed people*. Another name by which the Celts of South Britain were known is *Cymry*—the name still used by the Welsh to designate themselves—and which possibly reappears in the Cimbri spoken of by the Roman historians. There can be no doubt that the Celts at one time formed the most powerful confederacy of nations in

Europe. Gradually the Celtic peoples were driven back from their more easterly possessions by the Romans, and the kindred races in the south, and in the north by the Teutonic peoples; so that at the time when the light of history first shines on them with any clearness we find them in possession only of the three most western lands of Europe—namely, the Iberian Peninsula, Gaul, and the British Isles.

It must not be supposed that the inhabitants of these lands, though they consisted fundamentally of the same race, formed in any sense a single nationality, or spoke an identical language. In the British Islands some dialects of Celtic are still spoken and others are but recently extinct. These we can classify. They are the Welsh, or Cymric (Cymraeg), the Cornish, the Manx (dialect spoken in the Isle of Man), the Irish (Erse or Gaidhelic), and the Highland Scottish, or Scottish Gaelic. To these we must add the only other living Celtic tongue, the Breton of Brittany, otherwise called Armoric. These six dialects divide themselves into two classes, the *Gaidhelic* (Goidelic) and the *British* or *Cymric*. The first includes Irish, Manx, and Scottish Gaelic; the second comprises the Welsh, Cornish, and Armoric. It is quite possible that this division was in force as long ago as the date of the first Roman invasion, so that the inhabitants of the British Islands then consisted of two great nationalities, the Britons in the lower part of Britain, and the Gaels in the highlands of Scotland and in Ireland. There can be little doubt that of the two the nationality of the Britons was more nearly allied to that of the Gauls.

Many of our geographical names serve to remind us of these two main divisions of the Celtic race. The word *Gaidhel* (which is, of course, etymologically allied to Gaul) is preserved in the words Gael and Gaelic, now used only for the Scottish Gaels, though in the native Irish the same word (*Gaedhil*) is applied to that nationality and language; it is preserved again in Galway in Ireland, and in Galloway in Scotland, and in many lesser local names. The word *Cymry*, which is still the name by which the Welsh call themselves, has been for us Latinized into Cambria, and remains again in Cumberland (Cumbria), which once included a much larger area than it now includes. Britain, Briton, are names which have been bestowed from without—namely, by the Greeks and Romans—while Wales, Cornwall, have likewise been bestowed from without by the Teutonic invaders of Britain. All the Celtic nationalities were, as we know, an immigrant people into Europe, and it is not to be supposed that when they made their way into these islands they found them empty of inhabitants, or that no traces of these earlier races continued to exist after the Celts had been long settled there. Some of the tribes which Cæsar counted among the Celtic inhabitants of Britain may have belonged to this earlier stock, in particular the Silures, who inhabited the south of Wales and Monmouthshire, near Caerleon (Isca Silurum), and a part at least of the tribes of Devonshire and Cornwall have been designated as representing these more primitive inhabitants of the British Isles, who were, it is generally believed, allied to the original inhabitants of Spain, the Iberians, and to the Basques, their modern representatives. It would seem that the Gaelic branch preceded the Cymric in the course of invasion, and that the latter as they advanced drove the Gaels towards the north and west. At the time of Cæsar's invasion the Cymric Celts may be said to have composed the body of the population south of the Firths of Forth and of Clyde; and as the names Britannia, Briton, were by the Romans bestowed only on the country and the people in the southern part of the island, the word Briton may be used synonymously with Cymric-Celt. In fact, the Cymric people came in after-times to designate themselves as Brythons. When first known to the Romans, therefore, the Britons are to be looked upon as one nation, with a certain admixture of more primitive elements, and with the addition of one intrusive nationality, the Belgæ (q.v.), who had made a settlement in the south of the island. The Belgæ were likewise Celtic by blood, but were not closely allied to the native inhabitants of Britain. These Belgæ seem to have been more civilized than the rest of the inhabitants, and to have offered the most formidable resistance to the Roman arms. The exact districts over which they extended cannot be ascertained. The centre of their possessions probably lay somewhere near the borders of Sussex and Hampshire.

With the exception, then, of some primitive tribes and the intrusive Belgæ, the Britons from the Channel to the Firths of Forth and Clyde were, at the time of Cæsar's invasion, essentially one people belonging to the Cymric branch of the Celtic family [Britons]. North of the firths the land was inhabited by a people who were to the classic writers first known as Caledonians, but afterwards by the Romans known as Picts. This name, it is well known, means simply the painted or stained (*Picti*), and was bestowed upon all those who had not adopted the Roman civilization, but adhered to their national system of staining themselves with woad. Concerning the nationality of the Picts there is considerable dispute. Tacitus says that they were of German origin. This assertion was formerly very generally accepted, and still is by some scholars. It is more probable that they were of a Celtic stock. Skene, who undertook an exhaustive examination of the question, arrived at the conclusion that they belonged, not to the Cymric but to the Gaelic branch of the Celtic family [Picts]. In Ireland again the inhabitants were probably to be divided into several nationalities. There was, in the first place, undoubtedly a substratum of the same primitive stock of which

we have noticed traces in England. Irish tradition tells us of four nationalities who, at different times, held rule in the island, namely, the Nemidians, the Firbolgs, the Tuatha da Danann, and the Milesians, or Scots. Should we set aside what seems purely mythical in the tradition, and with that the Nemidians, of whom nothing can be made, it is not unlikely that the three names which remain do really represent three peoples, out of which the Irish nation is composed. The Firbolgs, who are described as a dark and slavish race, perhaps represent the oldest inhabitants of Iberian stock, while the Tuatha da Danann and the Milesians may have been two different branches of the Gælic race, having somewhat different appearances and national characteristics. The Milesians, who eventually obtained the supremacy, seem to be identical with the Scots, who gave its name first to Ireland, and later on to Scotland. [Scots.]

Such is the general ethnology of the Celtic people of Great Britain and Ireland. What we know of their social life and religion at the time of the Roman conquest is gained almost solely from the testimony of Roman historians, and therefore applies chiefly to the inhabitants of South Britain, who were the only people to come in contact with the invader. We have some other sources of information in the Welsh and Irish traditions, and in all that is most ancient of what has been preserved of their ancient laws, especially of the Brehon Laws of the Irish [Brehon]. This last source of information shows us that the Celts, where untouched by Roman civilization, adhered to a form of social organization which was, at one time, pretty general among the Aryan peoples. The distinctive features in their state of society were that each tribe, or, more strictly speaking, each *village*, constituted a state in itself, a political unit whose tie of union with any other village was only of a very loose character. At the same time, the tie which united together the inhabitants of any single village was remarkably close, most of the land, for example, being held, not individually, but in common, by the whole body. This form of society is commonly distinguished by students as the Village Community (see Sir H. S. Maine, "Village Communities of the East and West"). The religion of the inhabitants of Britain must have been the same as that of the Gauls, if, as Cæsar tells us, the special home or college of the Gaulish priests, the Druids, was in this island [Druids]. Of their creed we do not know much. There are, however, good reasons for believing that it very closely resembled the religion of the Teutonic neighbours of the Celts, of which some traces have come down to us. As with the German races, and as with the Romans themselves, the highest divinity was probably a god of the sky and of the thunder. Beside him stood a sun-god whom the Gauls, when they became Latinized, identified completely with Apollo, and who perhaps corresponded to the Freyr or Frô of the Teutonic peoples. His original Gaulish name may have been Granus. To form with these a trilogy we have a god of war, probably similar to the Teutonic Zio or Tiw, and called by the Roman writers Mars. The chief goddess of the Gauls is called by Cæsar Minerva, but we have proof that they worshipped a *mother goddess* who, like the Roman Lucina, presided over births, and whose image, holding on her lap a child, is frequently dug up in France, and always taken by the peasantry for an image of the Virgin and Child. To this pantheon of nature-gods was joined a lower form of nature-worship, especially an adoration of trees and streams. As to the Teutons, the oak was to the Gauls an especially sacred tree. The Celtic worship of streams was more peculiar, and the traces of it still survive in the special reverence paid to wells in Brittany, in the more Celtic parts of Great Britain, and in Ireland.

For Celts in Great Britain and Ireland: J. Rhŷs, "Celtic Britain," 1882; W. F. Skene, "Celtic Scotland"; C. Elton, "Origins of English History"; T. Rice Holmes, "Ancient Britain," 1907; J. MacNeill, "Celtic Ireland," 1921. [C. F. K.]

Census, The, a numbering of the population of Great Britain and Ireland, was appointed to be taken every tenth year by Act 41, George III, c. 15 (1801). The first census was accordingly taken in 1801. At each recurrence of the census it has been rendered more comprehensive, and at the present time elicits a vast amount of valuable and accurate information. It is taken simultaneously throughout the kingdom by special officers. The official figures since 1801 are as follows:—

1801	16,345,646	1881	35,241,482
1811	18,509,116	1891	38,104,975
1821	21,272,187	1901	41,976,827
1831	24,392,485	1911	45,370,530
1841	27,036,450	(exclusive of forces abroad)	
1851	27,724,056	1921	42,767,530
1861	29,321,288	(Great Britain only)	
1871	31,145,379		

The first Imperial Census of Great Britain and Ireland, the colonies and dependencies, was taken in 1871, when the population was 234,762,593. In 1881 it was 315,885,000. In 1926 the estimated population was 450,094,000.

Central India. The official name for the group of feudatory native states in the centre of India, comprising the dominions of Holkar and Sindhia, and the states of Bhopal and Dhar. [Holkar, etc.]

Central Provinces and Berar, a province of British India, was formed by the amalgamation (1903) of the Central Provinces and the Hyderabad Assigned Districts. It comprises the five districts of Jabalpur, Narbada, Nagpur, Chhatisgarh and Berar, which cover a total area of 113,281 sq. miles, and are divided into 22 districts, Nagpur being the capital. The population in 1926 was 13,912,760. The original Central Provinces were formed in 1861.

Cenwalh, King of the West Saxons (648–672), was the son and successor of Cynegils. He tried to effect in Wessex a relapse into paganism, but his expulsion by Penda, whose sister he had repudiated, led to his seeking refuge in East Anglia, where he was converted to Christianity. After having recovered his kingdom he won two great victories over the Britons at Bradford-on-Avon (652) and the Pens (658) and extended his dominions beyond the Parret. In 661, however, Wulfhere of Mercia invaded Wessex, laying everything waste as far as the shores of the Channel, and ceding the Isle of Wight and the land of the Meonwaras to the King of Sussex. When Cenwalh died Wessex relapsed into anarchy.

Cenwulf, King of the Mercians (796–821), was descended from Cenwalh, the brother of Penda. His reign was a very prosperous one, and he retained for Mercia that supremacy which had been won by Offa. He completed the conquest of Kent, which he granted out to his brother Cuthred; while to conciliate the Church, he suppressed the archbishopric of Lichfield, which Offa had founded. He was victorious over the Welsh, and his army is said to have penetrated as far as Snowdon.

Ceolnoth, Archbishop of Canterbury (833–70), made his episcopate important in many ways. In 838 he assisted at the Council of Kingston, when a treaty of peace and alliance was agreed upon between the church of Canterbury and the two West-Saxon kings, Ecgbert and his son Ethelwulf. This treaty laid the foundation of those amicable relations which we find existing ever after between the descendants of Cerdic and the successors of Augustine. Twice during Ceolnoth's life Canterbury was attacked and plundered by the Danes, but the church and the monastery of St. Augustine were spared, probably by the payment of a heavy ransom on the part of the archbishop, who also contributed towards raising a fleet against the Danes.

Ceolwulf, King of the Northumbrians (*d.* 764), succeeded on the death of Osric in 729 (?). In 731 he was seized by his enemies, and confined in a cloister, but was afterwards released by his friends and reseated on the throne. He was a patron of learning, and to him Bæda dedicated his "Ecclesiastical History." After reigning eight years he abdicated in 737 and spent the remaining years of his life as a monk at Lindisfarne.

Bæda, "Anglo-Saxon Chronicle."

Ceorl is a word which occurs in the laws of the kings before the Norman Conquest in the following senses:—(1) man—vir, maritus; (2) peasant, rusticus; (3) the ordinary non-noble freeman. In this, its ordinary constitutional sense, we find (*a*) ceorl opposed to eorl, as simple to gentle; (*b*) the *ceorlisc* man opposed to *gesithcundman* and *thegen*, and in the Northumbrian ecclesiastical law to *landâgend cyninges-thegen*; (*c*) ceorl used as equivalent to *twyhyndeman* in the West-Saxon and Mercian laws, and in opposition to the *sixhyndeman* and *twelfhyndeman*. The ceorl, or small freeman, rather than the laet or wealh, constituted the real basis of the early English state. His normal holding was the "hide," which was no fixed acreage of land, but simply that amount necessary for the maintenance of an average free household. With the gradual feudalization of Anglo-Saxon society the position of the ceorl underwent important modifications. If he possessed no land, his position in a territorial constitution became extremely precarious. Though still a member of the local courts and of the host, though still fully "law-worthy," and though his wergild was still paid to the kindred, the landless ceorl was compelled, by a law of Athelstan, to choose a lord to answer for his good behaviour. The right of selecting his own master alone distinguished him from the predial serf. In a later stage, even the small land-owning ceorl was practically obliged to commend himself for safety's sake to some great proprietor; and the "liber homo qui ire potest cum terra quo voluerit" of Domesday represents this large class of voluntary dependents. Many grades of ceorls thus spring up according to their relations to their "hlaford." But while the less prosperous ceorls thus lost their independence, the disappearance of the blood nobility of the eorl helped the more thriving of their class to attain that higher status which no longer depended on birth alone. The ceorl with five hides of land, with house and church, a special relation to the Crown, and a special jurisdiction over his property, became "of thegn right worthy." Yet, on the whole, the growth of thegnhood depressed the "ceorlisc man." Its first principle was dependence; and, as on the continent, freedom withered away before feudalism. The very name ceorl is not found in Domesday, and its equivalents, bordarius, cotarius, cotsetus, socmannus, villanus, indicate that the process which degraded him to the "unfree villein" had almost become complete. The lawyers of the twelfth century finished the process. The bad meaning attached to the word "churl" is an indication of the disrepute into which this once honourable title had fallen.

Cerdic, according to the Anglo-Saxon Chronicle, was King of the West Saxons at the end of the fifth century, being ninth in descent from Woden. The Chronicle relates that he came to Britain in company with his son Cynric in 495, landing at the place which is called Cerdics-ora. His early wars were not attended with great success; but in 508, having made an alliance with Aesc and Aella, he totally defeated the Britons. In 514, reinforcements having arrived, he continued his conquests, and in 519 "Cerdic and Cynric obtained the kingdom of the West-Saxons" in consequence of a victory

at Cerdicsford. In 530 they conquered the Isle of Wight, and made a terrible slaughter of the Britons at Whitgarabyrig. Four years later Cerdic died. From Cerdic all our kings, with the exception of Canute, Hardicanute, the two Harolds and William the Conqueror, are said to be descended. The story as given in the Chronicle has, however, been very generally discredited as a result of recent research, and the modern view is that Wessex was settled by bands operating from the Thames valley and not from the coast. Cerdic and Cynric are regarded by many modern authorities as purely legendary characters. [WESSEX, KINGDOM OF.]

Cerones, THE, were an ancient Celtic tribe occupying the west coast of Inverness and part of Argyll.

Cessation, THE, was the name given, during the Ulster rebellion of 1641 and the following years, to a truce for one year concluded on September 15, 1643, between the Marquis of Ormonde and the confederate Irish at Drogheda. The English parliament impeached Ormonde on account of it, and the Scots refused to recognize it. The native Irish party, headed by the legate, were also opposed to it. It had a very bad effect on the Royalists in England; and the king's object of getting help from Ireland in troops and money was only very partially gained.

Ceylon, or the island of dusky leaves, a British island off the south-east of India, was known to the Chinese as the Island of Jewels and to the Greeks as the Land of Hyacinth and Ruby. It has had a chequered history. Buddhism, introduced in the fourth century, flourished for about six hundred years under a ruling priesthood, in spite of invasions from India. First visiting the island in 1505, the Portuguese set up a military occupation and introduced Christianity. They were expelled by the Dutch (1656), who were in turn (1795–6) driven out by the British and their territory annexed to the Presidency of Madras. An unsuccessful attempt to conquer the mountainous interior from the King of Kandy in 1803 was followed by a complete British occupation in 1815, when the king was deposed and the subsequent rebellion of the natives crushed. The 1831 constitutional commission was followed by the grant of a charter (1833) under which the judicial system was revised, trial by jury adopted, appointments thrown open to Cingalese competition, and three natives nominated members of the legislative council. Insurrections organized by the Buddhist priests were crushed in 1835 and 1848. The main lines of the constitution (governor, executive, and legislative councils), together with Roman-Dutch law, have remained unchanged, though modifications have been made. The executive council of five officials (1833) was enlarged in 1919 to seven, of which three were unofficial members. In 1920 representative government was granted, the majority of the legislative council being made elective (23 out of 37), while in 1923 this was enlarged to 34 out of 49. An interesting feature of the constitution is the representation of small groups. Twenty-one are elected to represent territorial divisions irrespective of race or religion, while there are three European representatives, three Moslem, two Indian, two to represent the Burgher communities, and one the Tamils of Colombo. Nominated members represent the Chamber of Commerce and the Low Country Products Association. The legislature, however, does not control the executive, which in 1922 exercised the discretionary power granted to the governor to enact a bill (*re* officials' salaries) in spite of the popular house's veto. The constitution, for which dyarchy on the Indian model was refused by the imperial government, is due to be revised in 1928 with a view to the further extension of the grant of self-government. The Maldive Archipelago, a group of about a hundred and fifty islands, inhabited by Moslem fishermen and cocoa planters, is a dependency of Ceylon to which an annual tribute is paid by the sultan.

E. Tennant, "History of Ceylon," 2 vols., 1860; P. E. Pieris, "Ceylon and the Portuguese, 1505–1658," 1892 and 1920; Turnour, "History of Ceylon"; J. Ferguson, "Ceylon in 1903," 1903; J. C. Willis, "Ceylon," 1907; J. de Barros, "History of Ceylon to 1600," 1909; R. G. Anthonisz, "Ceylon," 1910; A. V. de Silva, "Dutch in Ceylon, 1600–1800," 1919.

[H. R.]

Chalgrove Field, THE BATTLE OF (June 18, 1643), was fought between the Royalist cavalry, under Prince Rupert, who had pushed forward from Oxford on a raid, and a body of Parliamentary troops, under Hampden. The encounter, which was more of the nature of a skirmish than a battle, is memorable as the one in which John Hampden received his death-wound. Chalgrove is a small village situated ten miles south-east of Oxford, between the Thames and the Chiltern Hills.

Lord Nugent, "Memorials of Hampden," 1831.

Chaloner, SIR THOMAS (1521–65), a statesman, a soldier, and a man of letters, whilst quite a boy entered the service of the Emperor Charles V, whom he accompanied on the expedition to Algiers, 1541, barely escaping with his life. Soon afterwards he returned to England, and was present at the battle of Pinkie, 1547, where he greatly distinguished himself. He was clerk to the council of Henry VIII, and a faithful servant of Edward VI, but his religion debarred him from the favour of Mary, although it did not exclude him from her service. Under Elizabeth he acquired considerable renown as an able diplomatist, and was sent as ambassador to the Low Countries and Spain, remaining at Madrid for two or three years before his death. Sir Thomas was the author of a treatise, "De Republica Anglorum Instauranda" (London, 1579), and some other tracts.

Châlons, The Battle of (1273), began with a tournament, to which Edward I was challenged by the Count of Châlons-sur-Marne when on his way back to England from the Crusade. Feeling on both sides ran so high that the encounter developed into a pitched battle, in the course of which Edward unhorsed his opponent, and serious losses were inflicted on the French.

Châlus, a castle in the Limousin, belonging to a vassal of the Viscount of Limoges, was besieged by Richard I in 1199. It was before the walls of this fortress that the king received his death-wound.

K. Norgate, "Richard Cœur de Lion," 1924.

Chamber, The. Chamber means bedroom. The king's chamber or *camera* was, therefore, the king's bedroom, where the king slept and stored his clothes, money, and jewels. With the help of his chamber servants, the chamberlains, he transacted his confidential, notably his financial, business. Thus, chamber came to mean an office and a treasury as well as a room. After the Norman Conquest, which gave to the king a large revenue from taxation, the chamber became the king's financial office. By Henry I's reign there was growing out of it the exchequer, the first public office to emerge from the royal household. But even then the king's chamber or *camera curie* retained some of its old functions. In the thirteenth century, however, the king's wardrobe [Wardrobes] began to encroach upon the chamber as household office of finance. Yet in the fourteenth century the chamber regained some of its lost power. Edward II tried to use it to withstand an unfriendly baronage. He ordered the keepers of certain lands under his control to account to the chamber instead of to the exchequer in order to increase the chamber's resources. This practice began with the confiscated lands of the Templars, and was extended to the forfeitures of the rebels or "contrariants" in 1321–2. To administer these lands, the chamber added to its staff. It also received the custody of the king's secret seal, set up by Edward II when the barons gained control of the privy seal. The greatest chamber development took place while the younger Hugh Despenser was king's chamberlain, but the reservation of lands was arrested after 1322, and the system destroyed by the revolution of 1326. Soon after Edward III came of age, he revived the custom of reserving lands to the chamber, and a special seal, the griffin seal, was devised for the business connected with the chamber estate. This policy prevailed from 1332 to 1356. Clerks of the chamber, especially William Kilsby, played an important part in the early campaigns of the Hundred Years' War. So many-sided was the work of the chamber, that we are in some danger of regarding the chamber as not one institution, but several. The chamber lands, however, proved so unprofitable that in 1355–6 they were exchanged for a definite quarterly allowance from the exchequer. With the abolition of the estate, the griffin seal and the special staff disappeared. The chamber remained important as the mouthpiece of royal wishes and as the king's privy purse, but it was no longer a tool for despotism. Richard II, when attempting to make himself an autocrat, found no place for the chamber, although chamber officers were among his intimate advisers. During his reign, the growth of a signet office out of the chamber, under the secretary, took the control of the secret seal, now called the signet, away from the chamber. For the greater part of the fifteenth century the chamber was of little administrative importance, but with the strong Tudor monarchy there came a chamber revival. Later in the Tudor period, the chamber was virtually absorbed by the exchequer, when some chamber methods were added to exchequer routine. Then the chamber remained only as a branch of the royal household. Some activities of the modern lord chamberlain's office, notably the licensing of plays, bring into modern history a shadowy survival of the former jurisdiction of the king's chamber.

[See also: Exchequer; Household, Royal; Chamberlain, Lord Great; Seal, the Privy; Wardrobes.]

T. F. Tout, "Chapters in the Administrative History of Mediæval England"; A. P. Newton, "The King's Chamber Under the Early Tudors"; *English Historical Review*, xxxii, 348. [D. M. B.]

Chamberlain, The Lord Great, had his origin in the Norman period. He was the officer in charge of the king's chamber, and, as such, was originally the chief financial minister of the royal household. In time, however, these duties passed into the hands of deputies, and the functions which remained to the lord great chamberlain were mainly of a ceremonial character. In the twelfth century the office became hereditary in the family of de Vere, with whose descendants it still remains. The lord great chamberlain at the present time has charge of the palace of Westminster, and is, in particular, intimately associated with the House of Lords, in which he has an office. He presides over the arrangements for the opening of parliament and assists at the introduction of peers into the House of Lords at their creation. He also discharges certain ceremonial services at coronations, and takes an active part in investing the king with the royal insignia. He must be carefully distinguished from the *Lord Chamberlain*, who is the chief officer of the royal household, a peer, privy councillor, and member of the government. To him falls the administration of various household departments, including the bedchamber, privy chamber, and presence chamber, the wardrobe, guardroom, and chapels royal; as well as the supervision of state ceremonies. The duty of licensing plays was assigned to him by 10 George II, c. 28, which

apparently arises from the fact that the players attached to the royal household were originally subject to his jurisdiction.

"The Complete Peerage" (new edition); J. H. Round, "The King's Sergeants and their Coronation Services," 1911.

Chamberlain, The Right Hon. Joseph (1836–1914), after an active municipal career in Birmingham, became M.P. for that city in 1876. In the second Gladstone administration he was president of the board of trade, with a seat in the cabinet. In the third he was president of the local government board, but resigned (March 1886) on the Home Rule question. In 1887 he went to Canada as British commissioner in the fisheries dispute. In 1895 he became colonial secretary in Lord Salisbury's cabinet. In 1903 he resigned his position in the cabinet, in order to advocate untrammelled a new fiscal policy of tariff reform (q.v.). He suffered in 1906 a severe illness, which necessitated his withdrawal from public life. He died in 1914.

Chamberlain, Sir Joseph Austen (*b.* 1863), eldest son of the preceding, was educated at Rugby and Cambridge. In 1892 he was elected as a Liberal Unionist for East Worcestershire. He was civil lord of the admiralty, 1895–1900; financial secretary to the treasury, 1900–2; postmaster-general and member of the cabinet, 1902–3; chancellor of the exchequer, 1903–6; secretary of state for India in the Asquith coalition of 1915; and a member of the war cabinet in April 1918. He became again chancellor of the exchequer in 1918, and leader of the House of Commons in 1921. He lost the confidence of his party, however, by his advocacy of the Irish treaty of December 1921, and accordingly was not included in the last cabinet of Bonar Law. But he returned to office as foreign secretary in the second Baldwin administration of 1924, and, after successfully carrying the principle of a Guarantee Pact as against the Geneva Protocol (q.v.), he played a great part in the negotiations which led to the Locarno Treaties (q.v.) of December 1925. For this last achievement he received the Order of the Garter.

Champion of England, The, is an office peculiar to England. It is popularly supposed to have been instituted by William the Conqueror, and to have been held in the first instance by Robert or Roger Marmion; but the earliest authenticated reference is found under Henry I. Of the actual exercise of the office the earliest record dates from the accession of Richard II. The functions of the champion relate to the coronation. When this was carried out with full ceremonial his duty was to ride in complete armour into Westminster Hall during the coronation banquet, and there publicly to challenge to single combat any who should dispute the king's title. This ceremony has, however, not been observed since the coronation of George IV. The office is hereditary in the family of Dymoke, by whom it was exercised as early as the reign of Richard II.

Chancellor, Richard (*d.* 1556), was the founder of the English-Russian Company. Whilst on a voyage of discovery, to find the north-east passage to India, under the direction of Willoughby and Cabot, in 1553, he doubled the North Cape (a feat never before accomplished by the English), and reached Archangel. Thence he journeyed to Moscow, and established the first trading relations between England and Russia. On his return to England he established a company to trade with Muscovy. It was incorporated by Queen Mary.

Chancery. The Court of Chancery and its equitable jurisdiction have occupied in England a unique position, and exercised a paramount influence on the development of the English legal system, especially on the laws relating to land. But the Chancery and the office of chancellor existed for more than three centuries before it became a court of jurisdiction at all. The office was at first purely ministerial. The *cancellarius* of Rome, the officer who sat behind the screen (cancelli) was merely a secretary; and the chancellor of the Norman kings, under whom this official first comes into notice, was simply the chief of the royal clerks who superintended them in drawing up writs, and kept the seal. As a clerk he was an ecclesiastic; and as an ecclesiastic nearest to the royal person, he was the king's chaplain, and "keeper of the king's conscience." Becket, when chancellor, is described as *secundus a rege*; he had fifty clerks under him; he held pleas with the constable and judges of the *curia regis*. This came to him only by way of delegation from the council, when to the king in council, as the fountain of justice, there came appeals from the lower royal courts, and petitions in cases where these courts would not or could not do justice. By the ordinance 22 Edward III all petitions that were "of grace" were to be referred to the chancellor. Henceforth petitions are addressed to the chancellor directly. Of these early petitions most seek redress in circumstances where ordinary justice might miscarry; as against a partial sheriff, an encroaching lord, or the keepers of a jail. So far the chancellor was exercising only the natural authority of a king's representative; since these were cases of trespass (*vi et armis*), in which cases the *curia regis* always interfered; and till modern times a bill in Chancery preserved the formal statement of a conspiracy to commit a trespass, as the ground on which the court was asked to interfere. The theory of trespass was soon enlarged, and the desire to avoid the procedures by compurgation or by ordeal of battle would cause many petitions for a hearing in the Chancery. The court was charged, too, with the

preservation of royal rights, and the decision of technical points touching writs, patents, and grants issued by its clerks. Under Richard II it was to supervise the justices of the peace; under Henry VI to try admiralty cases, and so on. But all this would not have created in the Chancery its distinctive jurisdiction, nor have thrown it into rivalry and even hostility with the common law courts. Many great lawyers have treated this as a necessity inherent in the nature of law, and one paralleled in the actual system of Roman law. But the anomaly peculiar to England is that the equity, which is more or less truly said to soften and correct while it follows the law, is administered by a separate tribunal; so that the law itself has been thrown into an attitude of jealousy towards the equity which was to supplement and expand it, and "a man might lose his suit on one side of Westminster Hall and win it on the other." This anomaly may be historically traced to the common lawyers' own resistance to progress. They took up too early the view that their system was complete; for every wrong there existed a remedy, and the remedy must be by a form of writ. Cases, therefore, that could not be brought under the existing forms of writ would fail to obtain a hearing in the courts. The statute 13 Edward I, c. 24, therefore ordered that the Chancery should draw up new forms of writ "for like cases falling under like law and requiring like remedy." But the judges were now disinclined to allow their system to expand. In their jealousy of the Chancery clerks, they construed the statute as narrowly as possible, were loath to allow that any new case was a "like case," and declined to admit new forms of defence at all. It followed that new grounds of action and defence were left to the Chancery Court, which, in the next century, rapidly began to extend its action. The earliest recorded equity suit before the chancellor is a married woman's petition on an ante-nuptial agreement for a settlement, in the reign of Edward III.

The hostility shown by the Commons in parliament to this jurisdiction was due to the vagueness in the summons of the subpœna "to answer on certain matters," to the searching mode of inquiry pursued, perhaps also to the generous hearing ostentatiously offered to the poor. But their hostility embodied also the jealousy against investigation into land titles, and interference with the sacred franc-tenements, and the jealousy of a jurisdiction so closely connected, by its principles and its administrators, with the Church. It is to be noticed that, except from 1371 to 1386, all the chancellors down to Sir Thomas More were ecclesiastics. The device itself of "a use," or grant, of lands to A to hold to the use of others, had originated with the Church, which had then protected the use by spiritual sanction. On the other hand, this and other modes of acquiring rights in land for the Church had been checked by successive Mortmain Acts: those of Henry III, Edward I, and Richard II. The similar attempts made by the Commons to check this growing Chancery jurisdiction failed; the first recorded enforcement of a use by the chancellor is in Henry V's reign; in that of Henry VI uses were firmly established; till by the Wars of the Roses most of the land of England was held subject to uses. By this condition of things the legal was divorced from the actual ownership of land; the *feoffee to uses* merely served as a screen to *cestui qui use*; this latter, being "he that had the use," enjoyed the profits unburdened with the liabilities. The machinery of a use made it easy to evade in every direction the rigour of the feudal land-law; so that land could thus be conveyed by mere word of mouth, could be conveyed freely or devised by will, or charged in any way for the benefit of others; the chancellor recognized and enforced all such dispositions. So far, it was a boon to society that the land system should thus have escaped from the feudal trammels; but it had now become an intolerable evil that the ownership of land should be just what the feudal law had guarded against, viz., secret, uncertain, and easy of transfer. Attempts had been made to remedy this; a statute of Henry VII, following a similar act of 50 Edward IV, had set a precedent for regarding the beneficiary as the real owner in the case of debts secured on the land. So, 1 Richard III, c. 1, allowed the beneficiary's conveyance to be valid without assent of the feoffees, and by 4 Henry VII, c. 15, the lord could claim wardship over the heir to lands held through a use. But the final blow at the system of uses was dealt by Henry VIII. In 1534 he carried the act which made uses forfeitable for treason, and two years later introduced the great *Statute of Uses*, 27 Henry VIII, c. 10, to put an end to the system once for all. But the narrow conservatism of the common lawyers, disguising itself as philosophical strictness of interpretation, was able to defeat the great legislative design. In the end the whole effect of the statute has been said to consist "in adding four words to every conveyance." For, following servilely the wording of the statute, the judges managed to exclude from its scope uses where the use was founded on a leasehold interest, where the use implied some active duties, or where a further use was raised upon the first use. It was held also not to apply to copyhold lands at all, nor where a use was held by a corporate body. Here, then, were a number of cases of obligation unrecognized by the common law, and left to be enforced by the Chancery courts, which had thus by Coke's time recovered under the name of "trusts" all that hold over transactions in land which the statute was to have transferred to the law courts. In the reign of Elizabeth the first collection of Chancery precedents was made and published, and by the time of the Stuarts the jurisdiction of the

court was well settled to give relief in the same main subjects as it does now, viz., trust, fraud, accident, extremity. Its chief developments since that time have been in the direction of "implied trusts," and especially in the protection of mortgagors' "equity of redemption," the settled property of married women, and the estates of minors. The doctrine of "specific performance" has been its own creation. The court's main instrument besides imprisonment has been the adjudication of costs, and its strongest arm the injunction. The benefits conferred on English society by the Court of Chancery have been immense. Much of its semi-criminal jurisdiction has been renounced since the seventeenth century; but the year-books and petitions enable us to judge of the value of a strong court armed with the directest authority of the Crown, and deciding on enlightened principles with a prompt and elastic procedure in the ages whose supreme and chronic grievance was lack of governance. It must be admitted that this equity was not always ideal justice; the very completeness of the inquiries necessitated the long delays of a Chancery suit, just as the very elasticity of the procedure introduced a certain confusion and prolixity into the pleadings. Too much was left to the masters in Chancery and done in "secret chamber-work"; and above all, misled by the half truth that equity follows the law, there were hardships against which the chancellors had not, in the face of the judges, the courage to grant relief. But there were others which they boldly followed up, as in resisting, on grounds of "public policy," the creation of perpetuities, or in acting on the maxims, "He that seeks equity must do equity"; "Equity looks to the intent rather than the form"; "Equity considers as done that which ought to be done." But the greatest triumph has been the influence exerted by equity on the common law, which adopted the rules of equity as to the construction of deeds, the admissibility of "set-off," the power to change the venue and grant a new trial, the repudiation of penalties in a contract. So, too, the right to make a will of land, denied at law, was granted by Chancery, and had to be adopted by statute (32 Henry VIII). Finally, the Married Women's Property Act of 1883 is a practical monument of the victory of the Chancery and Roman law view as to the status of a married woman over the barbarous code in which her personalty was merged in that of her husband. The lay chancellors who succeeded Sir Thomas More down to Lord Nottingham, i.e., from 1532 to 1673, contrasted unfavourably with the clerical founders of the great edifice. The Reformation interrupted the traditions of the office, and broke up the study of civil law; in the want of precedents the chancellors relied too much on intuition and common sense (as Lord Shaftesbury, in a more settled time, 1672, essayed to do, to his own discomfiture). This explains Selden's famous reproach, half-jesting, no doubt, "Equity is a roguish thing. . . . 'Tis all one as if we should make the standard for the measure of a foot the chancellor's foot. One chancellor has a long foot; another, a short foot; a third, an indifferent foot." The Tudor chancellors certainly seem to have deferred to the personal leanings of the sovereign. But no such reproach could be made of this or the last century, when equity became as much "a laboured connected system, governed by established rules, and bound down by precedents, as the common law" (Lord Eldon). Still the abuses of the court were numerous, and some of them had reached a monstrous pitch. Venality was the old canker of the court, and the memory of Bacon's offence was revived by similar charges against Lord Clarendon, by the impeachment of Lord Somers (1700) for corruption, by the flagitious sale of Church patronage by Sir N. Wright, till the accumulated popular indignation burst upon Lord Macclesfield, who was dismissed and heavily fined in 1725 for misuse of the "suitors' fund" and open sale of offices. But even had every official had clean hands, the abuses of delay and prolixity would have remained an intolerable burden. The Restoration gave these abuses a fresh lease of life; the use of English was not enacted till 1730, nor registries till Anne's reign, and then only for Yorkshire and Middlesex. Meantime, the abolition of the ancient Courts of Wards and of Requests increased the business, which accumulated with the wonderful growth of wealth and population in George III's reign, and with the proverbial dilatoriness of Lord Eldon, who held the seal almost continuously from 1801 to 1827. Even the new office of vice-chancellor of England, established in 1813, failed to relieve the congestion of causes, because an appeal lay against him to the chancellor. A successful commission was at last appointed in 1825, whose labours were not wholly thwarted either by the apathy of Eldon or the presence of a number of Chancery lawyers; for the energy of Brougham, Campbell, and Westbury in time carried out these reforms, and that which was a necessary preliminary to them, the simplification and amendment of the law of real property. Queen Victoria's reign and preceding ones did more for these objects than all the previous centuries put together; additional vice-chancellors and clerks have been appointed, a court of appeal established, the common law side of the court and its bankruptcy business transferred elsewhere, the suitors' fund rearranged, and the procedure gradually simplified, while the court has been empowered (1858) to impose damages, try matters of fact by a jury, and take a judge as assessor without application to a common law court. When, about the same period (1854), common law courts were given the powers of an equity court as to examination of parties, discovery of documents, injunctions, etc., it became clear that the two

ancient rivals were approximating to each other, and would soon be prepared to be reconciled or even amalgamated. The bill (1860) for this purpose was cut down by the influence of the Chancery lords; but in 1873 the Judicature Act was passed, which followed the advice of Lords Brougham, Westbury, and St. Leonards, and harmonized, without attempting completely to fuse, the two systems.

In IRELAND, there was a lord chancellor presiding over a separate court of equity, the growth of which has followed very closely the development of the English equity system. The earliest chancellor was Stephen Ridel, appointed in 1189. In SCOTLAND, the functions of the Chancellor's court in the thirteenth century were probably not very different from those of the same office in England. But as the civil law formed the basis of the Scottish legal system, the chancellor became the chief administrator of law, not of an equitable system. In 1553, when the Court of Session was established, he became the chief judge of this court. In Scotland till the Reformation he was generally a churchman; and afterwards became a mere officer of state. On the union with England his separate functions were merged in those of the English lord chancellor. [A. L. S.]

LORD HIGH CHANCELLORS AND LORD KEEPERS OF ENGLAND.

Arfastus (Herefast)		1067
Osbert, Bishop of Exeter		1070
Osmund, Bishop of Salisbury		1073
Maurice		1078
William Welson, Bishop of Thetford		1083
William Giffard		1086
Robert Bloet		1090
Baldric		1093
William Giffard		1094
Roger, Bishop of Salisbury		1101
William Giffard		1103
Galdric		1104
Arnulfh		1107
Geoffrey Rufus		1124
Roger of Salisbury		1135
Philip		1139
Theobald, Archbishop of Canterbury		1142
Thomas Becket		1154
Ralph de Warneville		1173
Geoffrey Plantagenet, Archbishop of York		1181
William de Longchamp		1189
Eustace, Bishop of Ely		1198
Hubert Walter, Archbishop of Canterbury		1199
Walter de Grey, Archbishop of York		1205
Peter des Roches, Bishop of Winchester		1213
Walter de Grey	January	1214
Richard de Marisco	October	1214
Ralph Neville		1218
Simon de Cantelupe		1238
Richard, Abbot of Evesham		1240
Silvester of Eversden		1242
John Mansel		1246
William de Kilkenny		1250
Henry Wingham, Bishop of London		1255
Walter de Merton, Bishop of Rochester		1258
Nicholas of Ely		1260
Walter de Merton		1261
Nicholas of Ely		1263
Thomas de Cantelupe	February	1265
Walter Giffard	August	1265
Godfrey Giffard		1267
John Chishull		1268
Richard Middleton		1269
John Kirkeby		1272
Walter de Merton		1273
Robert Burnell		1274
John Langton		1292
William Greenfield		1302
William Hamilton		1304
Ralph Baldock		1307
John Langton		1307
Walter Reynolds, Bishop of Worcester		1310
John Sandale		1314
John Hotham, Bishop of Ely		1318
John Salmon, Bishop of Norwich		1320
Robert Baldock		1324
John Hotham	January	1328
Henry de Clyff	March	1328
Henry de Burghersh, Bishop of Lincoln	May	1328
John Stratford, Bishop of Winchester		1330
Richard Bury, Bishop of Durham		1334
John Stratford, Archbishop of Canterbury		1335
Robert Stratford		1337
Richard Bynterworth, Bishop of London		1338
Archbishop Stratford	April	1340
Robert Stratford, Bishop of Chichester	July	1340
William Kildesby	December	1340
Sir Robert Bourchier	December 14	1340
Sir Robert Parnyng		1341
Robert Sadyngton		1343
John Ufford		1345
John Thoresby, Bishop of St. Davids		1349
William Edington, Bishop of Winchester		1356
Simon Langham, Bishop of Ely		1363
William of Wykeham, Bishop of Winchester		1367
Sir Robert Thorpe		1371
Sir Richard Scrope		1372
Sir John Knyvett	July	1372
Adam Houghton, Bishop of St. Davids		1377
Sir R. Scrope		1378
Simon of Sudbury, Archbishop of Canterbury		1379
Richard, Earl of Arundel		1381
Robert Braybrooke, Bishop of London		1382
Sir Michael de la Pole		1383
Thomas Arundel, Archbishop of Canterbury		1386
William of Wykeham		1389
Archbishop Arundel		1391
Edmund Stafford, Bishop of Exeter		1396
Archbishop Arundel		1399
John Scarle		1399
Edmund Stafford		1401
Henry Beaufort, Bishop of Lincoln		1403
Thomas Langley, Bishop of Durham		1405
Thomas Arundel		1407
Thomas Beaufort, Earl of Dorset		1410
Archbishop Arundel		1412
Henry Beaufort, Bishop of Winchester		1413
Bishop Longley		1417
Simon Ganstede		1422
Henry Beaufort		1424
John Kemp, Bishop of London		1426
John Stafford, Bishop of Bath and Wells		1432
John Kemp, Archbishop of York		1450
Richard Neville, Earl of Salisbury		1454
Thos. Bourchier, Archbishop of Canterbury		1455
William of Waynflete, Bishop of Winchester		1456
Thos. Bourchier, Archbishop of Canterbury		1460
George Neville, Bishop of Exeter		1460
Robert Kirkeham		1463
Robert Stillington, Bishop of Bath and Wells		1467
Laurence Booth, Bishop of Durham		1473
Thomas Rotherham, Bishop of Lincoln		1475
John Russell, Bishop of Lincoln		1483
Thomas Barowe		1485
Bishop Alcock		1485
Archbishop Morton		1487
Henry Deane		1500
William Warham, Archbishop of Canterbury		1504
Cardinal Wolsey		1525
Sir Thomas More		1529
Sir Thomas Audley		1532
Thomas, Lord Wriothesley		1544
William Paulet, Lord St. John		1547
Richard, Lord Rich		1547
Thomas Goodrich, Bishop of Ely		1551
Stephen Gardiner, Bishop of Winchester		1553
Nicholas Heath, Archbishop of York		1556
Sir Nicholas Bacon		1558
Sir Thomas Bromley		1579
Sir Christopher Hatton		1587
William Cecil, Lord Burghley		1591
Sir John Puckering		1592
Sir Thomas Egerton		1596
Sir Francis Bacon		1617
John Williams, Bishop of Lincoln		1621

Sir Thomas Coventry	1625
Sir John Finch	1640
Sir Edward Lyttelton	1641
Sir Richard Lane	1645
Great Seal in Commission	1649–60
Edward Hyde, Earl of Clarendon	1660
Sir Orlando Bridgeman	1667
Anthony Ashley, Earl of Shaftesbury	1672
Heneage Finch, Lord Nottingham	1675
Francis North, Lord Guilford	1682
George, Lord Jeffreys	1685
Great Seal in Commission	1689–93
John, Lord Somers	1693
Sir Nathan Wright	1700
William, Lord Cowper	1705
Simon, Lord Harcourt	1710
Lord Cowper	1714
Thomas, Lord Parker	1718
Peter, Lord King	1725
Charles, Lord Talbot	1733
Philip Yorke, Lord Hardwicke	1737
Robert, Lord Henley	1757
Charles, Lord Camden	1766
Charles Yorke, Lord Morden	1770
Henry Bathurst, Lord Apsley	1771
Edward, Lord Thurlow	1778
Alexander, Lord Loughborough	1793
John Scott, Lord Eldon	1801
Thomas, Lord Erskine	1806
Lord Eldon	1807
John Singleton Copley, Lord Lyndhurst	1827
Henry, Lord Brougham	1830
Lord Lyndhurst	1834
Charles Pepys, Lord Cottenham	1836
Lord Lyndhurst	1841
Lord Cottenham	1846
Thomas Wilde, Lord Truro	1850
Edward Sugden, Lord St. Leonards	February 27 1852
Robert Rolfe, Lord Cranworth	December 18 1852
Frederic Thesiger, Lord Chelmsford	1858
John, Lord Campbell	1859
Richard Bethell, Lord Westbury	1861
Lord Cranworth	1865
Lord Chelmsford	1866
Hugh Cairns, Lord Cairns	1868
William Page Wood, Lord Hatherley	1868
Roundell Palmer, Lord Selborne	1872
Earl Cairns	1874
Earl Selborne	1880
Stanley Hardinge Giffard, Lord Halsbury	1885
Farrer Herschell, Baron Herschell	1886
Lord Halsbury	1887
Lord Herschell	1892
Lord Halsbury	1895
Lord Loreburn	1905
Richard Burdon Haldane, Viscount Haldane	1912
Stanley Owen Buckmaster, Baron Buckmaster	1915
Robert Bannatyne Finlay, Viscount Finlay	1916
Frederick Edwin Smith, Earl Birkenhead	1916
George Cave, Viscount Cave	1922
Lord Haldane	1924
Lord Cave	1924
Douglas McGavel Hogg, Lord Hailsham	1928

T. F. Tout, "Place of St. Thomas of Canterbury in History," 1921; W. S. Holdsworth, "History of English Law," 1923; C. Maxwell-Lyte, "The Great Seal," 1926; Campbell, "Lives of the Lord Chancellors"; Haydn, "Book of Dignities."

Chanda Sahib (*d.* 1752) married the daughter of Dost Ali, deputy of the Carnatic, and became chief minister. He was made use of by Dupleix as a pretender to the throne of Arcot against the British candidate Mohammed Ali. In alliance with Mirzapha Jung, the French candidate to the throne of Hyderabad on the death of the Nizam-ul-Mulk (1748), he overran the Carnatic, and obtained investiture from Dupleix and Mirzapha Jung. Clive's defence of Arcot and the death of Mirzapha broke the confederacy; and Chanda Sahib surrendered to Monackjee, the Tanjorine general, who was in alliance with Mohammed Ali and the British. The general took a solemn oath to convey him to a French settlement, but immediately afterwards caused him to be assassinated, at the instigation of Mohammed Ali.

Chandos, Sir John (*d.* 1370), was one of the most famous of the English generals during the French wars of Edward III's reign. In 1362 he was appointed constable of Guienne, and in 1364 was sent over to Brittany to assist de Montfort, where he took du Guesclin prisoner. In 1369 he was made seneschal of Poitou, and in the next year fell in a skirmish.

Sir C. Oman, "England and the Hundred Years' War," 1898.

Chandos of Sudeley, Lord (*d.* 1556). [Brydges, John.]

Channel Islands, The, comprise the bailiwicks of Jersey and Guernsey, the latter of which includes Sark, Herm, and Alderney, together with some small outlying islets. They are interesting as being the last portion of the dukedom of Normandy remaining to England, which has possessed them ever since the Norman Conquest. In 550 they were granted to Childebert, a Saxon bishop, who soon afterwards converted most of the inhabitants to Christianity. The Channel Islands came into the possession of William, Duke of Normandy, in 933, by the grant of Charles IV, and remained attached to the English crown when Philip II conquered the rest of Normandy from King John. After the loss of Normandy by John, the Channel Islands were attacked by the French in the reign of Edward I, and again in that of Edward III, when du Guesclin, the constable of France, almost succeeded in reducing them. In the reign of Henry IV, they did fall into the hands of the French for a short time, but were retaken shortly afterwards by Sir Henry Harleston. Under Edward IV, Sark was also lost for a time. Towards the close of the sixteenth century the Channel Islands were governed by Sir Walter Ralegh. During the Parliamentary wars Jersey espoused warmly the side of the king, for which the government was put in commission by Cromwell. In 1779 the French made an ineffectual attempt to land, and in December 1780 sent another expedition, under the Baron de Rullecourt, who succeeded in taking St. Helier in Jersey, although he was subsequently defeated and slain by the British troops. At the Reformation the islands adopted a Protestantism of the Genevan type, but were eventually reconciled to Anglicanism by Bishop Andrewes, and are part of the diocese of Winchester. Though under governors appointed by the Crown, they have constitutions of their own. Jersey and Guernsey (with its dependencies) have each a lieutenant-governor and also a bailiff, who presides over the States of Deliberation, and is nominated by the Crown. The States of Deliberation of Jersey and Guernsey respectively are composed of certain officials—the rectors of

parishes, the judges of the courts, and elected representatives. In Guernsey the election is very indirect; in Jersey the representation is more of a popular character. The courts of justice are presided over by the bailiff, and by elective judges. This constitution has existed with but little alteration since the time of John. Guernsey is divided into ten parishes, and Jersey into twelve, some of which are included in municipal corporations. The official language of the courts (whose procedure is based on the Norman) and of the legislature is still French. The king's writ runs in the Channel Islands.

J. Duncan, "History of Guernsey," 1841; Inglis, "Channel Islands"; Ansted, "Channel Islands," 1865; E. F. Carey, "Channel Islands," 1904; and E. Foord, "Channel Islands," 1924.

Chapter, THE, is the body of clergy attached to a cathedral. Originally, this body was the assembly of the priests of the diocese round their bishop. It was the bishop's household or general council, and contained within it the bishop's officials for the administration of the diocese, and the clergy who had the care of the services of the cathedral itself. The chapter in the bishop's council soon fell into disuse, and the name was applied almost entirely to the clergy of the cathedral church itself, who soon gained a position almost independent of their bishop. Chapters in England were of two kinds—monastic and secular [CATHEDRAL]. The monastic chapters were like monasteries, over which the bishop ranked as abbot, though the resident prior was the real head. These monks were in England Benedictines, except in the case of Carlisle, where they were Augustinians. In the secular chapters the dean rises into prominence in the eleventh century. The work of his diocese, the necessity of constant journeys, and the increase of secular business undertaken by the bishop left the cathedrals without a head, and the chapters everywhere began to manage their business without their bishop. The theory that the chapter elected the bishops gave them at times a position of some importance, both towards the king and the pope. Chapters frequently appealed to Rome against their bishops, and often were successful in obtaining privileges from the pope. The separation of the chapter from the bishop became more and more definite, till the bishop was left with no powers save those of visitor over his chapter. The chief officers of the secular chapter were: the *dean*, who was head of the body; the *precentor*, who superintended the services; the *chancellor*, who was head of the educational and literary work of the cathedral church; and the *treasurer*, who had the care of all the treasures of the church and was guardian of the fabric. Besides those there were the *archdeacons*, who were the sole survivors of the diocesan organization of the chapter. Its other members were *canons*, as bound by the rule, or *prebendaries*, if they held an endowment besides their share of the corporate fund. This last body was generally non-resident, and their duties were performed by *vicars*, who are now called *vicars-choral* or *minor canons*. Under Henry VIII the monasteries attached to the cathedrals were suppressed, and their chapters were refounded as secular chapters under a dean. After the same model the cathedrals of the new bishoprics founded by Henry VIII were arranged. Hence came the two classes—*Cathedrals of the Old Foundation* and *Cathedrals of the New Foundation*. [CATHEDRAL.] An act of 1838 reformed cathedral chapters by diminishing the number of canons, reducing their incomes, and bringing all chapters to greater uniformity. Chapters at present generally consist of a dean and four canons, though some of the richer cathedrals have six canons. The conversion of parish churches into cathedrals as a result of the new creations which began in the nineteenth century has produced a third type of chapter in which the bishop is ordinarily ex-officio dean and the full complement of residentiary canons is rarely present.

A. H. Thompson, "The Cathedral Churches of England," 1925. [M. C.]

Charlemont, JAMES CAULFEILD, 1ST EARL OF (1728–99). [CAULFEILD.]

Charles I, KING (*b.* November 19, 1600, *s.* March 25, 1625, *d.* January 30, 1649), second son of James I and of Anne, daughter of Frederick II, King of Denmark, was born at Dunfermline. He was a handsome and athletic youth, with reserved and diffident manners. James's brilliant favourite, Buckingham, gained complete ascendancy over him, and in 1623 the two young men went to Madrid, with the object of bringing back with them, as Charles's bride, the Infanta. Buckingham, who had expected that he would readily prevail on the Spaniards to effect the restoration of the Palatinate, soon discovered his mistake; but the prince, unwilling to return home foiled in his object, refused to leave the country, making promises that it was impossible for him to perform, and allowing the Spaniards to suppose that he would become a Catholic. At last, finding that if he married the Infanta he would not be allowed to take her to England until his promises were performed, he returned, along with Buckingham, to England. In opposition to pledges given to parliament, Charles gained the hand of Henrietta Maria, sister of Louis XIII of France, by consenting that the laws against English Catholics should not be enforced. Shortly before the marriage was consummated, James died, and Charles ascended the throne. Thus, he began his reign under ill auspices. He had made to parliament and to the King of France promises incompatible with one another; and he was under the guidance of a man whose temerity and self-confidence were about to involve his country in a series of military disasters. Charles

dissolved his two first parliaments because they refused to support the policy of the duke. To war with Spain was added war with France. Money was raised by means of a forced loan, and persons refusing to lend were imprisoned. In 1628 a third parliament met. Charles was obliged to agree to the Petition of Right (q.v.). Soon after the prorogation of parliament, Buckingham was murdered by Felton; and the king for the future himself directed the policy of his government. Though Buckingham was removed, there was small hope of good understanding between Charles and the nation. Charles had no desire to make alterations in government. He, indeed, prided himself, when involved in any dispute with a subject, on having the law on his side; but he was content to rest his case on legal subterfuge, or to obtain his end by the appointment of subservient judges. Moreover, while he claimed the right to nominate ministers at will, and to pursue whatever policy seemed good to himself, he failed to perceive that the authority of his predecessors had remained unquestioned only when they had ruled in accordance with national desires and aspirations. Charles had no sympathy for the holders of Calvin's creed, who formed the majority of thoughtful and earnest men at that time. Within the Church had grown up a small party, the so-called Arminians (q.v.), holding doctrines akin to those of the Church of Rome. Each party desired to suppress the other, and Charles, who favoured the Arminians, was incapable of holding the balance evenly between the two. Parliament met again in 1629, only to be angrily dissolved, because the Commons refused to give the king a grant of tunnage and poundage until he should consent to pursue the Church policy approved by them.

For eleven years Charles ruled without parliament. His government became intensely unpopular. Peace was made with both France and Spain; but it was difficult to provide for the ordinary expenses out of the fixed revenue, and hence old rights of the Crown were once more enforced, and money raised by means which brought little into the exchequer, while they irritated large numbers of persons. The system culminated in the imposition of ship-money, when Charles, being desirous of having a fleet in the Channel, imposed what was really a heavy tax on the country (October 1634). North of the Humber, the Council of the North, under the presidency of Lord Wentworth, in the south the Court of Star Chamber, punished by fines and imprisonment persons who refused to submit to demands of which the legality was questionable. At the same time, under the direction of Laud, Archbishop of Canterbury, an ecclesiastical policy was pursued which ran directly contrary to the current of popular feeling, and rendered both the bishops and the Court of High Commission objects of general odium. The attempt to impose a church service, similar to the English, in Presbyterian Scotland led to the rising in arms of the Scots. Charles summoned Wentworth, now created Earl of Strafford, to his side from Ireland, and called a parliament (1640), which he dissolved in three weeks, because it refused to support him in carrying on war against the Scots. The advance of a Scottish army into the kingdom compelled him in the autumn of the same year to summon another—the celebrated Long Parliament (q.v.).

Charles was for the time unable to resist the demands of the popular representatives. He gave his consent to whatever bills were offered to him, and passed a bill of attainder against his faithful servant Strafford, to whom he had promised that not a hair of his head should be injured. [Wentworth; Long Parliament.] In 1641 he proceeded to Scotland, with the object of forming a Royalist party there, and on his return to London went in person to the House of Commons, to arrest five members, whom he accused of high treason (January 3, 1642). [Five Members.] The attempt having failed, he left London, to prepare for war; and on August 22 the royal standard was unfurled at Nottingham. A considerable army soon gathered round him. Men who thought that the concessions already made were sufficient to prevent abuse of the royal authority, as well as all lovers of the existing form of church service, took his side. At Edgehill (October 23, 1642) his cavalry, composed of country gentlemen, readily proved its superiority to the Parliamentarian horse. But want of subordination prevented his officers acting in union, and deprived him of victory. Charles could not maintain discipline himself, nor did he depute authority to those who possessed the art. High commands were given to the wrong men, and officers were allowed to act independently of one another. Hence, the royal strategy broke down, while the gallantry of individuals was spent in vain against the disciplined troops that Cromwell brought into the field. The passing of the Self-Denying Ordinance (q.v.) placed all the forces of the Parliament under the control of the Independents. Led by Fairfax and Cromwell, the remodelled army destroyed at Naseby (June 14, 1645) the last army which Charles was able to bring into the field. The king now authorized Glamorgan to conclude a secret treaty with the Irish Catholics, promising to allow them the free exercise of their religion if they would place 20,000 men at his service (August 12). In May 1646, to avoid being made a prisoner by the Parliament's officers, Charles took refuge with the Scottish army near Newark. The Scots, however, were not ready to take the part of the king while he refused to allow the establishment of a Presbyterian Church in England; and on the withdrawal of their army into Scotland in January 1647, they surrendered him into the power of the English parliament.

The Parliament demanded of Charles that

he should abandon his right to appoint either ministers of state or officers of the militia, and that he should consent to the establishment of the Presbyterian Church in England. On the other hand, the Independents were willing that Episcopacy should be maintained, if toleration were granted to Dissenters. Charles expected to be able to play one party off against the other, and by such means to recover the whole of his former prerogatives. During the war, he had negotiated at once with Presbyterians, Independents, and Irish Catholics; and, in spite of the distrust that his conduct excited, he still pursued the same course. From Hampton Court, where he was under the charge of the army, he fled to the Isle of Wight, and put himself under the protection of Colonel Hammond, the governor of Carisbrooke Castle. Here he concluded a secret treaty with the Scots, promising to establish the Presbyterian Church in England for three years if they would send an army into England to restore him to his throne. The Civil War again revived; zealots rose in arms, while the Scots, led by the Duke of Hamilton, crossed the border. Fairfax suppressed the Royalists, while Cromwell crushed the invaders at Warrington, in Lancashire (August 1648). The army returned to London, demanding that Charles should pay with his life for the blood that he had caused to be shed. The Commons, forcibly purged of the more moderate Presbyterians [PRIDE'S PURGE], voted that it was treason for the King of England to levy war against the parliament and the kingdom, and passed an ordinance for instituting a High Court of Justice, composed of men of their own party. As the House of Lords refused to take part in the proceedings, they further resolved that whatever was enacted by the Commons should have the force of law without the consent of the king or the House of Peers. The trial was held publicly in Westminster Hall. One hundred and thirty-five judges had been named on the ordinance; but only about eighty, amongst whom were Cromwell and Ireton, attended the sittings of the court. Bradshaw, Cromwell's cousin, presided. Charles was accused of having endeavoured to overturn the liberties of the people, and of being a tyrant, traitor, and murderer. He refused persistently to answer to the charge, on the ground that the court had no lawful authority derived from the people of England by which to try him. Sentence of death was pronounced against him; and on January 30, 1649, he was executed on a scaffold raised in front of the Banqueting House at Whitehall, in presence of a vast crowd, which, had the decision rested with it, would eagerly have delivered him from death. [REBELLION, THE GREAT; COMMONWEALTH, THE; LONG PARLIAMENT.]

Internal affairs during the reign of Charles I are best studied in the "Calendars of State Papers" (Domestic Series). The "Hardwicke Papers" contain materials relating to the French and Spanish matches, the expedition to the Isle of Rhé, and the Scottish troubles of 1637–41. The "Memorials and Letters" published by Sir Daniel Dalrymple; "The Court and Times of Charles I," by Thomas Birch; Halliwell's "Letters of the Kings of England"; "The Letters of Charles I to Henrietta Maria," edited for the Camden Society by John Bruce; "The Arrest of the Five Members," by John Forster—are works which throw light on the character of the king and the motives of his actions. A Royalist account of the years 1644 and 1645, and of the negotiations carried on in the Isle of Wight in 1648, is to be found in Sir Edward Walker's "Historical Discourses"; and of the king's personal history during the last two years of his life, in Sir Thomas Herbert's "Memoirs." For modern accounts see G. M. Trevelyan, "England Under the Stuarts," 1904; biographies by W. H. D. Adams, 1889, G. B. Chancellor, 1886, and A. Fea, 1904; "Charles I in Captivity," ed. G. S. Stevenson, 1927.

[B. M. G.]

Charles II, KING (*b.* May 29, 1630, *s.* May 8, 1660, *d.* February 6, 1685), was the eldest son of Charles I and Henrietta Maria. In his ninth year he was created Prince of Wales, and when the Civil War broke out he accompanied his father at the battle of Edgehill. In 1644 he was the nominal head of the royal forces in the west of England; but on the decline of the royal cause he was obliged to retire to Scilly, to Jersey, and eventually to France. When matters appeared to be drawing to extremity with the king, several of the ships of the Parliament went over to the prince, who made some attempts to blockade the Thames, and even landed near Deal, but was soon obliged to withdraw to Holland, whence, in the hope of saving his father's life, he dispatched to the intending regicides a paper signed and sealed, but otherwise blank, for them to insert their own conditions. On the death of his father in January 1649, Charles assumed the title of king, and in February he was proclaimed King of Scotland at Edinburgh. In 1650 he came over to Scotland, and, having taken the Covenant, was crowned at Scone on January 1, 1651. Charles exhibited courage and wisdom in opposing Cromwell's troops before Edinburgh, but his cause was hopeless from the first, owing to the discord among his supporters. He suddenly determined to leave Scotland and march into England, and succeeded in getting as far as Worcester, where (September 3, 1651) he received so severe a defeat that his cause seemed utterly ruined. Charles escaped from the battle, and after an adventurous flight of forty-four days, through the western counties and along the south coast—during the early part of which he owed his safety entirely to the fidelity of a labouring family—he succeeded in finding a ship near Brighton, which landed him safely in France. For the next nine years he led a wandering life in France, Germany, and the Low Countries, sometimes received and sometimes repulsed, according as the various sovereigns or their ministers threw off or yielded to their dread of Cromwell. He was accompanied by a few faithful adherents; but his little court was also beset by intriguing turbulent men and spies,

who betrayed his counsels and caused the numerous attempted risings of his friends both in England and Scotland. At length, on the death of Cromwell, it became obvious to most persons in England that the only hope of establishing a settled form of government and of saving the country from a military despotism lay in restoring the monarchy; and, chiefly through the instrumentality of General Monck, Charles was invited to return to England. He at once complied, and entered London in triumph on May 29, 1660, having previously signed the Declaration of Breda (q.v.). During the first years of his reign, when the king was largely under the guidance of Clarendon, matters went smoothly. The parliament was ardently Royalist, and supported the English Church by passing stringent laws against Catholics and Dissenters; but the failure of the Dutch War in 1665, the maladministration of the government, and the misappropriation of the public money, led to the downfall of Clarendon (1667). In 1668 (January) Sir William Temple concluded the Triple Alliance between England, France, and Sweden. But the "Cabal" ministry (q.v.) speedily reversed this policy for one of alliance with the French king and hostility to Holland. Finally, the infamous Treaty of Dover (q.v.) was signed (1670); Charles became a pensionary of Louis, and war was declared against Holland. The attempt of the king to obtain toleration for the Catholics by issuing a Declaration of Indulgence caused the passing of the Test Act (1673) by parliament, and the consequent fall of the Cabal administration. With this began the great struggle between the king and the opposition, headed by Shaftesbury, during which Charles showed the greatest prudence. He yielded to the storm caused by the pretended Popish Plot (q.v.), but steadily refused to alter the succession by excluding his brother James. The violence and cruelty of the Whig leaders, together with the discovery of the Rye House Plot (q.v.), turned the tide in the king's favour. He gained a complete victory over his opponents, and was able for the last three years of his life to reign without parliament and free from all opposition. In 1662 Charles married Catherine of Braganza, daughter of John of Portugal, but had no children by her. His private life was characterized by great profligacy, and he had a large number of mistresses, and no fewer than twelve illegitimate children, among whom were James, Duke of Monmouth; Henry Fitzroy (son of the Duchess of Cleveland), ancestor of the Dukes of Grafton; Charles Beauclerc (son of Nell Gwyn), ancestor of the Dukes of St. Albans; and Charles Lennox (son of the Duchess of Portsmouth), ancestor of the Dukes of Richmond. Charles, in spite of his licentiousness and his extreme selfishness, was possessed of much talent. The natural champion of the principle of hereditary right at a time when hereditary right was exposed to attack, Charles's position was one of considerable difficulty. He played his part dexterously, and with considerable ability, and it cannot be denied that he showed much capacity for governing.

Clarendon, "Life" (ed. 1857), and Burnet, "History of His Own Time" (ed. Airy, 1900), both of which must be read with caution; Barillon's "Letters," and Temple's "Works" (and especially the "Memoir from the Peace"), contain much information on the diplomatic history. See also Carte, "Life of Ormonde," and Macpherson, "Stewart Papers"; Baxter, "Life and Times"; Reresby, "Memoirs"; Pepys, "Diary"; Evelyn, "Diary"; Shaftesbury, "Letters and Speeches" (ed. W. D. Christie); D'Avaux, "Négociations en Hollande"; O. Airy, "Charles II," 1904; Sir H. Imbert-Terry, "A Misjudged Monarch," 1914; A. C. A. Brett, "Charles II and his Court," 1911; John Drinkwater, "Mr. Charles King of England," 1926. [S. L.]

Charles Edward, The Young Pretender (1720–88). [Stuart.]

Charlotte Augusta, Princess (1796–1817), was the daughter of George IV and Caroline of Brunswick. Owing to the disunion of her parents her earlier years were passed in retirement, away from the court, under the care of Lady Elgin, Lady Clifford, and the Bishop of Exeter. She early gave proofs of a noble character and intellectual qualities above the average. She was destined by her father to marry William, Prince of Orange; but her own affections had been fixed on Leopold of Saxe-Coburg, who became, in 1830, King of the Belgians. Yielding to her father's desire, the princess agreed to marry the Prince of Orange, and the betrothal was arranged between them, when the princess broke off the match, partly in anger at her father's conduct to her mother, partly because of her own repugnance to himself. In 1816 she was married to Leopold of Saxe-Coburg, and in the following year (November) died in giving birth to a son, who did not survive her.

Biography by P. Fitzgerald, 1899.

Charmouth is a village on the Dorsetshire coast, about two miles from Lyme Regis. In 836–7 Ecgbert was defeated here by the Danes, and in 843 his son Ethelwulf met with a like disaster at the same place. Some historians have supposed that the two battles of Charmouth are the result of an erroneous duplicate entry in the Chronicle.

Charnock, Robert (*d.* 1696), a fellow of Magdalen College, Oxford, became a Roman Catholic, and supported James II in his illegal ejection of the Protestant fellows of his college by means of the Court of High Commission. After the Revolution he became one of the most active of the Jacobite conspirators, and was among the chief organizers of the Assassination Plot (1696) (q.v.). He was arrested, and his trial began on March 11. The new act for regulating procedure in cases of high treason was not to come into force until the 25th. It allowed the prisoner to examine his witnesses on oath, compel their attendance at court, and have the service of counsel. The

prisoners, Charnock, King, and Keyes, claimed, not without reason, to have their trial postponed till that date. Their request was, however, refused, and they were all executed. Charnock left behind him a paper in which he justified the plot, on the ground that William was a usurper, and by an appeal to the laws of human society.

Charter, The Great. [Magna Carta.]

Charter Schools (Ireland). In 1733 an association, with the primate, Archbishop Boulter, and the lord chancellor, at its head, was formed to provide Protestant education gratis for the Catholic poor. Before that time, in spite of a statute of Henry VIII, Protestants had to rely on private enterprise entirely as far as education was concerned. In 1733 a charter was granted to the association, but only on condition that the endowment was not to exceed £2,000 a year. On October 24, 1733, the corporation began its work; day-schools and boarding-schools were established. They were really industrial schools. After five years' schooling, children were bound out as apprentices at the expense of the society (girls got a small portion on marrying), and the whole cost of education for one child came, in the day-schools, to only £9 per annum. The boarding-schools increased from four to fifty, and George II granted £1,000 from his privy purse in their support. The day-schools soon came to an end, but the boarding-schools were supported by parliamentary grants after 1745, when a special tax was devoted to this object. Altogether, by 1767, £112,000 had been devoted to the Charter schools. In 1750 parents were forbidden to take back their children, when once they had entered, and thus to prevent their becoming Protestants. Soon afterwards the society was allowed to take up all children between five and twelve found loitering about, and put them into their schools. However, by 1757, whether it was on account of the determination of the Catholics not to be enticed into changing their children's religion, or for other reasons, it became clear that the Charter schools were a failure. Howard, in 1758, investigated this school system, and brought to light great abuses; a parliamentary committee appointed in consequence found children who had been at school for twelve years unable to spell. Still, for twenty-five years after the Union they continued to exist, and vast sums were spent on the education of some 2,000 children. Froude calls the Charter schools "the best-conceived educational institutions which existed in the world," while Lecky says of them that they "excited in Ireland an intensity of bitterness hardly equalled by any portion of the penal code." Of one thing there can be no doubt: they completely failed in their object—the conversion of the Irish peasantry to Protestantism.

Stevens, "The Charter Schools"; W. E. H. Lecky, "Ireland in the Eighteenth Century," ed. 1892, ii, 232–7.

Chartism (1838–53) was a working-class movement which aimed at making the government representative of and responsible to the whole people, by the enactment of a bill drafted by Lovett and Place in 1838 and called the "People's Charter." Its "Six Points" were (1) manhood suffrage, (2) secret ballot, (3) equal electoral districts, (4) annual parliaments, (5) no property qualification, (6) payment of M.P.s; (1), (2), and (4) had been demanded in the Radical agitation of 1819; all except (4) were granted by 1918. This programme originated with the London Working Men's Association founded in 1836 by Radicals who had just succeeded in getting the newspaper-tax reduced to one penny; it was linked on to the tumultuous Lancashire and Yorkshire agitation against the New Poor Law by Feargus O'Connor (q.v.), who had founded the Leeds *Northern Star* in 1837; and it was embodied in the "National Petition" drawn up by Attwood's well-organized Birmingham Political Union (q.v.) and propagated by its "missionaries." A "National Convention" representing these three divergent elements, and composed of delegates elected at public meetings, met intermittently at London and Birmingham during 1839, but was so heterogeneous that it failed to agree on any practical measures, and it dissolved when Lovett, the "moral force" leader, was imprisoned for seditious libel in printing one of its resolutions, while military preparations prevented serious disorder in the north, and a rising of "physical force" Chartists in South Wales was suppressed. After this failure, a National Charter Association was founded in the north in 1840 with a regular penny-a-week subscription and a class-organization on Methodist lines, in order to move Chartist amendments at meetings of the rival Anti-Corn Law League, and Lovett outlined an educational policy in "Chartism" which he wrote in prison; but a united movement was made impossible by O'Connor's feud with Lovett and O'Brien, the "schoolmasters of Chartism," and with the Birmingham men who were less class-conscious. A second convention met in 1842, and a monster petition was presented to parliament; its rejection was followed by a general "turn-out" or "plug plot" in the north, as a demonstration of working-class solidarity. Thenceforward Chartism declined, and it became impotent after April 10, 1848, when the Duke of Wellington had a quarter of a million special constables sworn in in London to prevent the Kennington Common meeting from leading to an imitation of the continental revolutions. Political Chartism was succeeded by economic self-help exemplified by the co-operative stores (Holyoake and the Rochdale pioneers were Chartists) and the "new model" trade unions; it gave an incentive to the temperance movement and to evening classes, and led to the successful agitation of Collet the Chartist against the "taxes on knowledge"; and it stimulated the paternalism

of Disraeli ("Sybil, or the Two Nations," 1845), Carlyle ("Chartism," 1839), and Broad-Churchmen such as Maurice and Kingsley, who promoted Christian Socialism in 1850 ("Alton Locke," 1850).

H. Jephson, "The Platform," 1892; M. Hovell, "The Chartist Movement," 1918. [W. H. W.]

Chartley Manor, in Staffordshire, was at one time the place of Mary, Queen of Scots' imprisonment. In 1585–6 she was at her own request removed here from the care of Sir Amyas Paulet at Tutbury. Chartley was well known to Walsingham's spy Gifford, and this afforded the latter exceptional facilities for copying the treasonable correspondence of the captive queen.

Chatham was a village of small importance till the establishment of a dockyard and naval arsenal in the time of Queen Elizabeth, when preparations were being made to resist the Spanish Armada. The dockyards were improved under Charles I and the Commonwealth, and the fortifications strengthened after the attack of the Dutch in 1667. These were enlarged and strengthened between 1757 and 1808, and during the nineteenth century Chatham was rendered one of the most important dockyards and naval fortresses in the world. It became a parliamentary borough by the Reform Act of 1832.

H. Barnaby, "Historical Notes of Chatham and Rochester," 1899.

Chatham, William Pitt, 1st Earl of (1708–78). [Pitt.]

Chatsworth, in North Derbyshire, the property of the Cavendish family, was in 1570, 1573, 1577, 1578, and 1581 the prison of Mary Queen of Scots. It was subsequently garrisoned by the Roundheads in 1643, and by the Cavaliers two years later.

Cheke, Sir John (1514–57), is well known as the tutor of King Edward VI, whose education he undertook in conjunction with Sir Anthony Cooke. In reward for his services he was made provost of King's College, Cambridge, and a privy councillor. On the accession of Mary, Cheke was imprisoned for the sympathy which he had shown for the cause of Lady Jane Grey, from whom he had accepted the office of secretary of state. On his release he went abroad and settled at Strasburg, but, having gone to visit Sir John Mason at Brussels, was captured on the way, and sent to England, where he was confined in the Tower. Cheke, who was a zealous Protestant, and "one of the most godly men of those days," was kept in confinement until hard usage wrung from him a renunciation of his real convictions. He was then released, but is said to have died of shame at his recantation. He was a voluminous and able writer, and did much for the literature of England. Besides being the tutor of King Edward VI, he was the tutor of William Cecil, Lord Burghley. He was one of the earliest and greatest of English Greek scholars of the Renaissance; and in particular set himself to reform the corrupt pronunciation of his time. His fame was still living at Cambridge in Milton's days, and the poet refers to him in Sonnet XI:

"Thy Age, like ours, O soul of Sir John Cheke,
Hated not learning worse than toad or asp,
When thou taught'st Cambridge and King Edward Greek."

Sir C. R. Markham, "Edward VI," 1907.

Chelt, Battle of the. [Gelt.]

Chester was a Roman military station, as its Celtic name, "Caerleon Vawr," attests. It became the head-quarters of the 20th legion, Valeria Victrix. It is called *Deva* in the Roman geographical writings, and would seem to have been also a trading-centre of importance. About 613 it was conquered and destroyed by Ethelfrith of Bernicia. In 894 it was captured by the Danes, who were, however, forced to surrender it to the English; and in 973 it was the scene of Edgar's triumph, when, according to the tradition, he was rowed on the Dee by six subject kings. It was a place of considerable importance as being the frontier town of the Welsh Marches. The Conqueror established an earldom of Chester, and Hugh Lupus, his nephew, became its palatine. He built the castle and refounded as a Benedictine abbey the church of St. Werburgh, which was of Anglo-Saxon origin. In 1237 the earldom escheated to the Crown, and was granted by Henry III to his elder son Edward, afterwards Edward I. It has ever since been a royal appanage. In 1301 Edward, Prince of Wales, received the homage of the Welsh princes at Chester, and here the captive Richard II was lodged on his way to London in 1399. The city suffered severely in the plagues of the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, and especially in 1602–5. In 1642 Charles I arrived in Chester. The citizens were warmly Royalist. From July 1643 until 1646 the city was continuously besieged or blockaded by the Parliamentarian forces, and at last honourably surrendered in February of the latter year. Great riots occurred on the occasion of the visit of the Duke of Monmouth in the year 1683. Chester was created a bishopric by Henry VIII in 1541, and its fine abbey church of St. Werburgh became the cathedral.

R. H. Morris and P. H. Lawson, "Siege of Chester in 1643–6," 1924; J. Williams, "Story of Chester," 1901.

Chesterfield, Philip Dormer Stanhope, 4th Earl of (1694–1773). [Stanhope.]

Chevalier de St. George. [Stuart, James Francis Edward; Stuart, Charles Edward.]

Chevy Chase. [Otterburn.]

Cheyne, Sir Thomas (*d.* 1558), treasurer of the household to Henry VIII, was appointed one of the Council of Executors by the king's will, 1547. Having served in the Scottish

expedition of 1547, he was made warden of the Cinque Ports, and in 1549 he was sent on behalf of the council to the Emperor Charles V. In 1553 he is found in strong opposition to Northumberland's scheme of altering the succession in favour of Lady Jane Grey; and in Wyatt's rebellion [WYATT, SIR THOMAS], 1554, he did good service for the queen in Kent.

Biographies of Edward VI.

Chichele, HENRY (1362 ?–1443), is said to have owed his education to William of Wykeham, and certainly was a student on Wykeham's foundations at Winchester and Oxford. He was frequently employed on diplomatic business by Henry IV, and in 1408 was made Bishop of St. Davids. In 1409 he was one of the English delegates to the Council of Pisa, and in 1414 was raised to the see of Canterbury. He joined Henry V in France in 1418 and again in 1420, and crowned Queen Catherine. Chichele has been greatly blamed for inciting Henry V to go to war against France, and it was generally believed that the French war was encouraged by the clergy, to divert popular attention from the wealth, luxury, and corruption of the Church. But this view rests on no historical basis, though it is not improbable that Chichele and the other bishops did lend their sanction to the king's ambition. Chichele is also accused of being a persecutor, but it would seem that his aversion to the Lollards was political rather than religious; for that sect was regarded as hostile to the dynasty and a foe to all social order as well as to the Church. During Henry VI's reign Chichele seems to have confined himself almost entirely to his clerical duties. In 1437 he founded All Souls College at Oxford, and was meditating the resignation of his see when he was removed by death. Chichele resisted the pretensions of Martin V, who was desirous of getting the Statutes of Provisors and Præmunire repealed, and when the papal party retaliated by accusing him of avarice, the barons, the bishops, and the University of Oxford came forward to bear testimony to the merits of the archbishop. Nevertheless he suffered many humiliations at the hands of the pope, and his prestige was seriously lowered by the bestowal of the cardinalate upon Beaufort and Kemp, and by the former's acceptance in 1426 of the legatine commission.

Biography by A. Duck, 1617 and 1699.

Chichester, SUSSEX, a cathedral town, is built on the site of a Roman settlement, and is generally identified with the Regnum mentioned in the "Itinerary" of Antoninus. It appears to have been a place of some trade. The town is said to have been destroyed by Ella, and restored by his son, Cissa, from whom tradition says it received its modern name. The see was originally at Selsey, and was removed to Chichester as a result of the recommendations of the council of 1075. The cathedral was built upon the site of the nunnery of St. Peter. Begun in 1091, it suffered more than once from fire, and its different parts show many periods—Norman, Early English, Decorated, and Perpendicular. The building suffered much at the hands of the Parliamentary troops which were quartered in it. The earliest extant charter to the borough is that granted by Stephen, conferring to the burgesses the rights they had possessed in the time of his grandfather. In 1604 the city was incorporated under a mayor and aldermen. Since 1295, when it first returned a member, Chichester has been regularly represented in parliament. The town was Royalist in the Civil War, but in December 1642 was surrendered to the Parliamentarians after an eight days' siege. It was recaptured by the Royalists in the following December, but had again to surrender to Waller a month later after a siege of seventeen days. Among Waller's prisoners of war at Arundel was the famous Chillingworth, who died at Chichester, and lies buried in the cathedral.

A. Ballard, "History of Chichester," 1898.

Chichester, ARTHUR, LORD CHICHESTER OF BELFAST (1563–1625), was lord-deputy of Ireland from 1604 to 1614, when he became lord treasurer of Ireland. It was under his government that the Plantation of Ulster was carried out. One result of the colonization of Ulster was the possibility of summoning an Irish parliament in which the representatives of the native Irish should be in a permanent minority. This parliament met in 1613, for the first time in twenty-seven years, and at once broke into open discord. The subjects in dispute were referred to the king, and in February 1614 Chichester was commanded to return to England to give an account of the state of the country. On his return to Ireland in the same year instructions were given him to recur to the policy of driving the Irish by persecution into the Protestant Church. Chichester, however, obtained their practical modification, and some approach was made to an understanding between the Irish Roman Catholics and the government. In August 1614 the king ordered the dissolution of the parliament, and three months later Chichester was recalled. Though no reason was publicly given for his recall, there are grounds for believing that the real motive lay in his opposition to any new attempt to persecute the Roman Catholics. He was, however, treated with every show of honour, and was made lord treasurer of Ireland, a post more dignified than influential.

Biography by Sir F. Fortescue, 1858.

Chief Justice. [JUSTICE.]

Childers, HUGH CULLING EARDLEY (1827–1896), was educated at Trinity College, Cambridge, and went to Australia in 1850, where he became inspector of schools in Melbourne in 1851. Later he was made secretary to the

education department and emigration agent at the port of Melbourne, and in 1852 became auditor-general and a member of the legislative council. The following year he was collector of customs and a member of the executive council. He was the first vice-chancellor of Melbourne University. In 1857 he returned to England as agent-general for Victoria. He was elected member of parliament for Pontefract in 1860, and was a member of the royal commission on penal servitude in 1863. In 1865 he was financial secretary to the treasury, and was appointed first lord of the admiralty and privy councillor in 1868. He resigned office in 1871. In 1872 he became chancellor of the duchy of Lancaster, and secretary of state for war in 1880, and produced a successful scheme of army reform in the following year. He was appointed chancellor of the exchequer in 1882, and in the following year formulated a great scheme for reducing the national debt (q.v.). In 1886 he became home secretary, and supported Gladstone's Home Rule Bill. The state of his health precluded him, however, from becoming a candidate at the general election of 1892.

Biography by E. S. C. Childers, 1901.

Chilianwalla, The Battle of (January 13, 1849), was fought during the second Sikh War. Lord Gough attacked the position of Shere Singh at three in the afternoon, with the result that when darkness put an end to the struggle Lord Gough found himself master of unknown ground in the dark, and uncertain as to the whereabouts of the enemy, after a victory which was the nearest possible approach to a defeat. He was compelled, therefore, to withdraw to the village of Chilianwalla. [Sikh Wars.] On February 21 he retrieved his reputation by the decisive victory of Gujarat.

J. D. Cunningham, "Sikhs," 1849 and 1919.

Chillingworth, William (1602–44), was educated at Oxford, and obtained a fellowship at Trinity College. By the efforts of a Jesuit, John Fisher, he was converted to the Roman Catholic communion. His conspicuous abilities made him an important convert and the Jesuits determined to find him employment. In 1630 he went to the college of Douai, where he was urged to write an account of the motives which led him to make his religious change. He undertook the task, but felt it his duty to weigh afresh the arguments in favour of the Protestant religion, and Laud, then Bishop of London, began a series of letters to Chillingworth, for whom he had acted as godfather. The result was that in 1631 Chillingworth left Douai and returned to Oxford, where he pursued his theological inquiries with an impartial mind. In 1634 he again declared himself to be a Protestant, and wrote a statement of the reasons which induced him to adopt the Roman Catholic faith together with a refutation of them. He became, in 1638, chancellor of Salisbury and prebendary of Brixworth. In the Civil War he accompanied the king's forces, though his heart sank within him to see "publicans and sinners on the one side, against Scribes and Pharisees on the other." He took an active part in the operations at the siege of Gloucester, and was taken prisoner at the capture of Arundel Castle. Being very ill he was allowed to remove to the palace of Chichester, where he died. He was the author of a famous tract, called "The Religion of Protestants: a Safe Way to Salvation," first published in 1638, and very frequently reprinted.

Lecture on Chillingworth by E. H. Plumpton, 1877.

Chiltern Hundreds, The, as the hundreds of Burnham, Desborough, and Stoke, in Buckinghamshire, are called, have attached to them a stewardship, the holder of which office was charged with the duty of keeping down the robbers who infested the woods of the Chiltern Hills. At the present time the office is used for an interesting purpose. As a member of the House of Commons cannot by parliamentary law resign his seat unless he becomes disqualified, either by the acceptance of a place of honour and profit under the Crown (statute of 1707), or by some other cause, a member wishing to retire applies for the stewardship of the Chiltern Hundreds, which is held to be such and necessarily entails the vacation of the seat. The stewardship is usually granted as a matter of course, though it has been refused in a case of bribery. As soon as it is obtained it is again resigned and is thus generally vacant when required by a member of parliament. The method of evading the restriction as to the resignation of a member of parliament appears to have come into practice in the reign of George II about 1750. The gift lies with the chancellor of the exchequer. In the event of two applications being made for the post at the same time, the stewardship of the manor of Northstead is bestowed on one of the applicants. The Chiltern Hundreds and Northstead are the only two of the eight original Crown stewardships now surviving.

China, Relations with, cannot be said to have existed much earlier than 1600, though there was, no doubt, indirect intercourse in earlier times between English merchants and Cathay. The Florentine house of Bardi, for instance, which had extensive financial dealings with Edward III, carried on also a considerable trade with China. The first attempt of the East India Company to establish a commercial station at Canton, in 1637, was a failure. And a second attempt in 1668 met with no more success, but in 1670 a trade connexion was opened with Formosa, and sealed by a treaty. Ten years later a factory was established at Canton. An era of foreign trade in China now began. But the Manchu dynasty, inaugurated in 1679, developed a policy of hostility towards alien traders as a result, perhaps, of misconduct on the part of the Portuguese. Trade became

confined to Canton alone, and was made difficult, even there, by the rapacity of the mandarins and the dishonesty of the *hong* merchants; until quarrels between the East India Company, the Portuguese, and the French resulted in the mission of Lord Macartney to Pekin as the first British ambassador, commissioned to establish secure commercial relations between England and China (1792). Macartney, however, was unable to obtain a removal of trade restrictions, and Lord Amherst, who was sent to carry on the task (1816), was dismissed by the Emperor for refusing to "kow-tow." (To "kow-tow" would have been a tacit acknowledgment that George III was a vassal of the Manchus.) The next efforts on the part of Great Britain only led to war. In 1834, when the monopoly of the East India Company expired, Lord Napier was sent to Canton with a commission to endeavour to resuscitate commercial relations, but he fell a victim to fever and overwork, and in a short time the Chinese authorities began to protest against the introduction of opium into China by British traders, on the ground that importation of opium was illegal. In 1839 large quantities of the drug were confiscated and burnt—an act which Captain Elliot, the commissioner of trade, regarded as amounting to a declaration of war.

The First Chinese War (1839–42), fought on the opium question, obtained for British trade an extensive sphere in China. After the capture of the island of Chusan by the Indian fleet, followed by a period of abortive negotiations and by the subsequent capture of Hong Kong and Amoy, hostilities were suspended and peace was concluded at Nanking by Sir Henry Pottinger. Hong Kong was thrown open to European traders, together with the five towns of Amoy, Fuchow, Nanking, Canton, and Ningpo; and China agreed to pay an indemnity of $21,000,000 (part of which was to serve as compensation for the confiscated opium).

The Second Chinese War (1855–8) was precipitated, after an interval of comparatively friendly relations, by the seizure of the cutter *Arrow* by the Chinese authorities on a charge of piracy. There was undoubtedly a case for the Chinese, but the *Arrow* had obtained British registration, and her surrender was demanded. Her crew were set at liberty, but no apology was forthcoming from the governor of Canton. War began accordingly with the bombardment of Canton by Sir John Bowring. The war was of short duration. After the fall of the Taku forts (1858) the Chinese government sued for peace, and by the Treaty of Tientsin the British commissioner, Lord Elgin, obtained a reduction of transit dues and an indemnity of £4,000,000 An attack on Sir F. Bruce in 1859 (while he was sailing up the river to ratify the Treaty of Tientsin) produced a second campaign under Lord Elgin, which involved a fresh occupation of the Taku forts until the emperor agreed to ratify the treaty, and won for Great Britain the privilege of exchanging diplomatic representatives with China on terms of equality.

Relations were again strained in 1875, when the murder of Mr. Margary on the Chinese frontier, added to the refusal of China to publish the details of treaties by which Great Britain was empowered to establish a trade route between China and Burma, nearly precipitated a third war. Hostilities were averted by the tactful policy of Sir Thomas Wade, who won for foreigners (1876) a recognition of the right to travel unmolested, according to the Chefoo Convention. Intercourse was further extended in 1895, when the Treaty of Shimonoseki, which terminated the Chino-Japanese war of 1894–5, opened four more ports to European trade — Chungking, Hankow, Suchow, and Shatsze. The Yangtse basin was recognized as a British sphere of influence, and Wei-hai-wei was made over to Great Britain on an extensive lease. Britain adopted the policy of the "open door" in China, discountenancing the restriction by any European power of the trade of other powers with that country.

Fresh collisions occurred in 1900 on the outbreak of the Boxer rising; riots at Pekin (April) were followed by the murder of missionaries and Christians, culminating in a siege of the foreign legations, lasting eight weeks, during which an international force sent out under Admiral Seymour failed to relieve the besieged legations, but was able to capture Tientsin. The legations were relieved on August 14, however, and the besieging troops fled into the interior. The powers' demands for reparation were, after long deliberation, embodied in a note and presented on December 22. The emperor acceded to them on the 27th, and on January 14, 1901, a Peace Protocol was signed at Pekin. It provided for the destruction of the Taku forts, the reform of the Tsung-Li-Yamin, the punishment of individual offenders, the execution of certain officials (six in all), and the payment of an indemnity of £65,000,000. Pekin was evacuated by the foreign troops on September 17 following.

After 1900 Anglo-Chinese relations steadily improved. The conclusion of the Anglo-Japanese alliance in 1902 showed how strongly both powers were determined to preserve the integrity of China, and in the same year a fresh commercial treaty was concluded between London and Pekin, whereby four new ports were opened and navigation on inland waters was subjected to amended rules; while *Likin*, a transit-tax on inland trade producing about £2,000,000 annually, was abolished. Six years later a further agreement obtained for Great Britain a stretch of mainland opposite Hong Kong (with a 99 years' lease) and provided for a steady decrease and ultimate eradication of the opium traffic. The revolution of 1911 and the inauguration of the Chinese Republic did not materially affect relations with Great Britain and Europe.

China gained little by her part in the Great War. She hoped for the cancellation of all "spheres of influence," and for the restoration of the German Shantung region. But Shantung fell to Japanese control, and the Peace Conference declined to admit the remaining Chinese claims within its purview. The Washington Conference of 1921–2, however, by means of several treaties to which Great Britain was a party, delimited spheres of influence, regulated customs and tariffs, and guaranteed Chinese integrity. The unpaid portion of the Boxer indemnity was remitted in 1924. But friction recurred in 1926 in a series of anti-foreign demonstrations encouraged by Soviet Russia, directed towards securing the abolition of the "unequal treaties." Sir Austen Chamberlain outlined British policy in a memorandum of December 26, proclaiming sympathy for the nationalist movement in China and a willingness to negotiate on the "unequal treaties" as soon as some stable government should have been established which could speak for the whole of China. The situation, however, grew worse. On January 24, 1927, a Shanghai Defence Force was ordered, and the agreement reached on February 19 between Mr. O'Malley and Mr. Eugene Chen on the subject of the Hankow Concession soon came to nothing. Grave disorders followed at Nanking, Shanghai fell to the Southern forces, and the Chinese Civil War continued unabated.

D. Boulger, "History of China," 1881; Hertslet, "China Treaties," 1908; M. J. Bau, "Foreign Relations of China," 1922; B. A. W. Russell, "Problem of China," 1922; H. B. Morse, "International Relations of China, 1834–60," 1910; Sir F. Whyte, "China and Foreign Powers," 1927; C. A. M. Smith, "The British in China," 1927. [A. C. F. B.]

Chippenham, The Peace of (sometimes inaccurately termed the Peace of Wedmore), was concluded between Alfred and Guthrum in 878 after the great English victory of Ethandun. Guthrum gave hostages to Alfred and agreed to depart with his army from Wessex. In addition he promised, for himself and his chief men, to accept Christian baptism. This latter pledge was duly fulfilled at Aller, near Athelney, three weeks after the conclusion of the treaty. Thereafter Guthrum and his host retreated eastwards and set up a Danish kingdom in Essex and East Anglia (880). No record of the territorial settlements made at Chippenham has been preserved, but Alfred seems to have been left the possession of Wessex, Sussex, Kent, and South-western Mercia. The boundary between English and Danes was for the first time precisely defined in Alfred and Guthrum's Frith of 886. It followed the line of the River Lea to its source, crossed thence to the Ouse at Bedford, and continued along its course to its junction with Watling Street at a point near Stony Stratford. Thus, by this later agreement, London and its environs were surrendered to Alfred, and the Danelagh (q.v.) was clearly marked off from the area under English rule.

R. W. Chambers, "England Before the Norman Conquest"; Sir C. W. C. Oman, "England Before the Norman Conquest"; B. Lees, "Alfred the Great."

Chitral Expedition, The, 1895, occurred as the result of a succession-dispute in the principality of Chitral (in the Hindu Kush Mountains), which had been under the suzerainty of Kashmir since 1878. The death of the ruler Aman-al-Mulk in 1892 provoked a fourfold dispute between his three sons and his brother, involving first the expulsion of the brother and the murder of one of the sons, and finally the murder of a second son (January 1895). The third son, Afzul-ul-Mulk, sought British recognition, but Dr. George Robertson, who was sent to investigate his claims, was compelled to retire into Chitral fort on the return of the expelled uncle (Shere Afzul) and his ally the Khan of Jandol (February). The investiture of Chitral (March 3—April 18) led to an expedition being sent from India under Generals Low and Kelly. The relief force arrived at Chitral on April 20 and delivered the besieged. On the advice of the Indian government it was decided (August 1895) that Great Britain should retain Chitral, on account of its strategic position.

Sir W. R. Robertson, "Official Account of the Chitral Expedition," 1898; G. J. and F. E. Younghusband, "Relief of Chitral," 1895.

Chivalry. This word, which variously meant "horsemanship," "knighthood," "a fully-armed array of horsemen or knights," "the knightly ideal of conduct," and other things akin to these, in its widest application embraced the whole brotherhood of trained, approved, and dedicated men of the sword, who had undertaken with elaborate and solemn ceremony to do their fighting in a peculiar spirit, on principles and with aims of a special character, as well as the whole body of laws and usages that these select warriors were bound to observe. Defined by a friendly historian, it was "a fraternal association, or rather an enthusiastic compact between men of feeling and courage, of delicacy and devotion," who had chosen the profession of arms and fitted themselves for it by a long and severe apprenticeship. It was an institution in which each faithful member was animated by a sentiment of conscious dignity, and regulated his life in conformity with a code of military ethics that raised a naturally demoralizing occupation into a chastening discipline and ennobling pursuit. It owed to feudalism the conditions which enabled it to play its part; but it was no essential feature or direct offspring of feudalism; it was rather a corrective of the ferocity and injustice that make the chief reproach of feudal institutions.

The times of its beginning and ending, and its origin, are still controverted points among historians. But we cannot be far astray in limiting its flourishing period as an efficient and earnest motive and rule of action to the

twelfth and thirteenth centuries [roughly the period of the Crusades], though its spirit and forms can be traced much earlier, and, in show at least, are perceptible much later. Freeman sees the dawn of English chivalry in William Rufus's making a certain line of conduct "a point of honour"; and the French wars of Edward III display the glitter and affectations, the serious mockeries, that outlived the decay of real chivalry. [In its full development it consisted of three elements, viz., (1) military courage, (2) religious devotion, and (3) gallantry in the erotic sense of the term.] As to its origin, some find it in the Crusades, some in the necessity of confronting the evils that harassed France in the eleventh century by "a consecration of the arms of the strong"; and some in the slow rise to ascendancy of certain ideas and customs—one or two as old as the days of the Germania—amid the anarchy that followed the death of Charlemagne. This last seems the safest conclusion: the ceremonial with which a young German warrior assumed arms; the duty of serving on horseback laid on certain landholders in later times; and the personal attachment to a superior obligatory on an aspirant to a military career, needed but the glow of religious feeling and the sense of individual honour as the master-motive of action to complete the chivalrous character. For the grand creation and central figure of chivalry was the knight; and it is the union in him of religious fervour and sense of duty, with a recognition of honourable obligation, devotion to all women and constancy to one, and a horror of doing anything unworthy of a true knight, that is the very essence of the chivalric idea. Yet chivalry owed to the Crusades its summons into energetic life; in Milman's words, "all the noble sentiments which, blended together, are chivalry—the high sense of honour, the disdain of danger, the love of adventure, compassion for the weak or the oppressed, generosity, self-sacrifice, self-devotion for others—found in the Crusades their animating principle, perpetual occasion for their amplest exercise, their perfection and consummation." The unit of chivalry was the knight, or chevalier, and care was therefore taken to make and keep knighthood select. In most places, though not in all, gentle birth was a necessary qualification; from his seventh to his fourteenth year the aspirant must serve in some noble or knightly household as page or varlet; he had then to choose, from among the well-born ladies of the society he lived in someone as a special object of loyal devotion, and was allowed to receive at the altar from the hands of the priest the consecrated sword that proved him an esquire. His manifold duties as an esquire had as their general drift to make him perfect in the virtues and accomplishments of a knightly character. Having "borne him well" in his long and trying novitiate, he was "ordained" a knight with a most impressive ritual. After being bathed, and clothed in symbolic garments, he fasted for twenty-four hours, watched the arms he was to wear for a whole night in a church, confessed, communicated, had the sword that hung from his neck blessed by the priest, was armed by ladies or knights, and from one of the latter received the accolade. His most imperative obligations, taken on oath, were: to serve God and his prince; to uphold the weak; to be true to his word; to despise gain; to love honour; to persist to the end in any adventure he undertook; to reverence purity in women; to be faithful, courteous and humble; and to protect maidens from danger and insult.

Chivalry had its absurd side: in its name men now and then played very fantastic tricks. Single combats, tournaments, jousts, the splendid frivolities dear to an age of empty show, were its outcome. But its nobler gifts to mankind far outweigh these; from it sprang the Knights Hospitaller and the Teutonic Order, which, along with not a little that is questionable, certainly bore excellent fruit. Above all, it set a curb on the passions of men, and thus softened the horrors of war; held up before them an elevating ideal; made active the virtues of loyalty, courtesy, respect for women, valour, justice, and veracity. Its chief bequest to mankind was the "chastity of honour which felt a stain like a wound," which still lives. It is significant, too, that the clearest English eye of the fourteenth century saw in the knight "who lovede chivalrie"

"Trouthe and honour, fredom and curtesie."

K. H. Digby, "Broad Stone of Honour," 1822; L. Gautier, "La Chevalerie," 1883; F. W. Cornish, "Chivalry," 1901. [J. R.]

Chivalry, The Court of, was held before the constable and the marshal of England for the trial of military offences, and for the decision of questions relating to coat armour, personal honour, and the like. By 13 Rich. II, c. 2, it is declared that the court has cognizance over all matters of this kind, except such as may be determined by the common law. The court has long ceased to be held; the last instance of its sitting being in 1737.

Chronicles constitute one of the two main categories into which the sources for the history of mediæval England are divided. Although the record undoubtedly affords a sounder basis of historical investigation and is increasingly relied upon by the modern historian, the chronicle is and must always be largely used as a source of continuous historical narrative. It has the merit of being more readily accessible, superficially easier to study, more connected, readable, and colourful than the record, which yields its secrets only to the trained investigator after laborious and detailed research. The earliest chronicles were ecclesiastical in origin. The art of historical writing developed in England as a result of the evangelization of the English people in the course of the seventh century; and the first schools of history were the monas-

teries. The great Benedictine abbeys acted as clearing houses of historical information, and, paradoxically, the men who lived withdrawn from the world became the chief purveyors of the world's news. The "Ecclesiastical History" of Bæda (q.v.), the monk of Jarrow, affords the most striking instance in pre-Norman times of the pitch of perfection to which historiography might be carried even under the restrictions and limitations imposed by the cloistral life. In comparison with it the Anglo-Saxon Chronicles (q.v.) sink to the status of mere annals.

In the later Middle Ages the greatest centre of historical composition in England was the abbey of St. Albans, which achieved its highest fame during the thirteenth century, and produced in Matthew Paris (q.v.) perhaps the finest, certainly the best known and most popular of our mediæval historians. With the death of Henry III, however, a definite falling off becomes apparent in the work not only of the school of St. Albans, where Rishanger continued somewhat inadequately the tradition of Wendover and Paris, but in monastic chronicles generally; and the decline was progressive throughout the fifteenth century. The monastic monopoly, never complete, now showed signs of a total breakdown. The succession of "secular" historians, represented in the twelfth century by such names as those of Henry, archdeacon of Huntingdon; Ralph de Diceto, dean of St. Paul's, and Roger of Hoveden, clerk of Henry II's court, was maintained in the fourteenth century by writers such as Avesbury, Baker, and Murimuth; but of much greater significance was the appearance of the civic chronicler, of whom Arnold Fitz-Thedmar, author of the "Liber de Antiquis Legibus," may be cited as an example. By the Lancastrian period the line of monastic chroniclers had almost reached its end. The great schools of the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries were represented for the most part by continuators, whose work was jejune, formal, and unsatisfactory. On the other hand, the town chronicles, and especially the chronicles of London, had acquired an authority and importance unprecedented in the earlier period. No less significant was the gradual substitution at that date of the vernacular for the traditional Latin as a medium of expression. It was in the fifteenth century that the English chronicles of London began to take shape, and that the compilation of the great English chronicle of the "Brut" was undertaken to provide a contemporary authority for popular reading. These changes in the language and the provenance of our main historical sources were symptomatic of a deeper and more far-reaching change which was in progress. The Middle Ages were passing, and at the beginning of the Tudor period we find ourselves on the threshold of a new epoch in both history and historical literature. The growth of national consciousness, the rise of the commercial classes, and the revival of learning wrought a change alike in the spirit and the content of historical writing; and the disappearance of the mediæval chronicle may be said to synchronize with the invention of the printing press, and the first stirrings of the literary Renaissance.

A list of some of the more important chronicles of the mediæval period is appended :—

THE ANGLO-SAXON PERIOD

"Anglo-Saxon Chronicle," The. Ed. B. Thorpe, Rolls Series, 2 vols., 1861; ed. C. Plummer, 2 vols., 1892–9.
"Annales Cambriæ." Ed. J. Williams, R. S., 1860.
Asser. "De Rebus Gestis Alfredi." Ed. W. H. Stevenson, 1904.
Bæda (Bede), "Historia Ecclesiastica Gentis Anglorum." Ed. C. Plummer, 2 vols., 1896 (trans. in Everyman's Library, 1910).
Ethelweard. "Chronicon." Ed. Petrie, Monumenta Historica Britannica, 1848.
Gildas. "De Excidio Britanniæ." Ed. J. Stevenson, English Historical Society, 1838; Monumenta Germaniæ Historica, xiii.
Nennius. "Historia Brittonum." Monumenta Germaniæ Historica, xiii.

THE POST-NORMAN PERIOD TO C. 1485

(i) *The Normans and Early Angevins*, 1066–1216

Canterbury, Gervase of. "Historical Works." Ed. W. Stubbs, R. S., 2 vols., 1879–80.
Coggeshall, Ralph of. "Chronicon Anglicanum." Ed. J. Stevenson, R. S., 1875.
Coventry, Walter of. "Historical Collections." Ed. W. Stubbs, R. S., 2 vols., 1872–3.
Devizes, Richard of. "De Rebus Gestis Ricardi Primi," 1189–92. Ed. R. Howlett, R. S., in "Chronicles of the Reigns of Stephen, Henry II, and Richard I," 1886.
Diceto, Ralph de. "Opera Historica." Ed. W. Stubbs, R. S., 2 vols., 1876.
Durham, Simeon of. "Opera Omnia." Ed. T. Arnold, R. S., 2 vols., 1882–5.
Eadmer. "Historia Novorum," Ed. M. Rule, R. S., 1884.
"Gesta Stephani Regis Anglorum," 1135–47. Ed. R. Howlett, "Chronicles and Memorials of the Reigns of Stephen, Henry II, and Richard I," R. S., 1886.
Giraldus Cambrensis. "Opera." Ed. Brewer, Dimock, and Warner, R. S., 8 vols., 1861.
Hexham, Richard of. "Historia de Gestis Regis Stephani." Ed. R. Howlett, "Chronicles of the Reigns of Stephen," etc., R. S., 1886.
Hoveden, Roger of. "Chronica." Ed. W. Stubbs, R. S., 4 vols., 1868–71.
Huntingdon, Henry of. "Historia Anglorum." Ed. T. Arnold, R. S., 1879.
Malmesbury, William of. "Gesta Regum," "Historiæ Novellæ." Ed. W. Stubbs, R. S., 2 vols., 1887–9.
Newburgh, William of. "Historia Rerum Anglicanum." Ed. R. Howlett, "Chronicles of the Reigns of Stephen," etc., R. S., 1884–5.
Ordericus Vitalis. "Historia Ecclesiastica." Ed. A. le Prévost, Société de l'Histoire de France, 5 vols., 1838–55.
Peterborough, Benedict of. "Gesta Regis Henrici Secundi." Ed. W. Stubbs, R. S., 2 vols., 1867.
Poitiers, William of. "Gesta Willelmi Ducis Normannorum," etc. Migne, "Patrologia Latina," 149.
Torigni, Robert of. "Chronica." Ed. R. Howlett, "Chronicles of the Reigns of Stephen," etc., R. S., 1889.
Wendover, Roger of. "Flores Historiarum." Ed. H. O. Coxe, E. H. S., 4 vols., 1841–4; and H. G. Hewlett, R. S., 3 vols., 1886–9.
Worcester, Florence of. "Chronicon ex Chronicis." Ed. B. Thorpe, E. H. S., 2 vols., 1848–9.

(ii) *The Later Plantagenets*, 1216–1377

"Annales Londonienses." Ed. W. Stubbs, R. S., 1882.
"Annales Monastici." Ed. H. R. Luard, R. S., 1884, etc., 5 vols., including the Annals of Bermondsey, Burton, Dunstable, Oseney, Tewkesbury, Waverley, Winchester, Worcester.
Avesbury, Robert of. "De Gestis Mirabilibus regis Edwardi Tertii." Ed. E. M. Thompson, R. S., 1889.

Baker, Geoffrey le. "Chronicon." Ed. E. M. Thompson, 1889.
Blaneford, Henry de. "Chronica," 1323–4. Ed. H. T. Riley, R. S., 1866.
"Chronicon Anglie." Ed. E. M. Thompson, R. S., 1874.
"Chronicon de Lanercost." Ed. J. Stevenson, Bannatyne Club, 1839.
Coggleshall, Ralph of. (Vide supra, under (i).)
Cotton, Bartholomew. "Historia Anglicana." Ed. H. R. Luard, R. S., 1859.
Coventry, Walter of. (Vide supra, under (i).)
"Flores Historiarum." Ed. H. R. Luard, 3 vols., R. S., 1890.
Hemingburgh, Walter of. "Chronicon." Ed. H. C. Hamilton, E. H. S., 2 vols.
Higden, Ranulph. "Polychronicon." Ed. Churchill Babington and J. R. Lumby, 9 vols., R. S., 1865–6.
Knighton, Henry. "Chronicon." Ed. J. R. Lumby, R. S., 2 vols., 1889–95.
"Mailros: Chronica de." Ed. Stevenson, Bannatyne Club, 1835.
Murimuth, Adam. "Continuatio Chronicorum." Ed. E. M. Thompson, R. S., 1889.
Paris, Matthew. "Chronica Majora." Ed. H. R. Luard, R. S., 7 vols., 1872–83; "Historia Anglorum." Ed. F. Madden, R. S., 3 vols., 1866–9.
Rishanger, William. "Chronica and Gesta Edwardi Primi." Ed. H. T. Riley, R. S., 1865.
Trivét, Nicholas. "Annales Sex Regum Anglie." Ed. T. Hog, E. H. S., 1845.
Trokelowe, John of. "Annales." Ed. H. T. Riley, R. S., 1866.
"Vita Edwardi II." Ed. W. Stubbs, "Chronicles of the Reigns of Edward I and Edward II," R. S., 1883.
Wendover, Roger of. (Vide supra, under (i).)

(iii) *The Lancastrian and Yorkist Periods*, 1377–1485

"Annales Ricardi II et Henrici IV." Ed. H. T. Riley, R. S., 1866.
Capgrave, John. "Chronicle of England"; "Liber de Illustribus Henricis." Ed. F. C. Hingeston, R. S., 1858.
Chronicle of the Reigns of Richard II, Henry IV, Henry V, and Henry VI. Ed. J. S. Davies, Camden Society, 1856.
"Chronicon Anglie de Regnis Henrici IV," etc. Ed. J. A. Giles, 1848.
"Chronicles of London." Ed. C. H. Kingsford, 1905.
"Croyland Chronicle" Continuator. Gale, "Scriptores," i.
Elmham, Thomas of. "Liber Metricus de Henrico Quinto." Ed. C. A. Cole, "Memorials of Henry V," R. S., 1858; "Gesta Henrici Quinti." Ed. B. Williams, E. H. S., 1850.
Gregory's Chronicle in "Historical Collections of a London Citizen." Ed. J. Gairdner, C. S., 1876.
Higden. "Polychronicon." Continuator. R. S., 1865–86.
Knighton. "Chronicon." Continuator, R. S., 1889–95.
Otterburne, Thomas of. "Chronica Regum Anglie." Ed. T. Hearne.
Usk, Adam of. "Chronicon." Ed. E. M. Thompson, Royal Soc. of Literature, 1876.
Walsingham, Thomas. "Historia Anglicana." Ed. H. T. Riley, R. S., 1863–4. "Ypodigma Neustriæ." Ed. H. T. Riley, R. S., 1876.
Warkworth, John. "Chronicle of the First Thirteen Years of the Reign of Edward IV." Ed. J. O. Haliwell, C. S., 1839.
Whethamstede, John. "Registrum." Ed. H. T. Riley, R. S., 1872.
Worcester, William of. "Annales Rerum Anglicanum." Ed. J. Stevenson in "Letters and Papers Illustrative of the Wars of the English in France," R. S., 1804.
Wyntoun, Andrew of. "The Origynale Cronykil of Scotland." Ed. D. Laing in "Historians of Scotland," 1872–9.

For fuller lists see:

C. Gross, "Sources and Literature of English History," 1915; W. Hunt and R. L. Poole, "Political History of England," Bibliographies to vols. i, ii, iii, and iv; R. W. Chambers, "England Before the Norman Conquest," 1926, notes on sources; M. A. Hennings, "England Under Henry III," 1924, Bibliography; D. Hughes, "Illustrations of Chaucer's England," 1919, Bibliography; J. H. Flemming, "England Under the Lancastrians," 1921, Bibliography; I. D. Thornley, "England Under the Yorkists," 1921, Bibliography.

See also:

R. L. Poole, "Chronicles and Annals," 1926; T. F. Tout, "The Study of Mediæval Chronicles"; C. Jenkins, "The Monastic Chronicler and the Early School of St. Albans," 1922; C. L. Kingsford, "English Historical Literature in the Fifteenth Century," 1913.

Church of England. Christianity came to Britain in the wake of the Roman occupation, and the British Church was so far organized that it sent three bishops to the Council of Arles in 314. [CHURCH, THE EARLY CELTIC.] The English invaders were heathens, and British Christianity was swept westward before them. The conversion of the English was effected by missionaries from Rome in the south, and missionaries from Iona in the north. As the ritual of these two sets of missionaries differed in some points, different usages were found to be productive of confusion, till at the Synod of Whitby (664) the Northumbrian kingdom adopted the Roman use; and from that time England obtained ecclesiastical unity as a daughter of the Church of Rome. The work of ecclesiastical organization was begun by Archbishop Theodore in 668, and the example of unity given by the Church was one of the chief influences to produce unity in the State. Church and State worked harmoniously together, and there were no questions to bring them into collision. The bishop sat by the side of the ealdorman in the shire court, and ecclesiastical causes were decided in the same way as others. [The names of Dunstan and Edgar are connected with the reform of monasticism in England, and with the close co-operation of Church and State before the Conquest.] The period of the Norman Conquest coincided with that of the ecclesiastical reforms wrought by Hildebrand on the continent; and the influence of his ideas is apparent in the ecclesiastical policy of William I. Ecclesiastical courts were established for ecclesiastical causes, which were to be tried by canonical, not by customary, law. This change was considered necessary for the sake of a uniform system of law, to introduce more regular discipline into the Church; but it resulted in later centuries in a vexatious extension of ecclesiastical jurisdiction, and led to the recognition of the right of appeal to the papal court, which proved harmful to the authority and independence of bishops. But while making this change, William I was careful to protect himself from papal interference by laying down three rules: (1) That the Pope of Rome should not be recognized as apostolic, except at the king's command, and that letters from the pope be first shown to the king. (2) That the resolutions of ecclesiastical synods should have no legal force till sanctioned by the king. (3) That no baron or royal servant be excommunicated except by the

king's consent. These regulations of William I adumbrate the possibilities of difficulty in the relations between Church and State which were speedily realized. Under Henry I, Archbishop Anselm raised the question of the lawfulness of lay investiture to a spiritual office. The tenure of clerical lands was, by the growth of the royal power, assimilated to that of lay. The nomination of bishops, and their investiture with the emblems of their spiritual dignity, had passed into the hands of the Crown. Hildebrand strove to check the growing secularization of the Church; but the State answered, with some show of reason, that it could not allow of the existence of powerful landholders who did not recognize the king as their lord. In England a compromise was at length made between Henry I and the pope. The king agreed that chapters should elect their bishops, but the election was to be made in the king's court; he gave up the investiture with ring and crosier, but the bishops were to do homage for their temporalities. The Crown retained the real appointment of bishops, and the rights of suzerainty over them, but abandoned its encroachments upon their spiritual dignity. Anselm showed that the Church was the only power which could withstand the tyranny of the Crown. In like manner, Becket resisted Henry II; and Bishop Hugh, of Lincoln, offered a constitutional resistance to the demands for money made in the name of Richard I. During the twelfth and thirteenth centuries the Church fought the battle of the people, while it defended its own rights against the threatening power of the king.

But though the Church succeeded in a measure in holding its own against the king, it was less successful against the pope. [The papacy as the *fons et origo* of ecclesiastical jurisdiction, exercised throughout the various countries of Europe in accordance with the precepts of canon law, secured a great influence through the ecclesiastical courts and the evocation of cases to Rome. Through the various monastic revivals of the tenth to the twelfth centuries, and the movement of the friars in the thirteenth, the papacy also gained emissaries in every country, and further strengthened its power.] The pope, as judge in all disputed cases, gained considerable power over episcopal elections, where disputes were frequent. In 1204 Pope Innocent III rejected the contending candidates for the see of Canterbury, proposed Stephen Langton, and confirmed his informal election without the king's consent. Gradually the king and the pope came to a sort of tacit understanding that they would share between them the appointment to bishoprics, and the result was that the powers of the chapters became more and more shadowy, till they practically died away. Papal provisions and reservations overrode the rights of patrons, and though the *Statute of Provisors* (1350, 1364, 1390) was enacted and re-enacted to check this abuse, the pope and the king found their interests to coincide in keeping a tolerably close partnership in the disposition of patronage. Yet the *Statute of Præmunire* (16 Rich. II, c. 5, 1393), which forbade the prosecution of suits in foreign courts, gave the king a powerful weapon against the pope, and was resented as an infringement of the papal supremacy. Papal taxation weighed heavily on the clergy, and the attempt made by Pope Boniface VIII to exempt them from national taxation was powerless before the resolute character of Edward I. [Papacy, Relations with.]

In the fourteenth century the results of the organization of the constitution by Edward I, and the steady growth of royal and papal interference with the appointment and powers of the bishops, gradually diminished the political influence of the Church, and its spiritual activity declined. The teaching of Wyclif marked dissatisfaction against the papacy, social discontent, and, in a minor degree, desire for doctrinal change. The social side of the Lollard movement was the most largely developed, and it was this especially that led to legislation against heresy. In 1401 was passed the statute *De Hæretico Comburendo* (2 Hen. IV, c. 15). The Church lost its hold upon the people, and became more and more dependent on the pope and the king. There was an acknowledgment of abuses on all sides, but there was no power to work a reformation. The machinery of the Church had been ruined by papal interference. Reform was possible only at Rome; but the popes showed no inclination to undertake it. The clergy gradually put themselves more and more under the royal protection as against the pope, till Henry VIII, freed from any power of the baronage and willing to serve the interests of the commons, found the Church reduced to obsequious dependence on the Crown. Henry VIII quarrelled with the papacy about one of the few points in which the papal interference with legislation was possible without the king's consent. At length he put forth the fullness of the royal power. By suppressing the monasteries, he deprived the Church of a third of its revenues and the papacy of its strongest outposts in England. He severed the union between the English and the Roman Churches, and compelled the reluctant clergy to recognize the king as supreme head of the Church in England. He practically deprived the Church of independent legislative power by requiring the royal licence for all decrees of convocation. Henry VIII broke with the papacy because the papacy was an obstacle in the way of his personal policy; but he aimed at a reformation of ecclesiastical practice and a readjustment of the ecclesiastical system to the needs of England as it was. Still, the breach with Rome would have been impossible to Henry VIII if there had not been a serious breach in the European obedience to the papacy. New theological opinions were rapidly spreading in Germany, representing the application of the ideas of the Renaissance to

Biblical studies, and had already attracted the attention of scholars in England; and Henry VIII's wish to confine his changes to mere points of ecclesiastical organization was impossible. Yet, so long as he lived he held the balance between the old and the new learning, and checked the progress of doctrinal change. Under Edward VI the reforming party came into power, and Archbishop Cranmer moved forward towards the German Protestants. The steps in his advance may be traced in the history of the formularies of the English Church, [notably in the First Prayer Book of Edward VI (1549) and the Second Prayer Book (1551).] [ARTICLES.] But the reforming party was a minority of the nation, and its rapid changes shocked the popular mind; it owed its political support to the selfish greed of a body of courtiers, who were willing to use the Reformation as a means of enriching themselves. Hence the reaction under Mary was greeted with delight; but it was too complete to be permanent. The Catholicism of Mary was anti-national, and the successive failures of Protestants and Catholics under Edward VI and Mary prepared the way for the religious settlement of Elizabeth.

Elizabeth reverted to the policy of her father, and strove to effect a compromise between the now hostile parties of the Catholics and Protestants. The Catholics held to the old formularies; the more advanced Protestants, who had been in exile during Mary's reign, had adopted the logical system of theology laid down by Calvin, and demanded that nothing should be adopted but what could be proved by Scripture to be true. Elizabeth favoured the opinion of the moderate Reformers, who held that nothing should be discarded but what could be shown from Scripture to be false. The Second Prayer Book of Edward VI was revised, and two statutes were passed in 1559 which established the legal relations between Church and State. The *Act of Supremacy* required all beneficed ecclesiastics, and all laymen holding office, to take the oath of supremacy, and renounce all foreign jurisdiction. The *Act of Uniformity* prohibited the use by any minister of any liturgy save that contained in the Prayer Book, and imposed a fine on all who absented themselves from church. The Liturgy and the Articles, under the direction of Archbishop Parker, were devised so as to retain some of the old uses, while purging them of much that might offend the Calvinistic party. The ideal of Elizabeth was comprehension uniformly enforced. It was impossible that such a scheme should be entirely successful; yet it so far succeeded that the national feeling of England gathered round the Church, which embraced the large majority of the people. But a considerable Catholic party stood aloof; and the excommunication of Elizabeth by the pope in 1570, the secret visits of Jesuit missionaries, and the plots in favour of Mary Queen of Scots, occasioned a rigorous persecution of the Catholics. Similarly, the Calvinistic party, or Puritans, disliked many practices of the prescribed ritual as superstitious, and disregarded them. In 1565 Archbishop Parker issued a book of regulations, known as the "Advertisements" (q.v.), which afterwards received the royal sanction. He attempted to enforce regularity in the conduct of services, and thereby only drove the Calvinists into more pronounced opposition. [It became evident that their opposition was not confined to nocent ceremonies, but aimed at the establishment of a Presbyterian government of the Church in the place of Episcopacy.] Yet the persecution of Archbishop Whitgift was injudicious and ineffective. The High Commission Court, to which was entrusted the ecclesiastical jurisdiction of the Crown, grew to be a means of royal tyranny.

One result of the legislation of Elizabeth was that the Church became definitely subordinate to the State; jurisdiction and legislation for the Church could only be exercised with the consent of the Crown, and the rites and discipline of the Church could not be altered without the consent of parliament. The appointment of bishops was exercised by the Crown, and Elizabeth demanded that they should be Crown officials, for the purpose of enforcing the ecclesiastical uniformity which she required. They became, and have to some extent still continued to be, disciplinary officers executing the law, rather than Fathers in God to their clergy. [Yet it was the determined retention of Episcopacy by Elizabeth, involving the continuity of episcopal administration, which ensured that the English Church should not follow the reformed churches of the continent. The Anglican position of the *via media* was expounded with great learning and judgment in the "Ecclesiastical Polity" of Richard Hooker.] On the death of Elizabeth there were loud demands for concessions. But James I lectured the Puritan ministers in the Hampton Court Conference (q.v.) (1604), and agreed to a few insignificant alterations in the Prayer Book which reconciled no one. Archbishop Bancroft continued the persecution of the Puritans, and deprived many Puritan clergy of their benefices. The Puritan party became more and more identified with the party of constitutional opposition to the Crown; and in the Church itself, in reaction against the Calvinistic system of theology and Church polity, a party began to arise which insisted on the necessity of Episcopacy as a divine institution, and, by excluding Presbyterians from the Catholic Church, seemed to draw nearer to the Church of Rome. This party advocated the divine right of kings, and preached the doctrine of passive obedience. Under Archbishop Laud it attained to great influence, and aided Charles I in his arbitrary and unconstitutional conduct. The result was that Puritanism in England combined with Presbyterianism in Scotland, Charles I lost his

throne and his life, and the Church of England was abolished. But rigid Presbyterianism would have laid a heavier yoke on England than the rigid Anglicanism of Laud. Cromwell gathered round him the sects, especially the Independents, and saved England from Presbyterianism by advocating the liberty of each congregation. But the Puritan supremacy was intolerable to England, and the restoration of Charles II brought back the Church of England, endeared to the people as a bulwark against Puritanism. There was some show of desire to meet the scruples of the Puritans, and a conference was held in the Savoy Palace, 1661. But Dr. Sancroft, who presided, was of an unyielding temper, and the demands of the Puritans were unreasonable. Both parties separated in anger. A few changes were made in the Prayer Book—but they increased rather than diminished the objections the Puritans had to it. Then, in 1662, was passed an Act of Uniformity, which required all beneficed clergy not only to use the Prayer Book, and that only, but also to declare "unfeigned assent and consent to all and everything contained and prescribed in it." About two thousand of the clergy were ejected from their benefices for refusing to make this declaration. Charles II was willing to grant indulgences to the Puritans, that he might also grant them to the Catholics. Parliament and the bishops regarded the maintenance of the Established Church as the only means of saving England from the dangers of complications in foreign politics which might come through Catholicism and the dangers of the tyranny of an organized minority in domestic affairs. The royal indulgence was opposed, and acts against Nonconformity rapidly succeeded one another; the Corporation Act, the Conventicle Act, the Five Mile Act, the Test Act, and the act for disabling Papists from sitting in either House of parliament, were all passed between 1661 and 1679. In 1664 an important change was made in the relations between Church and State. Hitherto the clergy had taxed themselves in convocation, but it was found that they consequently were taxed more heavily than the laity. In 1664 it was quietly agreed that the clergy should be taxed in the same manner as the laity—by parliament. Though convocation had lost its power of making canons without the king's consent, it still could petition for redress of grievances before granting supplies. Now that it ceased to grant supplies, its proceedings became merely formal, and it did not meet for business again throughout the reign of Charles II; and after giving occasion to a prolonged controversy from 1697 to 1717, it was not again summoned for business till 1861, when it was revived. [Convocation.]

The policy of Charles II seemed to favour the Catholics, and popular suspicion led to a persecution of the Catholics in consequence of the false evidence of a pretended Popish plot. Notwithstanding a vigorous attempt to exclude James II from the throne, on the ground that he was a Catholic, the general desire of England for a settled government led men to accept him as king. But James II strove to impose by his prerogative a toleration which would enable him to put Catholics in all the important offices of state. He ordered a general declaration of liberty of conscience suspending all penal laws about religion, to be read in all the churches. Seven bishops, headed by Archbishop Sancroft, petitioned the king to recall this order. They were committed to the Tower, and were brought to trial for uttering a libel against the king, and their acquittal was a sign of the public opinion against James, which led to the Revolution. The accession of William III and Mary was largely due to the general fear of Catholicism, illustrated by the fact that the Dissenters preferred to wait for toleration from the Church rather than to accept it unconstitutionally from the king. In 1689 a Toleration Act was passed, which granted some relief to the Dissenters, but none to the Catholics. Moreover, the Revolution overturned the doctrine of the divine right of kings, which had been a tenet of Anglicanism; and Archbishop Sancroft, with three hundred others, resigned their offices rather than take the oath of allegiance to William. The sect of the Non-jurors soon died away [and the Church repelled William III's plans for a "comprehension," which was intended to bring the great majority of Dissenters within the Establishment. In contrast to William III, who was disliked by the clergy as a Calvinist], Anne showed herself favourable to the Church, and in 1704 formed the fund which is known as Queen Anne's Bounty (q.v.), by giving up for the augmentation of small benefices certain ecclesiastical dues which the English Crown had inherited as the heir of the papal claims. The old High Church doctrines of divine right and of passive obedience were revived in a modified form, and the impeachment of an obscure divine, Dr. Sacheverell, for a sermon condemning the Revolution, was one of the causes of the fall of the Whig ministry. The toleration given to Dissenters under William III was diminished by the act of 1711 against occasional conformity, and the Schism Act of 1714, which required all teachers to have a licence from a bishop. But these were the last acts which savoured of exclusiveness. [The Hanoverian succession in 1714 involved the triumph of the Whigs, and the Church had to face the difficult task of reconciling its interests with the regime of Whig domination. In 1719 the Occasional Conformity and Schism Acts were repealed], and a yearly Act of Indemnity began to be passed in 1727 for Dissenters who held office contrary to prohibitive acts. From this time forward there was a gradual progress in practical tolerance, and in the last thirty years of the century efforts were made, with some success, to repeal the disabling acts. The Corporation and Test Acts were not, how-

ever, repealed till 1828, and in 1829 the Catholic Relief Bill became law. [The Church of the eighteenth century was chiefly occupied in the conflict with Deism and in the effort to adjust its doctrines to the discoveries of natural science and the dim beginnings of Biblical criticism. This task was undertaken largely by the latitudinarian school of divines.]

Meanwhile, religious decline had invaded the Church and Nonconformists alike. This was broken by the efforts of the Wesleys and Whitefield, and their movement to Christianize the masses met with great success. It was looked upon by the Church with coldness that deepened into fear, lest there should be a recurrence of the excesses of the Commonwealth period, and Wesley's followers formed themselves into a sect known by the name of Methodists. This movement largely swelled the ranks of Nonconformity, but also awakened the zeal of the Church and influenced the Evangelical Revival. Still, at the beginning of the nineteenth century, the Church was violently assailed by Nonconformists; ecclesiastical abuses were remorselessly exposed, and claims resting solely on the fact that they were " by law established " were seen by their champions to be untenable. The wave of Liberalism that carried the Reform Bill was seen to be dangerously threatening the Church itself. In the earlier portion of the nineteenth century the most active party in the Church were the revived Puritans, under Simeon and Melvill. A movement which had its seat at Oxford, and was begun by Newman, Keble, Pusey, and Hurrell Froude, revived the old High Church party. In a flow of tracts and pamphlets the leaders of this movement laboured to restore the dogmatic basis of the Church. Their propositions awakened considerable alarm, which increased when some of the leading minds, notably Newman and Ward, joined the Church of Rome. Theological activity again awakened, and questions as to the limits of comprehension allowed by the formularies of the Church of England to its clergy were raised with much frequency. When these questions had slightly subsided, another of equal importance emerged—that of the limits allowed to the clergy in criticizing the Scriptures, and of individual opinion as to their interpretation. The result of this revival of theological interest was to bring forward many points for settlement. In early times appeals in cases of dispute were decided by the pope; after the Reformation they were decided by the king in council, and a Court of Delegates was appointed when occasion required. In 1832 this Court of Delegates was abolished, and ecclesiastical appeals were transferred to the appellate jurisdiction of the king in council. In the first heat of party feeling, the composition of this court was not much regarded; but more recently this question has become one of the chief difficulties in the relations between Church and State. Another consequence of theological differences was to show that the Church was powerless to influence the appointment of bishops by the Crown. In 1847 objections were made on theological grounds to the appointment of Dr. Hampden to the see of Hereford; but it was found that there was no legal means of having these objections brought to trial. In 1861 the meetings of convocation were revived, and though the constitution of that body is not entirely representative of the clergy, it gives expression to many of their grievances. By its agency a revision of the translation of the Bible was undertaken. In 1886 a representative House of Laymen for the province of Canterbury—a body from the purview of which matters of doctrine are excluded—held its first sitting. The Church during the nineteenth century became vigorous and more highly organized, and recognized within its body considerable variations of theological opinion. On the other hand, Nonconformists have been freed from all disabilities and from all legal obligations towards the Church. An act passed in 1868 abolished compulsory Church rates for the maintenance of parish churches, and the Burials Act of 1880 permitted Nonconformists to bury their dead in the parish churchyards with their own rites and ceremonies. [M. C.; N. S.]

[The most remarkable characteristics of the Church in the twentieth century have been the alteration in the position and influence of its respective parties, and the renewed agitation of the question of the relations between Church and State. The revival of dogmatic theology created by the Oxford Movement has resulted in the growth of the Anglo-Catholic party, which, comprising a large section of the clergy and a considerable number of the laity, makes its appeal away from the Thirty-Nine Articles of the sixteenth century to the decrees of the early general councils and to the tradition of the undivided Church. The influence of this party has also led to a considerable enrichment of the ceremonial of public worship and to a renewed study of liturgical principles. On the other hand, the rapid growth of the movement of Biblical criticism has given a new impetus to the old Broad Church party, and, whilst seriously affecting the position of the older Evangelicals, has led to the emergence of a new party of Modernist Churchmen, and of Liberal Evangelicals. In the political sphere the passing of the Welsh Church Disestablishment Act raised the question of the relations of Church and State in England. The agitation culminated in the passing of the *Church of England Assembly* (*Powers*) *Act* in December 1919. This act provided for the creation of a National Assembly consisting of three Houses, of bishops, clergy, and laity. The first two Houses were identical in personnel with the Upper and Lower Houses of Convocation of both provinces, and the House of Laity was to be elected by the various diocesan conferences *pro rata*, and to be representative indirectly of the parochial church councils which were

henceforth to be set up in every parish. The assembly was empowered to prepare measures of ecclesiastical reform to be laid before parliament. In parliament these measures were to be considered by a special ecclesiastical committee of both Houses, which was to report in favour of, or against, the proposals sent to them. All measures were to be laid before parliament for a specified period, during which a debate could be challenged. If no debate were challenged, and the report of the ecclesiastical committee was in the affirmative, the measure was passed automatically at the end of the stated period, and presented to the king for his assent. But the powers of parliament were limited by its inability to alter any measure, which must be accepted or rejected *in toto*. If the ecclesiastical committee reported against any measure, the legislative committee of the national assembly could withdraw that measure. Since the creation of this assembly several acts of a non-controversial character have been passed; such as the *Clergy Pensions Act*, and various acts for the creation of new bishoprics, e.g., of Leicester and Blackburn. Two measures have been defeated, the Bishopric of Shrewsbury Bill, in the House of Lords, and a bill relating to certain churches of the City of London, in the House of Commons. These two defeats raised doubts as to the practical possibilities of the reforms created by the *Church of England Assembly (Powers) Act*. But it was recognized that the most controversial question was still to come. The task of the revision of the Prayer Book, necessitated by the growth both of the Anglo-Catholic party and of the movement of Biblical criticism, and undertaken by the Church in response to Royal Letters of Business issued to the convocations, entered upon its final stage in 1927.

The Deposited Book received the assent both of convocation and of the national assembly, and was presented to parliament in December 1927; the House of Lords passed the measure by 241 votes to 88, but the Commons rejected it by 238 votes to 205. The House of Bishops decided to make certain modifications in the Book, and to present it, thus modified, again to the Commons. Accordingly, after it had passed through the convocations and the national assembly, it was laid before parliament. On June 14, 1928, the House of Commons rejected it by 266 votes to 220. It is obvious that the two adverse decisions of the Commons have raised in an acute form the problem of the relations of Church and State. Parliament has retained its sovereign authority to reject, though it cannot amend, ecclesiastical bills. But the possibility of a severance of the traditional connexion of Church and State in England is now more immediate than it has ever been before. At least it is clear that the Enabling Act has not effected a solution of the problem, with which it was intended to deal.

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[N. S.]

Church of Ireland, The. Ireland was converted to Christianity by St. Patrick, in the latter half of the fifth century. The faith of the new Church was that of the rest of Western Christendom. Her discipline, owing to the geographical isolation of the country, became distinctive. Diocesan organization as understood in countries under Roman law was unknown. The Irish Church was adapted to the principles of tribal government, that is to say that each church or monastic establishment was practically independent. It was only after some hundreds of years that certain national peculiarities such as the form of the Irish tonsure and the old date of keeping Easter were abandoned, and that the supremacy of the see of Armagh was assured.

The tribal constitution of the Celts made them monks. Their old roving spirit made them missionaries. As both they exercised a lasting influence over European Christianity. They helped to convert England, and left it the most monastic of Latin Churches. In the twelfth century Germany was studded with their monasteries. They were the apostles of Franconia and Carinthia. From Naples to Iceland they have left their names. But it was in Gaul that the Irish set an enduring mark on Western civilization. Towards the close of the sixth century St. Columban settled at Luxeuil, in the Vosges, and from that centre colonized the classic land of Latin monasticism. His disciples conformed to the wiser rule of Benedict, and were absorbed in the Benedictine order. But their labours led to the Benedictine settlement of Burgundy. Their monasteries, planted in the darkest days of Western Christianity, prepared the way for Clugny, for Cîteaux, and for Clairvaux, for Pope Gregory VII, and St. Bernard. When the monk-popes of Burgundy saved Christendom from an hereditary priesthood, the danger was, perhaps, greatest in the tribal church of Ireland. But the popes themselves were reared by the children of Columban. St. Malachy (1095–1148), who had been brought early under the influence of Rome, introduced the new discipline into Ireland. The Norse invasions had destroyed the monasteries. The lay administrators of the Church lands had encroached upon the title and the prerogatives of the abbots. Malachy reformed Bangor. He was nominated Archbishop of Armagh by

Celsus, the hereditary incumbent. After a long struggle with the assertors of the tribal principle, he found himself acknowledged as primate in 1133. He visited Clairvaux. He left his companions with Bernard for instruction. He journeyed to Rome, and was appointed legate by Innocent II. On his return he founded the Cistercian house of Mellifont, in Louth, the first regular monastery in Ireland. Eight years later he again passed into Gaul to receive the pallium from Eugenius IV. But his strength failed him at Clairvaux. He died under the roof of his friend and master in 1148. Four years after his death Cardinal John Paperon and Christian, Bishop of Lismore, presided as papal legates over a council at Mellifont. The four metropolitan sees were established, an attempt was made to introduce the canonical restraints on marriage, and some minor abuses were corrected. Many other synods were held in the twelfth century. Those of Cashel (1172) and Dublin (1186) are the most important. The first tried to introduce the payment of tithes and other English observances. The second confined itself to regulating the ritual. In both there is a marked tendency to conform to the Roman discipline. By the end of the century the traditional monasticism was everywhere superseded by the rule of the Augustinian canons. The learning of the older monks is proved by the testimony of Bæda, by the classical manuscripts in their peculiar character still scattered over Europe, and by the bold and often unorthodox doctrines they maintained. Virgilius taught the existence of the antipodes in the eighth century, John Scotus Erigena upheld the views of Origen in the ninth, and Macarius seems, in some points, to have anticipated the theories of Spinoza.

From their first conversion the Danes of the eastern seaboard looked upon the tribal church as irregular. Their endeavours to place themselves under the jurisdiction, first of the Norwegian, and afterwards of the English primate, led to a separation between the two Irish Churches, which in one form or other has lasted to the present time. Bishops of Dublin, Waterford, and Limerick were consecrated by the English primates from the days of Lanfranc. The establishment of the metropolitan sees by Eugenius was resented in England as an infringement of the rights of Canterbury. From the coming of the Normans to the final enforcement of Protestantism under Charles I, the mutual animosity of the natives and the colonists deepened the estrangement between Dublin and Armagh. Irish clerks and Irish monks were excluded from English benefices and English monasteries, while the Saxon was shut out from foundations beyond the Pale. At length the Reformation freed Dublin from its dependence by an order in council (1551).

The mendicants reached Ireland soon after their foundation, and have ever since rendered great services to their Church. Even before the Reformation "no person of the Church, high or low, great or small, English or Irish, used to preach the word of God, saving the poor friar beggars." Ecclesiastical discipline had perished in the general desolation. Great foundations like Clonmacnoise and Ardagh were without vestments and church plate. Walled towns alone possessed means for the decent conduct of public worship.

The earlier measures of Henry VIII met with little opposition. The declaration of the royal supremacy (28 Henry VIII, c. 13) was accepted by the Catholics of the Pale, and generally disregarded by the Celts. The only protest against the dissolution of the monasteries came from the deputy and council, who regarded it as a blow fatal to the education "of the whole Englishry of this land." The attempt made in 1551 to force the ritual of 1549 upon the Irish was the first step which provoked resistance. The new doctrines were preached in a foreign tongue. The new preachers were time-servers, and men of scandalous lives. Zealous Protestants refused the cure of souls whom they could not hope to instruct. On the death of Edward VI the old rites were restored, and the Protestant prelates withdrew. The religious policy of Elizabeth is well illustrated by her reply to Hugh O'Neill's demand for liberty of conscience. "Her Majesty hath tolerated herein hitherto, and so in likelihood she will continue the same." Catholicism was a real danger to an excommunicated sovereign, and there were too many Irish Catholics in the queen's armies for a systematic persecution of the Catholic faith. The steps which gradually led to the fusion of the Anglo-Normans of the Pale, and their old enemies the Celts, into a "quasi-nation," have been indicated in the general article on Ireland. Careful provision for the Anglican Church was made in the plantation under James I, and again at the Restoration. But her position was essentially weak. The highest offices were invariably filled with English courtiers. The Archbishop of Dublin was usually one of the chief parliamentary managers for the Crown. Non-residence was shamefully common amongst the dignitaries of the Establishment, while extreme poverty hampered the usefulness of the country parsons. Their missionary efforts bore little fruit, but as resident country gentlemen they did much to improve the social condition of the people. The provisions of the penal code affecting Catholic laymen belong to the political history of Ireland. But there were many special laws aimed directly at the priesthood. By an act of 1703 all priests were compelled to register their names and addresses, and take the oath of allegiance. Over a thousand obeyed. In 1709 they were required to take the oath of abjuration, which they believed to be unlawful. Fewer than forty submitted. The rest incurred the penalty of banishment for life, and of death

if they returned. All the dignitaries of the Church, from archbishops to vicars-general, all friars, and all unregistered priests were liable to the pains of treason. Catholic education was absolutely forbidden, while the proselytism of the Charter Schools (1733—q.v.) was encouraged by heavy subsidies, and special legislative restrictions on the natural rights of parents. The penal system inflicted frightful evils on the country, but of course failed of its object. From the first, "Popish priests spared not to come out of Spain, from Rome and from Reimes, only to draw the people into the Church of Rome." Even in the worst days bishops, arch-priests, and vicars-general lurked disguised in obscure farmhouses. In 1732 there were 892 mass-houses, served by 1,445 priests, besides regulars, in the kingdom. Twenty years later an organized hierarchy of twenty-four archbishops and bishops administered the Church, under the general supervision of the nuncio at Brussels. The prelates were still nominated by the exiled Stuarts. After the middle of the eighteenth century many causes tended to promote a general toleration. The spirit of Locke and Hoadly prevailed amongst educated Protestants. Educated Catholics brought home the doctrines of the Encyclopédie from France. A Gallican tinge pervaded the priesthood. The bishops of Munster were censured by the Propaganda for approving the oath embodied in 13 and 14 George III, c. 35. The teaching of Abernethy and of Francis Hutcheson had diffused a rationalistic spirit amongst the Ulster Presbyterians. The schisms of the "New Lights" in 1726, and of the rigid Covenanters twenty years later, broke their power. The toleration of 1778 sprang, as Charlemont said, "rather from fashionable Deism than from Christianity, which is now unfortunately much out of fashion." But the latitudinarian phase soon passed away. The Evangelical movement and the Ultramontane revival embittered the animosities caused by the rebellion and its suppression, by O'Connell's agitations, by the Church Temporalities Act of 1833, the appropriation clause of 1835, the tithe war, and the education question. The position of the Establishment was indefensible. The enfranchisement of the Catholics (1793) sealed its doom. The Protestants realized their danger, and made an express guarantee of the rights of the Church an indispensable condition of the Union. This policy was for a time successful, but no guarantee could permanently maintain so glaring an abuse. In March 1868 Gladstone carried resolutions condemning the existence of the Church as an Establishment. A dissolution followed in the autumn, and the Liberals acceded to power. In the first session of the new parliament an act "to put an end to the Established Church in Ireland, and to make provision in respect of the temporalities thereof," became law. The Episcopalians availed themselves of the change thus wrought in their position to revise their constitution and liturgy in an anti-sacerdotal sense. The Catholic Church has made great material progress during the last half-century, while her discipline has been thoroughly reformed under the vigorous rule of a new school of prelates. "Secularism" has of late begun to threaten her political power. The Presbyterians are still the strongest and most numerous communion in the North.

Reeves's ed. of Adamnan's "Life of St. Columba," and the scattered papers of the same writer in the "Proceedings of the Royal Irish Academy"; "Liber Ardmachanus" (ed. Gwynn); C. Plummer, "Vitæ Sanctorum Hiberniæ" (2 vols.); Archdale, "Monasticon Hibernicum" (ed. Moran); Stokes, "Ireland and the Celtic Church"; Moran, "History of the Catholic Archbishops of Dublin," etc.; Bellesheim, "Geschichte der katholischen Kirche in Irland" (3 vols.); Mant, "History of the Church of Ireland (episcopalian)"; Reid, "History of the Presbyterian Church." The best general sketch since the Reformation will be found in Lecky's "History of Ireland in the Eighteenth Century."

[J. W. F.]

Church of Scotland, The. There is no documentary authority previous to the ninth century for the title "Scottish Church," but there is reliable evidence that in the beginning of the fifth century Christianity reached North Britain. The names of three men deserve mention in the annals of that evangelism—Ninian, Kentigern, and Columba. St. Ninian was a Briton who had visited Rome and later became a disciple of St. Martin of Tours, and his centre of missionary activity was the Candida Casa near Whithorn in Galloway. He laboured amongst the Picts, and recent research has accumulated evidence that in St. Ninian's days (400–32) the Pictish Church exerted a wide influence. St. Kentigern was also of British race and his work was done in Strathclyde. It was he who founded a religious community at Cathures, the site of the modern Glasgow, with the cathedral of which his name was afterwards associated. But the most virile of the three pioneers was St. Columba, who in 563 landed in Iona. He was a Scot, one of a race which inhabited the north of Ireland and had already sent colonists to Dalriada (Argyll) in Northern Britain. St. Columba (521–97) was a monk, an aristocrat, and a statesman; and he deserves his title of the "Apostle of Scotland." The range of his activities and the completeness of his ecclesiastical organization have been exaggerated by chroniclers, mediæval and modern, but it is undoubted that the Columban Church was for centuries a bulwark against paganism in North Britain and a missionary inspiration of Northumbria in the years before St. Augustine reached Southern Britain. The Celtic Church had a just and considerable reputation for its learning, piety, and evangelism. It was monastic, and in its regime the abbot was superior to the bishop, but any divergence from the doctrine and ritual of the Western Church was unconscious rather than deliberate.

In the seventh century, however, the Columban Church was at issue with the Roman Church in England on some matters of ecclesiastical usage, and the decision of the Synod of Whitby gradually wrought a change in its worship and organization. For three centuries the Scottish Church had a precarious hold on the loyalty of the races in Scotland, and was sorely in need of reawakening. That work was effectively begun by Margaret, an English princess who had retired northward at the time of the Norman Conquest and had found refuge and queenly rank at the court of Malcolm Canmore. The friend of Lanfranc, she did not rest until she had brought the Scottish Church into conformity with that of western Europe. Her son, David, carried on what she had begun, and his beneficence was so lavish that it earned for him the epithet of "a sair saint for the crown." David I was not only the founder of feudal Scotland, he was the inspiration of the mediæval Scottish Church. At the close of his reign (1124–53) there were at least nine bishoprics in his country, the formation of a parochial system had begun, and several distinguished monastic orders had been introduced. The face of the Church had been radically changed. But the reorganized Church had soon to meet serious difficulty. Just as English sovereigns were incessant in their claims of lordship over Scotland, so the archbishops of the Church of England claimed a spiritual supremacy. In 1188, however, Pope Clement III rescued the Church of Scotland from the dominance of its neighbour, and declared it to be "a daughter of Rome by special grace and immediately subject to her." The Scottish Church regarded this dependence as its best proof of independence of alien power. During the War of Independence the Church was loyal to Bruce and in great measure helped him to win his campaign. Naturally, churchmen took an increasing share in the governance of Scotland, for such learning as they had made inevitable their appointment to the chief offices of state when their fidelity to the crown was proved. Though the influence of the clergy in fostering education has been exaggerated by the romantic school of historians, it is true that the Church played a considerable part in promoting national culture, and out of the schools connected with cathedrals or monastic foundations there grew the grammar schools of later days. Any interest in music, art, and architecture that marked mediæval Scotland was largely inspired by the Church, and the regular clergy helped the Scottish people to learn agriculture and did much to foster trade and manufacture. The Scottish Church in 1225 received from Honorius III the privilege of holding a Provincial Council despite her lack of a metropolitan, an ecclesiastical defect which was not remedied before 1472 when St. Andrews was erected into an archbishopric. The fifteenth century was notable for the foundation of three out of the four universities of Scotland—St. Andrews (1411), Glasgow (1450), and Aberdeen (1494)—and these were essentially Church institutions. But during that century the Scottish Church, powerful as it was in national politics, disclosed many signs of spiritual impotence. The *Statutes* of the Church are proof of the vain endeavour of her leaders to set their house in order, and the populace, sullen in their grievance against papal taxation and clerical control of the nation's wealth, were prepared to sympathize with any reformation which promised freedom. The burning of John Resby at Perth and Paul Craw, a Bohemian, at St. Andrews, indicated that heresy had infected Scotland before the middle of the fifteenth century. Despite the efforts of the Crown and the Church the "new doctrines" caught the imagination and held the loyalty of many Scots people. The Beatons exemplified the wealth, political power, and dominance of the Church to such an extent that the nobles grew jealous of their despotism and wavered in their support of the traditional policy of close alliance with France. Patrick Hamilton (1528) (q.v.) and George Wishart (1546) (q.v.) were put to death as heretics, and the assassination of Cardinal David Beaton (q.v.), a base reprisal for ecclesiastical persecution, set in motion a religious revolution. [REFORMATION IN SCOTLAND.] The work of John Knox (q.v.) was trenchantly carried on by Andrew Melville, who gave to the Scottish Church its characteristic stamp of Presbyterianism. But most of the seventeenth century had passed before the victory of Presbyterianism over Episcopacy was assured. The Stuart dynasty clung to the divine-right theory of sovereignty and sought to impress their will upon the Scottish people. The general assembly in Scotland attempted the task that in England fell to parliament, and in 1638 the ecclesiastical policy of James I and his son, Charles, was overthrown with violence. Charles II, aided by the dissensions of the Covenanters, restored an episcopal polity which endured until the high-handed governance of James II brought ruin to the Stuart kings and triumph for the Scottish Presbyterians in 1689. From 1690 until the present time the Scottish Church has been established in its preferred polity. During the century and a half that followed the settlement the Church was weakened by secessions that were brought about by acute dissension regarding purity of evangelical doctrine and the rights of patronage. In 1733 the first break took place, in 1761 there was a second, and in 1843 the Church suffered its severest disruption. The latter half of the nineteenth century, however, was notable for a movement of reunion of the broken parts of the Scottish Church, and in 1900 the United Free Church of Scotland was formed by the union of the Free Church and the United Presbyterian Church. The Church of Scotland in 1909 began negotiations with the United Free Church with a view to union of these Churches, and in 1926 so much progress had been made that the movement appeared to be within reach of success.

[Church, the Early Celtic; Scotland; Reformation in Scotland.]

Skene, "Celtic Scotland"; Macewen, "History of the Church in Scotland"; Cunningham, "Church History of Scotland"; Grub, "Ecclesiastical History of Scotland," and "The Church of Scotland" (ed. Story); P. Hume Brown, "History of Scotland"; Mathieson, "Politics and Religion in Scotland," etc.

[A. M.]

Church of Wales, The. The peculiar features of the Early British Church were gradually disappearing when they were swept away by the Norman Conquest, and by the reform inspired by Pope Gregory VII. The bishoprics of St. Davids and Llandaff became subject to Canterbury with the Norman Conquest of South Wales. The two northern dioceses of Bangor and St. Asaph are usually said to owe their obedience to the successors of St. Thomas to Archbishop Baldwin (q.v.), the ostensible purpose of whose tour in Wales in 1188 was the preaching of the Third Crusade. Normans and Anglo-Normans took the place of the Welsh bishops at St. Davids and Llandaff as they took the places of the Anglo-Saxon bishops of England. Until the Edwardian conquest of the principality the northern bishoprics, especially that of Bangor, were held by Welsh ecclesiastics. Even after 1282 many of the higher clergy in the diocese of Bangor were Welshmen, a fact which seems to show that the exclusion of Welshmen from the sees of St. Davids and Llandaff was due to the influence of the Marcher Lords rather than to the settled policy of Edward I and his successors of the fourteenth century. Welshmen, however, were appointed to English sees, as Stubbs complains, but therein they were considered politically harmless. In one important matter the Hildebrandine reformers failed more completely in Wales than in England. The Welsh clergy of the Middle Ages can hardly be called a celibate clergy. Twice during that period was the authority of Canterbury seriously challenged, by Giraldus Cambrensis, and Owain Glyndwr. Gerald the Welshman struggled hard for many years to make St. Davids an archiepiscopal see. This would have given a great accession of power and dignity to the Earls of Pembroke and might have made them rivals of the house of Anjou in the west. After the fall of Richard II, Owain Glyndwr sought to separate the Welsh dioceses from the province of Canterbury, but the scheme failed like his other projects. Neither Gerald the Welshman nor Owain Glyndwr sought an independent Welsh Church. From the Norman Conquest to the Reformation the Welsh dioceses formed a part of the province of Canterbury, and were subject to the authority of the holy see, and the common law of the Church was enforced therein except and in so far as the operation of both were limited by the law of England, and by a passive resistance to its precepts. The great monastic orders had their houses and monasteries in Wales. Alien priories were to be found in the Marches. The Cistercian order found the Welsh hills admirable for the breeding of sheep, and was a great patron of learning. The principal resort of pilgrims in Wales was St. Davids, which seems to have been more accessible by sea than by land. The most famous of the ecclesiastics of Wales of the Middle Ages are Gerald the Welshman and Geoffrey of Monmouth.

In 1399 the great barons of England made Henry of Lancaster king. They dreaded the growth of the royal power in the Marches of Wales, and the rise of Welshmen to positions of honour in the service of the king. The consequent rebellion of Owain Glyndwr was a serious affair and saddled Welshmen with a series of repressive statutes which created a degree of bitterness unknown in the earlier centuries. The decline and fall of the house of Lancaster and the weakness and divisions of England gave Wales and the Marches a decisive influence in the affairs of England. Both the house of York and the house of Tudor were Marcher dynasties, raised up and supported by men weary of baronial government and repression. The territorial expansion of the monarchy in the west, which took place mainly in the reign of Edward IV, enabled Henry VII and Henry VIII to grant the privileges of English law and government to its inhabitants. To them the king was Arthur, a name which suggested war with Rome, and the supremacy of the Crown. Had not Arthur, according to the story, set up his Table Round, the symbol of sovereignty, in the city of Rome itself? When Henry VIII asserted the royal supremacy his Welsh subjects accepted this great revolution and the Reformation. The Reformation in Wales was not, as in Ireland, accompanied with repressive measures. Hence its success, and in the era of religious wars England and Wales were saved from their horrors. When England and Wales were united, English was made the official language, but the Tudors from Henry VIII to Elizabeth encouraged the use of the Welsh language for worship and culture. The history of the Welsh Prayer Book from the Primer of 1547, the New Testament, Bible, and metrical version of the Psalms may be found in many books.

In the reign of Elizabeth Welshmen were numerous amongst the English clergy, as Shakespeare bears witness, and in the reign of James I, as Ben Jonson testifies. In the seventeenth century Wales stood for Church and king. She produced two of the sweetest singers of the Church in George Herbert and Henry Vaughan, and in John Donne one of her profoundest thinkers. The last of the clerical chancellors was John Williams, Bishop of Lincoln. When James II proceeded to attack the Church, Wales was not unrepresented in the ranks of its defenders. Lloyd of St. Asaph was one of the immortal Seven Bishops (q.v.). The most popular of the Welsh clergy of the seventeenth century was the Puritan vicar, Pritchard

of Llandovery of the famous Candle, but he supported Church and king.

The decline of the Church in Wales in the eighteenth century is notorious, and is attributed to various causes. The rise of party government caused all high offices therein to become spoils for the supporters of the party in power. These were invariably Englishmen and often non-resident. There was no bond of sympathy between the superior and inferior clergy, and the superior clergy could not speak to their people in the language they understood. These evils were continued to the second half of the nineteenth century. The suspicion, not unfounded, that Welshmen were Jacobites was fatal to the promotion of Welshmen in the Church during the long ascendancy of the Whigs. The Welsh country gentry were gradually Anglicized and ceased to speak Welsh. The English services they demanded afforded no consolation or instruction to those ignorant of English.

The attempts of the Parliamentarians and Cromwellians to force Puritanism on Wales were not successful, but they prepared the way for developments in the eighteenth century and after. The Welsh Puritan revolution took place in the eighteenth century. It came from within the Church, and is contemporary with the Wesleyan movement. Revivals and enthusiasm abhorred of eighteenth-century scholars became the chief feature of Welsh life down to 1859. The parish churches were often entirely deserted, and their clergy demoralized by having nothing to do. Those who showed any unusual activity were suspected of Methodism, and, in one diocese at least, subjected to a contemptible espionage, more degrading to those who practised it than dangerous to its victims. A peculiarly English interpretation of history, and the theory that the English Church is the peculiar product of the English character and genius, robbed the Church in Wales of its history and made it an alien organization forced by conquest upon a Celtic people. A Celtic interpretation of Welsh history, as false as that which inspired it, left the Welsh Church historically defenceless.

The disestablishment of the Welsh Church became the one insistent demand of the Welsh electorate for more than seventy years. When it came to pass in 1914 the Church had set its house in order, and recovered a great deal of lost ground. The Welsh Church Act of that year dealt leniently with the endowments of the Church, and gave it very extensive powers of self-government. Capable and wise management has enabled it to augment its resources, which have been increased by the gifts and bequests of its members. The Welsh clergy to-day are better off than they were before 1914. They are far happier, and are not committed to support any one political party by the exigencies of Church defence. The secularization of tithes has removed the chief cause of hostility to the Church amongst those who belong to other religious bodies. The act of 1914 makes the Welsh Church co-extensive with Wales and Monmouthshire. Two new bishoprics have been created therein, that of Swansea and Brecon by dividing the unwieldy diocese of St. Davids, and that of Monmouth by dividing the densely-populated diocese of Llandaff. Bishops appointed after 1914 are not members of the House of Lords. "The Constitution of the Church in Wales" is a very voluminous document. It is framed within the limits prescribed by the act of 1914. It is very democratic in character and places the government of the Church in the hands of a series of representative assemblies. The governing body is the chief of these, and is, subject to the act of 1914, the constituent assembly and "council" of the Church. Its powers are set forth in clause 40, and clauses 31 and 34. It is composed of three orders, "namely—the Bishops, the Clergy, and the Laity." Each order votes separately.

The representative body looks after the property of the Church, and exercises "any power conferred upon it by the governing body." It is "composed of four classes, namely, the ex-officio, the elected, the co-opted, and the nominated members." The diocesan conference concerns itself with the business of the diocese, and has no right "to pass any resolution or to come to any decision upon any matter concerning discipline, faith, or ceremonial." The ruridecanal conference manages its own affairs, and may give advice to the diocesan conference. Lastly, the vestry meeting and a committee thereof called the "Parochial Church Council" control the affairs of the parish.

Elaborate machinery is provided by the constitution of the Church in Wales for the bestowal of patronage, the election of an archbishop and bishops.

Finally, the Church in Wales is provided with a series of tribunals "called respectively the Archdeacon's Court, the Diocesan Court, the Provincial Court, the Special Provincial Court, and the Supreme Court of the Church in Wales." Judges of His Majesty's High Court gave invaluable help in the framing of the constitution, and a number of expert financiers assisted in reorganizing and augmenting the finances of the Church.

See "The Welsh Church of 1914–20" and the official "Year Book of the Church in Wales"; H. W. Clark, "History of the Church of Wales," 1896.

[T. S. R.]

Church, The Early Celtic. Two sharply-contrasted periods are to be distinguished in the early Church history of Celtic Britain. So long as the Romans ruled in South Britain, the Christianity which gradually permeated from Gaul into the island was weak, mainly confined to the Roman settlements, and affected very little the native population. The efforts made by Ninian, Palladius, and Patrick at the conversion of the Celts outside the province had very little

result; but a most remarkable ecclesiastical revolution seems to have closely followed the withdrawal of the Roman legions. A wave of religious enthusiasm, excited perhaps by reaction from the Saxon conquerors, ran through the whole Celtic portion of the island. The first impulse came, as before, from Gaul. Gallic churchmen, like Germanus of Auxerre, rekindled the dying embers of Christianity in Britain, and led the orthodox alike against Pelagian heretic and Saxon or Pictish heathen. Monasticism, brought by St. Athanasius from the East, found in St. Martin of Tours its greatest Western exponent. From St. Martin's great abbey of Marmoutier the monastic current flowed through Brittany into Wales and Cornwall, and thence into Ireland, where it developed itself to its extreme limits, and to Scotland, to which the monastic movement first gave Christianity. But the Saxon conquest cut off all communication between the Celts of Western Britain and the continent. Separated from civilization by a wedge of heathenism, the Celtic Church gradually acquired a character of its own that marks it off sharply from the Churches of the continent. When, in the seventh century, the conversion of the English again renewed intercourse between the Celtic Christians and the Western world, the differences between the Celtic Churches and the Catholic Christians had become so great that intercommunion was regarded as impossible, and a struggle for mastery between the two Churches set in that terminated only with the defeat of the Celts. It was not that the Celtic Christians were in any formal sense heretics. The only points that could be alleged against them were their habit of celebrating Easter according to an erroneous cycle, which the better-instructed Romish Church had abandoned, their peculiar form of tonsure, a few unimportant liturgical differences, and, with a willingness to respect the Roman Church as the *caput ecclesiarum*, a steadfast refusal to yield it that canonical obedience which the popes had now begun to claim. But though the formal differences of the Celtic and Catholic Churches were thus few—though not on that account the less hotly contested—the difference of organization, system, and spirit between the two Churches was of the last importance. The child of the monastic revival, Celtic Christianity had become through and through monastic. Monasticism had in many places absorbed diocesan episcopacy. Great monasteries had grown up everywhere, which faithfully reproduced the tribal characteristics of the Celtic state, whose abbots, themselves often of royal houses, exercised a jurisdiction that left nothing to the bishops save the mere maintenance of the apostolical succession. In the chief abbeys of Ireland, and still more at Iona—the great foundation of Columba (q.v.), which was the source of the Christianity of Scotland and the seat of a jurisdiction practically episcopal over its dependent churches—the swarms of bishops were, despite their higher rank in the Church orders, subject to the jurisdiction of the abbot, who was generally a mere presbyter. As centres of education, of church worship, of spiritual life, of an extreme asceticism, and of all ecclesiastical jurisdiction, the monasteries enjoyed a far-reaching influence. Their intimate relation to the tribe enabled them to permeate the whole life of the nation with a real, if irregular, spiritual enthusiasm. The sixth and seventh centuries were the great period of the Welsh and Irish saints, of the earliest Welsh literature, of successful resistance to the English, to whose conquests a limit was at last set. Heathenism was driven out of Celtic Britain. Where Augustine and Paulinus failed, Aidan from Iona succeeded. At least half of the conversion of England is due to the Columban monks. On the continent Celtic missionaries carried their own usages and planted their own monasteries. Columbas founded Luxeuil, in the Vosges, St. Gall the great abbey called after him in Upper Swabia. In Gaul, Italy, and Germany a new wave of religious enthusiasm was excited by the strange missionaries from Britain. [Abbot; Monasticism.]

But the monastic Church of Celtic Britain, though fertile in saints and missionaries, had a fatal weakness in its want of definite organization. Even in Wales, where the functions of abbot and bishop were generally conjoined—the founders of the great Welsh monasteries were also founders of the Welsh sees (St. Davids, for example)—the work of discipline and supervision which belonged to the bishop could be very imperfectly performed by a recluse who chose the remotest solitudes for his abode. Efficient in exciting religious emotion, the Celtic Church failed in its more regular and routine duties. The monks were better missionaries than parish priests. A society that aimed at abjuring the world could not thoroughly make its influence felt in the world. Shut up in an extreme corner of the universe, rigidly opposed to all external influences, its doom was sealed when the triumph of Wilfrid at Whitby and the alliance of Oswy of Northumbria and Theodore of Canterbury expelled the Celtic customs from Britain. [Whitby, Synod of.] Henceforth confined to the north and west of the island, the monastic Church lost, with its capacity for expansion, its powers of vitality. It was affected by two opposite influences from without and from within. The triumph of the Roman party in England gave the secular clergy a position side by side with the Celtic regulars. The ascetic impulse which had established the monasteries continued so far that monasticism itself was no sufficient expression of the severe spirit of renunciation that saw in the life of the solitary anchorite the highest expression of spiritual emotion. Even the tribal connexion which in the first flow of the movement had done so much service to the monasteries ultimately proved a snare. The

secular aspect of the tribe began to assert itself, and an abbey whose head was an hereditary official soon became a monastery simply in name. As the abbey had earlier absorbed the tribe, so the tribe now absorbed the abbey.

Thus assailed from within and without, the monastic Church could offer no efficient opposition to the strong reaction in favour of communion with Western Christendom, even at the expense of a loss of the national usages. In 634 the Southern Irish, in 692 the Northern Irish, accepted the Roman Easter. On the death of Adamnan (q.v.) (704), an effort to introduce the Roman customs into Iona itself led to a schism in that monastery. In 717 the Columban monks were expelled from the kingdom of the Picts. In the middle of the eighth century the Welsh gave up the Celtic Easter. Formal schism was thus ended, but it was centuries before the monastic peculiarities of the Celtic churches entirely disappeared. The Danish invasions, the English overlordships, both had their effect, yet it was not until the days of Matilda, wife of Malcolm Canmore, that complete diocesan episcopacy and the rule of St. Benedict were imposed on the Scots, and the Culdees (q.v.) reduced to the position of canons regular. In the same way the Norman kings reorganized the Church of Ireland on a territorial, instead of a tribal, basis. Wales, where the Celtic Church had never developed so far, where diocesan episcopacy always continued in a way, gradually became subject to Canterbury, as well as to the English kings. The Norman Conquest imposed on the Welsh Church a foreign hierarchy which completed the process of union. Centuries earlier the Scottish monks on the continent had been compelled to accept the rule of St. Benedict.

The true history of the old Celtic Church has been obscured by a cloud of fable and legend which has seen in it a Protestant witness against the errors of Rome, and a Presbyterian polity worthy of Calvin, which has regarded its characteristics as survivals of the mystic rites of Druidism, and which has found the explanation of its Easter observance in the Quartodeciman practice of the Churches of Asia.

H. Williams, "Christianity in Early Britain," 1912; A. Plummer, "The Churches in Britain before A.D. 1000," 1911; Adamnan, "Vita Sancti Columbæ," ed. J. T. Fowler, 1920; C. Plummer, "Lives of Irish Saints," 2 vols., 1922; and "Vitæ Sanctorum Hiberniæ," 2 vols., 1926; W. J. Rees, "Lives of the Cambrio-British Saints," 1853. [T. F. T.]

Church Rates, or rates levied (for the maintaining of the church and churchyard in good condition) from the parishioners and occupiers of land within a parish, were formerly voted and assessed by a majority of the parishioners assembled in a vestry meeting. Under the Parochial Church Councils Measure of 1921, however, the power to levy church rates is transferred to the newly-created parochial councils. The levy is of very ancient origin. As early as 970, Archbishop Elfric ordained that tithes (q.v.) should be divided into three parts, one of which was to be set aside for the repairing of the church. This Church rate, at first voluntary, became gradually obligatory, and though up to 1817 the only method of enforcing payment was through the action of the ecclesiastical courts, it was in that year enacted that the payment might be enforced by the county justices. The objection of the Dissenters to pay these rates led to much litigation on the subject. Frequent bills were brought in for their abolition, and in 1858 a bill of Sir John Trelawney actually passed the House of Commons, but was rejected by the Lords. The opposition of the Dissenters at the vestry meetings was frequently so strong as to prevent the levying of any rate at all, and in 1859 Church rates are said to have been refused in no fewer than 1,525 parishes or districts. [Braintree Case.] The question was settled in 1868 by the Compulsory Church Rate Abolition Act, which made the rate for the future voluntary. But Church rates levied under local acts were not affected.

Halsbury, "Laws of England"; Chitty, "Statutes."

Churchill, Arabella (1648–1730), was the daughter of Sir Winston Churchill, and sister of the Duke of Marlborough. She became the mistress of the Duke of York (afterwards James II) and by him the mother of James Fitzjames (q.v.), Duke of Berwick, and three other children.

Churchill, Admiral George (1654–1710), was a younger brother of the Duke of Marlborough. He saw service at the battle of Beachy Head; and in 1699, and again on the accession of Queen Anne, he was placed on the admiralty board. He had complete ascendancy over the head of the admiralty, Prince George of Denmark, the husband of the queen, and thwarted the counsels of Admiral Rooke. In 1707 he was vehemently attacked by the Whigs for his mismanagement. On the death of Prince George he was dismissed from office (1708).

W. Coxe, "Life of Marlborough, 1818.

Churchill, John, 1st Duke of Marlborough (1650–1722), was the eldest son of Sir Winston Churchill. He became a page of the Duke of York. In the year 1672 he fought under the Duke of Monmouth, and with the French against Holland. He greatly distinguished himself at the siege of Maestricht, and subsequently went through several campaigns under Turenne. In 1678 he married Sarah Jennings (q.v.), and shortly afterwards became a colonel in the Life Guards. On the accession of James II he was raised to the peerage. In 1685 his skill repaired the mistakes of the commander-in-chief, Lord Feversham, and crushed Monmouth's rebellion at Sedgemoor. He opened communications with William of Orange in 1687. On the arrival of William in

England, Churchill deserted James at Warminster, leaving behind him a polite letter of regret. In the discussion on the disposal of the crown, Churchill voted for a regency; but, finding that his friends were in a minority, he absented himself from the House. On the accession of William and Mary, he was sworn of the privy council, made lord of the bedchamber, and created Earl of Marlborough. In 1689, on the outbreak of war with France, he commanded the English brigade under the Prince of Waldeck, and defeated the French at Walcourt. On the departure of William for Ireland, he was appointed one of Queen Mary's Council of Nine. When William returned to England he landed in the south of Ireland, and in five weeks took Cork and Kinsale (1690). He began in this year to correspond with James. His professions of repentance were rewarded by a written pardon. On William's departure for the continent, Marlborough accompanied him. The Jacobites expected him to desert at the head of his troops. It appears that his plot was to work on the dislike entertained by the English towards the Dutch, in order to induce parliament to petition the king to discharge all foreign forces. He then hoped to get the English army to further his views. The Princess Anne was persuaded to write repentant letters to her father. But Marlborough was hated and mistrusted by the Jacobites, who thought that he would declare, not for James, but for the Princess Anne. They disclosed the scheme to Portland. William deprived Marlborough of all his offices (1692). As the real state of the case was unknown, his fate excited general sympathy. In this year he was sent to the Tower on account of false accusation given to the government against him by an informer, Robert Young; but was soon released. He passed into opposition, exciting the aristocracy against the Dutch; and vigorously supported the Place Bill. In 1694 he betrayed to the Jacobites an intended expedition against Brest commanded by Talmash. So thoroughly was he now mistrusted, that William refused to entrust the regency to Anne on his departure for the continent. The death of Mary (1694) was followed by a recrimination between William and Princess Anne. Marlborough's designs were now changed, and he was content to wait till the death of William for his own aggrandizement. He became governor to the Duke of Gloucester. In 1696 he was implicated in Sir John Fenwick's confession, but William ignored the accusation. He took a neutral part in the debates on the Resumption Bill, and declared against the reduction of the army. In 1701, when the War of the Spanish Succession was imminent, he was sent to Holland as commander-in-chief; and negotiations for the Grand Alliance were entrusted to him. William, on his deathbed, recommended him to Anne as the fittest general to carry on his projects. On the accession of Anne, he assumed a position quite unique. "He was at once general, diplomatist, and minister." He occupied the same position which William III had held as the leader of the European opposition to Louis XIV. His voice was for war, and it was chiefly by his influence that the wish of the Tory party, that England should merely act as an auxiliary, was overcome. War was declared in March 1702, and Marlborough was made commander-in-chief of the English and Dutch forces. A sketch of Marlborough's military operations is given elsewhere [Spanish Succession, War of]. On his return from his first campaign he became Marquis of Blandford and Duke of Marlborough. At home his design to rely on a mixed government had not been carried out, but an almost entirely Tory ministry was formed, of which his friend Godolphin was chief. But the dismissal of Rochester (1703) was followed by that of the extreme Tories in 1704, and a moderate section of that party were placed in office. After the campaign of 1705 Marlborough visited Vienna, Berlin, and Hanover, where he reconciled the differences between the British and Hanoverian courts. In 1706 he with difficulty persuaded his friend Heinsius, Pensionary of Holland, to reject the French terms of peace. In 1707 he visited the camp of Charles XII of Sweden, and dissuaded that monarch from joining the French alliance, whereby the cause of the allies would probably have been ruined. Meanwhile at home Marlborough's affairs were not progressing favourably. The nation was getting weary of the war, and the duke's Tory followers would not support his policy. He determined to complete his idea of a composite ministry by admitting a section of the Whigs to office. But the plan was doomed to failure. Harley, seeing the weakness of the coalition, began to intrigue against it, through the queen's new favourite, Mrs. Masham (q.v.), arousing in Anne a dread of the subversion of Church interests. The Whig party determined to make their power felt, and joined the High Tories in an attack on the duke's foreign policy. Marlborough and Godolphin were therefore obliged to dismiss Harley and his followers, and admit the Whigs to office (1708). Marlborough has been accused of wishing to continue the war from purely selfish motives. He was sent as plenipotentiary to The Hague, and seemed to have strongly but ineffectually urged upon his colleagues to accept the terms offered by the French in 1709. He made two desperate attempts to obtain a position independent of home politics. He demanded from the Archduke Charles the office of governor of the Low Countries, worth about £60,000 a year, and he demanded from Anne the post of captain-general for life. Both requests were refused. In England the violent temper of the duchess had alienated the goodwill of Queen Anne. On the fall of the Whigs (1710) Marlborough at once made overtures to the Tories. He seems to have done his best to further the negotiations of Gertruydenberg. But the fall of the duchess

already foreshadowed his own. Harley secretly pushed on negotiations for peace. When the duke returned from the campaign of 1710 he entered into communication with his old friends the Whigs, who had joined a section of the Tories under Nottingham. Harley and St. John determined to ruin Marlborough. He was accused of having received large sums of money, amounting to £63,000, on the contracts for supplying the army with bread, and also of having received 2½ per cent. on all subsidies for foreign troops, amounting to £177,000. Marlborough's defence was that the bread money had been habitually received by every commander-in-chief and was employed as secret-service money; and that the percentage on the subsidies was a free gift from the allies. He was, however, deprived of all his offices on December 31. On the death of his friend Godolphin (1711), Marlborough returned to the continent, and resided first at Frankfort, then at Antwerp. He corresponded frequently with the Hanoverian court, for which he displayed great zeal, advising the Elector to go over to England with a body of troops. At the same time he continued the intrigues with the Jacobite court that he had begun before his fall. On the dismissal of Oxford [HARLEY], he resolved to return to England, perhaps at the instigation of that politician, perhaps hoping to play a part in the crisis that was at hand. He arrived in England on the day of Anne's death. Much to his disgust, he was omitted from the list of lords justices who were to act until the accession of George. Later on in the year he was reappointed commander-in-chief; but his power was gone, and he was distrusted by the king. We find him sending money to the Pretender just before the invasion of 1715. Next year an attack of paralysis greatly impaired his faculties. He lived in retirement and partial insanity at Blenheim until his death. He was a true child of the years of the Restoration, of their social training and lax morality, their restless activity in Church and State, in which each individual hoped to turn his natural gifts to account free from the trammels of any thought of consequences, and to attain everything which in the eyes of men seems desirable. His father's motto had been "faithful, but unfortunate." He, on the contrary, had the favour of fortune in all he undertook; he belonged to those men whose special property it is, men suppose, to be fortunate; but of his fidelity to his sovereign he himself could not have boasted. The organization of the British army after the Revolution was in the main his work. In conducting public affairs, Marlborough by no means lost sight of his own interests. His cupidity may have had in it an element of ambition that the family which he was to found might take an equal place with all that was wealthy and aristocratic in England; but over the brilliancy of his success and fame it cast a shade which made the contrast all the more painful.

Coxe, "Marlborough," 1818–19, and in 3 vols. (ed. J. Wade), 1893; "Marlborough Dispatches," 1845; C. T. Atkinson, "Marlborough and the Rise of the British Army," 1921; and biographies by L. Creighton, 1879, and Viscount Wolseley, 1894.

[S. L.]

Churchill, LORD RANDOLPH HENRY SPENCER (1849–95), third son of the 7th Duke of Marlborough, entered parliament in 1874 as Conservative member for Woodstock. After the Conservative defeat of 1880 he began, as leader of the Fourth Party, to distinguish himself in debate, acquiring fame also as an effective platform orator. In Lord Salisbury's first ministry (1885) he was secretary for India; in the second (July 1886) he became chancellor of the exchequer and leader of the House of Commons. On December 20, in the same year, he resigned, never to take office again.

Churchill, THE RIGHT HON. WINSTON LEONARD SPENCER (*b.* 1874), eldest son of Lord Randolph Churchill (q.v.), served in the Spanish War with Cuba, in the Malakand Field Force, and went as a war correspondent to South Africa during the Boer War (1899–1902). He was elected to parliament as a Conservative in 1900, but dissociated himself from Chamberlain's fiscal policy and joined the Liberals. He became under-secretary for the colonies in 1906, and president of the board of trade in 1908. In 1911 he was appointed first lord of the admiralty by Mr. Asquith, at the time of the Agadir crisis (q.v.). During the Great War he strongly advocated the Antwerp and Dardanelles expeditions, until the resignation of Lord Fisher in 1915 caused the downfall of the Liberal government. Churchill resigned in November, after a few months as chancellor of the duchy of Lancaster. In 1917 he became minister of munitions, secretary for war, and air minister in turn. And he played a conspicuous part in the Irish settlement of 1921. In 1924 he again changed his party, standing first as an Independent and anti-Socialist, and in September as Conservative candidate for Epping. His second candidature being successful, he became chancellor of the exchequer in the second Baldwin administration.

Churchwardens are parish officers who are charged with the provision of what is necessary for the celebration of the sacrament and the services, of summoning vestries, and of superintending church matters generally. They are usually two in number, and are chosen by the parson and the parishioners jointly, or one by the minister and the other by the parishioners. In the great majority of cases, one is chosen by the minister and the other by the people. Their powers and status have been in some degree modified by recent legislation, and especially by the Parochial Church Councils Measure of 1921, which transferred to the newly-created parochial councils certain functions formerly exercised by the churchwardens.

Churl. [CEORL.]

Cinque Ports, The, are a group of towns situated in Sussex and Kent, which still possess, in some degree, their old and peculiar jurisdiction. The original members of the group were Hastings, Romney, Hythe, Dover, and Sandwich, to which the "ancient towns" of Winchelsea and Rye were afterwards added. They still retain the privilege of holding two courts, viz., the Court of Brotherhood and the Court of Guestling; but these exercise now only a very small part of their former functions. The Cinque Ports owe their existence as a corporate body to the fact that in our early history there was no standing navy. Hence, whenever invasion was threatened or contemplated, it was necessary to rely mainly on the services of the seaboard towns. It was the Cinque Ports that contributed largely to the defeat of Eustace the Monk in 1217, and four years later we find the same body summoned before Hubert de Burgh for piracy against the men of Calais. In 1242 Henry issued orders to the officers of this corporation to prey upon French merchants and travellers—an order whose terms they enlarged upon, to the hurt of their fellow-countrymen. By this time, then, we may consider the Cinque Ports to be a recognized institution, with its own officers and warden, and in this capacity its members espoused the cause of de Montfort, and were summoned to send "barons" to the parliament of 1265. Local historians have claimed for these barons a position higher than that of the borough members, or even the knights of the shire. It is not, however, till the reign of Edward I that we have absolute proof that the Cinque Ports possessed a charter. But, on the other hand, the terms of Edward's charter speak definitely of certain rights possessed by this body in the time of Henry II, and more vaguely of others dating back through almost every previous reign to that of the Confessor. And we may consider Edward I's charter, though somewhat enlarged by later sovereigns, as a fair summary of the privileges of the Cinque Ports. By the terms of this charter the Cinque Ports were to have criminal and civil jurisdiction within their limits; exemption from all taxes, aids, and tallages; the right of assembling in their own parliament at Shepway, near Hythe, for the purpose of making by-laws; and several other privileges, including the right of regulating the Yarmouth fishery and fair. In return for these concessions, they were to furnish the king at call with fifty-seven ships for fifteen days each year, and there is at least one instance where they had to victual the ships supplied by another town (London). The officer in command of the ships furnished by the Cinque Ports was called the warden; and under Edward I the warden of the Cinque Ports acted as admiral of the fleet from Dover to Cornwall.

The Cinque Ports continued to be the main strength of our navy till the time of Henry VII. In the reign of this king we find signs that they had already fallen, or were falling, under the ordinary taxation of the kingdom, though they were still allowed to deduct £500 from their own share of any tenth or fifteenth levied on the counties of Sussex and Kent—a privilege which Elizabeth confirmed as a reward for their services against the Armada. The charters of the Cinque Ports were surrendered to the Crown in 1685, and most of their peculiar privileges and obligations were abolished by the Reform Act (1832), and Municipal Corporations Act (1835).

M. Burrows, "Cinque Ports," 1897; F. M. Hueffer, "Cinque Ports," 1905; S. Jeakes, "Charters of the Cinque Ports." [T. A. A.]

Cintra, The Convention of (August 30, 1808), was an agreement made at the beginning of the Peninsular War between the French and British after the battle of Vimeiro. The conditions would have been much more favourable to the British had not the timid caution of Sir Harry Burrard and Sir Hew Dalrymple prevented Sir Arthur Wellesley from following up the advantage gained in the battle. An advance was cautiously begun towards Lisbon; and almost immediately an envoy was sent by Junot to treat. Terms were drawn up, subject to the approval of the British admiral, and this he would not give. Negotiations were accordingly begun afresh, while the British advanced still nearer to Lisbon. Junot on his side threatened to fire the public buildings of Lisbon; and the threat had the effect of hastening on the negotiations. Finally, the Convention of Cintra was signed at Lisbon, the terms being that the French troops should evacuate Portugal, and should be transported to France in British ships. After some trouble it was also decided that the Russian fleet in the Port of Tagus should pass into the hands of the British. Much indignation was felt in Great Britain on the news of the convention, although four months previously it would have been hailed with delight. Burrard, Dalrymple, and Wellesley were ordered home to take their trial, and Sir John Moore was appointed to the command in the Peninsula.

Sir C. Oman, "Peninsular War," 1902–20; and Tract on the Convention by the poet Wordsworth, 1809 (reprinted 1915).

"Circumspecte Agatis" was the title of a writ (sometimes erroneously termed a statute) issued by Edward I in 1285, defining in relation to the bishop and clergy of Norwich the duties of the ecclesiastical courts, and fixing the boundaries between the temporal and spiritual jurisdictions, thus putting a stop to the gradual encroachment of the ecclesiastical courts in matters of which the cognizance belonged to the Crown. Like the ordinance of William I it reserves to the courts Christian all cases *quæ mere sunt spiritualia.* Breaches of morality, such as adultery and false swearing, are assigned to the Church courts, together with questions of tithes and mortuaries; and cases of defamation and of assault upon clergy.

Cirencester (Gloucestershire) is situated on the site of an important Roman military station, named Corinium or Durocornovium Dobunorum. It was captured by the Danes in 878. An Augustinian abbey of some importance was founded by Henry I, and a fine church built in the fifteenth century. During the Civil War the town was held by the Parliamentarians. It was captured and sacked by Prince Rupert in 1642, but surrendered again to the Roundheads under Essex in 1643.

K. J. Beecham, "History of Cirencester," 1887.

Cissa (*d.* 520 ?) was, according to the traditional account, the son of Ella (q.v.), whom he is said to have succeeded in 517. It has been thought that his name is preserved in that of Chichester (Cissaceaster) and possibly also in Cissbury Camp.

Cistercians, The, were a religious order, an offshoot of the Benedictines, founded at Cîteaux in Burgundy by Robert, abbot of the Benedictine house of Molesme in 1098. The order owed much to its second abbot, Stephen Harding, an Englishman, who enjoined the strictest adherence to the austere Benedictine rule, from which the Benedictines themselves had long departed. It was under his inspiration that, at the chapter of the order in 1119, the *Carta Caritatis* was drawn up, establishing a form of government in which a large amount of independence was allowed to each abbey under the supervision of the general chapter of the order, and of the abbot of the parent house. Provision was made that when the numbers of any house became too large, twelve brethren might, with the consent of the general chapter, be sent out under an abbot to found a new monastery. St. Bernard, who thus became in 1115 abbot of the first daughter house—Clairvaux—did much to arouse enthusiasm for the new rule. The order became popular all over western Europe, and in no country more than in England. The first Cistercian colony was established by the Norman abbey of L'Aumône at Waverley in Surrey in 1128, and thence the movement spread throughout the country. The Cistercians settled by preference in places "remote from the conversation of men," and hence we find their houses especially numerous among the Welsh mountains and on the Yorkshire moors. An almost puritanical simplicity characterized their churches and buildings, the windows being filled with plain glass, and vestments and church ornaments being of the plainest kind. Each monastery was ideally a self-sufficing unit; and the manual labour in the convent workshops and in its fields and granges was performed by the "conversi" or lay brothers, who were a special feature of the order. Subsequently, by becoming wool-growers and wool-exporters on a large scale, the Cistercians came to exercise an important influence upon the economic life of mediæval England. Their white frocks and cowls gave them the distinctive name of "white monks," as opposed to the Benedictines or "black monks."

J. H. Newman, "Cistercian Saints of England," 1844.

Ciudad Rodrigo, The Siege of, during the Peninsular War, January 1812, was the opening operation of Wellington's campaign of 1812. The fall of the works was hastened, in spite of many natural and artificial obstacles, on account of the approach of Marmont with a relieving force. On the 13th the Santa Cruz convent was taken; a well-organized sally, however, delayed the bombardment; but on the evening of the 14th it was begun, and in the confusion that arose the 40th Regiment seized the convent in the suburbs to the east of the town. The bombardment was kept up almost continuously, till on the 18th the great breach became a wide gap. On the 19th, soon after seven o'clock, the assault was begun: the *fausse-braye* was cleared by the stormers; but the French, driven back, held their ground behind the retrenchment, and wrought great havoc among the British. Meanwhile, the attack at the smaller breach had been made with reckless impetuosity, which carried the *fausse-braye;* and sweeping onward, led by Major Napier, the light division dashed into the narrow opening, and at the point of the bayonet broke down all resistance, until they had gained a foothold in the town. Then part of the light division, driving all before them, fell upon the flank of the defenders at the great breach, and by their overthrow made a way for the entrance of the storming party; while the rest of the light troops cleared the streets and houses in the town. The allies lost 553 men during the siege.

Sir C. Oman, "Peninsular War," 1902–20.

Civil List, The, is a sum of money granted annually by parliament for the support of the royal household, and the personal expenses and bounty of the sovereign. It originated in the reign of William and Mary, and at first included the payment of civil offices, and pensions. Its amount was fixed at £700,000 (£400,000 being derived from the hereditary revenues of the Crown and £300,000 from the excise duties). This continued to be the nominal sum—although frequent debts were incurred—until the reign of George III, when it was increased to £800,000, being further raised in 1777 to £900,000. This sum, however, proved quite inadequate for the necessary expenditure, and debts on the Civil List had continually to be paid throughout the whole of the reign of George III. Hence it was found advisable to remove from the list many charges, such as salaries of state officers and the like. On the accession of William IV these extraneous charges were further reduced, and the king in return surrendered all the sources of revenue enjoyed by his predecessors apart from the Civil List, except the revenues of the duchy of Lancaster. The Civil List

was fixed at £510,000, a sum which included a pension list of £75,000. The Civil List paid to Queen Victoria by 1 Vict. c. 2, amounted to £385,000, and the pension list was now separated from the ordinary Civil List. The Civil List paid to the king by 1 Edward VII, c. 4, amounted to £470,000; total, with annuities and pensions for members of the royal family, £576,000. George V was granted the same sum as his father, the additional annuities and pensions amounting to £146,000. The Civil List is now charged upon the consolidated fund; the old system of allocation having been abandoned on the accession of George III.

Civil Wars. [Barons' War; Roses, Wars of; Rebellion, Great.]

Claim of Right, The. [Right, Claim of.]

Claimants of the Scottish Crown in 1291. On the death of the Maid of Norway (1290), the last of the descendants of Alexander III, a number of competitors for the Scottish crown appeared. Chief amongst them were John Baliol (lord of Barnard Castle in Durham and of Galloway in Scotland), Robert Bruce (lord of Skelton in Yorkshire and of Annandale in Scotland), and John de Hastings (lord of Abergavenny), the descendants of three sisters, daughters of David, Earl of Huntingdon. Baliol claimed as the *grandson* of the *eldest* sister, Bruce as the *son* of the *second*, and Hastings, as the *son* of the *youngest* daughter, claimed *one-third* of the kingdom, contending that it was divisible like other inheritances. This disputed succession Edward I determined to settle, and accordingly summoned a conference of Scots and English nobles to meet at Norham, May 1291. It was there determined to accept Edward's appointment as lord paramount, and to appoint commissioners to decide upon the merits of the claimants. Forty were named by Baliol, forty by Bruce, and twenty-four by the English king. In June 1292 these commissioners, after much deliberation, reported in favour of Baliol, saying that "By the laws and usages of both kingdoms, in every heritable succession the more remote in one degree lineally descended from the eldest sister, was preferable to the nearer in degree issuing from the second sister." Edward accordingly declared John Baliol king.

Besides these three chief, there were ten minor, competitors: Nicholas de Soulis, the grandson of Marjory, natural daughter of Alexander II, whom he declared to have been legitimatized; Florence, Count of Holland, great-grandson of Ada, daughter of Prince Henry (son of King David I) and sister of William the Lion; Robert de Pinkeny, great-grandson of Marjory, daughter of Prince Henry; William de Ros; Patrick, Earl of March, and William de Vesci and Roger de Mandeville, the descendants of illegitimate daughters of William the Lion; Patrick Galightly, son of an illegitimate son of William; John Comyn of Badenoch, who claimed as the descendant of King Donald Bane; and Eric, King of Norway, who claimed as the heir of his daughter, the Maid of Norway. None of these claims was of any validity, and they were not pushed to an open trial.

P. Hume Brown, "History of Scotland," 1911.

Claims, The Court of, was established in 1662, in accordance with the first Act of Settlement to examine the case of all dispossessed Irish proprietors. It decided very largely in favour of the natives, and very soon such large grants were made to the Duke of York and others, that it became impossible to provide for any other claimants. Thus, after it had heard about 600 claims its labours came to an end, and the second Act of Settlement, 1665, became necessary.

Clanrickard, Ulick Burke (de Burgh), 5th Earl and Marquis of (1604–57). [Burke.]

Clare, Gilbert de, Earl of Gloucester and Hertford (*b.* 1243), son of Earl Richard, threw himself into the party of Leicester, after his father's death in 1262, but was soon involved in dissensions with de Montfort. Though fighting with Montfort at Lewes, he broke completely with him in the course of 1265 and fled to the Marches, where he joined Prince Edward after the latter's escape from Leicester's custody in May. At Evesham it was Gloucester's attack that decided the day in favour of the king's party. In 1267 Gloucester reverted temporarily to his old allegiance, and sieged London as the champion of the Disinherited; but a peace was soon concluded. He kept on good terms with Edward I, whose daughter Johanna he married in 1290. Gilbert de Clare was the most powerful English noble of his day, and the natural leader of the baronage after the death of de Montfort, for whom, however, he was no match in ability or singleness of purpose.

Biographies of Simon de Montfort.

Clare, Gilbert de, Earl of Gloucester and Hertford (*d.* 1314), was the son of Earl Gilbert and Johanna, the daughter of Edward I. He took the side of Gaveston, his brother-in-law, against the barons, was one of the lords ordainers of 1311, being elected by co-optation from the royalist side, and endeavoured more than once to prevent civil war, in particular mediating between Edward II and Lancaster in 1313. He was slain at Bannockburn (1314). He was the last of his line, and his estates fell to his three sisters, whose husbands' rivalries take up a great place in the history of Edward II's reign.

Biographies of Edward II.

Clare, John Fitzgibbon (1749–1802), Earl of. [Fitzgibbon.]

Clare, Richard de, or Richard Fitz-Gilbert, was a Norman baron, nearly related to William the Conqueror. He accompanied William to England, and received lavish grants

of land, among which were the castle and manor of Clare, from which he took the name which his descendants likewise adopted. He was appointed joint regent of England during William's absence in 1073, and in 1075 was instrumental in quelling the rebellion of the Earls of Hereford and Norfolk. The date of his death is uncertain.

Clare, Richard de, Earl of Gloucester and Hertford (*d.* 1262), the leader of the baronial party under Henry III, acted at first in conjunction with, but afterwards in opposition to, Simon de Montfort. He was one of the baronial committee appointed under the Provisions of Oxford, 1258, but he quarrelled with de Montfort in 1259 and from 1259 to 1261 was in friendly attendance on the king. Henry's fortification of the Tower in the latter year led to a new rapprochement between Gloucester and de Montfort in face of the common danger; but Gloucester died next year at Ashenfield near Canterbury. Like the more aristocratic party of the baronage, he neither understood nor sympathized with Montfort's far-reaching aims, and never quite forgave his foreign origin.

Biographies of Simon de Montfort.

Clare, Richard de, Earl of Pembroke and Striguil (*d.* 1176) (better known by his sobriquet of Strongbow), found himself, after the accession of Henry II, out of favour with the king, and with estates diminished by the incessant incursions of the Welsh. His misfortunes inclined him to accept the overtures made to him in 1168 by Dermot, the dethroned King of Leinster, who promised him in reward for his services the hand of his daughter Eva, and the ultimate succession to his kingdom. Nevertheless it was two years before Strongbow set out in person to fulfil his bargain. He applied to Henry for leave, and got a dubious answer, which became finally an absolute prohibition, but in spite of it he sailed at last from Milford Haven in the summer of 1170. At once he married Eva, and on the death of Dermot in May 1171 he succeeded to the kingdom of Leinster. He found himself, however, confronted by a rising of the Irish, under the *ard-ri*, Rory O'Connor. He defeated O'Connor at Dublin, but felt the necessity for strengthening himself by an understanding with Henry II. Henry landed at Waterford in October, and after receiving Strongbow's submission recognized him as Earl of Leinster. In 1172 he seems to have joined Henry in Normandy, and on his return the king granted him the custody of Ireland. A mutiny of the soldiery compelled him temporarily to supersede his friend Hervey Mount-Maurice by Raymond le Gros, but he refused the latter the hand of his sister. Being defeated by the O'Briens in 1174, however, he found it necessary to accept Raymond as a brother-in-law; and the voice of the soldiery again compelled him to make Raymond their commander. In 1176 Strongbow died at Dublin of an ulcer in the leg, and was buried in the cathedral. He left but one daughter, Isabel, who brought his vast lands to William Marshall of Pembroke, her husband. According to Giraldus he never originated an enterprise, but allowed himself to be guided by others; he, however, acknowledges him to have been just and even generous, and brave in battle. He was a munificent patron of the Church, and was the founder of the priory of Kilmainham.

G. H. Orpen, "Ireland Under the Normans," 1911–20; E. Curtis, "History of Mediæval Ireland," 1923; E. Hull, "History of Ireland," 1926.

Clare Election (July 1828) was the famous contest in which Daniel O'Connell was, after five days' polling, returned against Mr. Vesey Fitzgerald, a supporter of Catholic Emancipation, but a Protestant, who was seeking re-election on becoming president of the board of trade. O'Connell was the first Catholic returned to parliament since 1690. He owed his election to the forty-shilling freeholders; the £50 freeholders and the gentry without distinction of political opinion voting to a man for his opponent. When he was elected he refused to take the oaths; but after the Catholic Emancipation Bill he was re-elected (July 30, 1829) without opposition, and shortly afterwards took his seat in the House.

B. Ward, "Eve of Catholic Emancipation," 1911.

Clarence, George, Duke of (1449–1478), was the third son of Richard, Duke of York, and brother to King Edward IV. After the battle of Wakefield and the death of his father, he was sent to Utrecht for security, but returned to England in 1461, on the accession of Edward IV. He was made lieutenant of Ireland for seven years in 1462. Being greatly vexed at the king's marriage, he intrigued with the Earl of Warwick against him, and, in 1469, married Warwick's eldest daughter, Isabel, contrary to Edward's wishes, at Calais, whither he had retired with Warwick. In 1469 Edward fell a prisoner into their hands after the battle of Edgecott, and for a time Clarence and Warwick had everything their own way. But local feeling compelled them to release the king, and the defeat of the Lincolnshire rising which they had fomented changed the aspect of affairs, and Clarence and Warwick had once more to flee to Calais. Thence they invaded England towards the end of 1470, landed in Devonshire, and soon found themselves at the head of a large army. Edward was obliged to flee from the kingdom. Warwick with Clarence entered London, and re-crowned Henry VI. But Clarence was playing a double game. When Edward IV landed at Ravenspur and marched southwards, Clarence was in correspondence with him, and when Edward advanced towards London, Clarence marched out and joined him, and fought against his old confederate at Barnet. But Clarence

soon quarrelled again with his brother. He claimed the inheritance of Warwick as the husband of Isabel, and was unwilling to divide the earl's possessions with Richard of York, who married the second daughter, Anne. On the death of Isabel, Clarence was anxious to marry Mary of Burgundy, but the marriage was prevented by Edward IV. A violent quarrel ensued. A gentleman of Clarence's household was condemned for using necromancy against the king. Clarence espoused the cause of his followers with more energy than discretion, thus giving Edward a handle against him. He was arrested, and Edward himself impeached him in the parliament of January 1478. He was condemned to death, and was made away with secretly in the Tower. According to a well-known story, which is not supported by authentic evidence, he was drowned in a butt of malmsey wine.

C. Scofield, "Edward IV."

Clarence, Thomas, Duke of (1388?–1421), was the second son of Henry IV. In 1401 he was made lieutenant of Ireland, and in 1412 created Duke of Clarence. He played an important part in the French wars of Henry V's reign, and in 1421 he was defeated and slain at Beaugé by a combined force of French and Scots. He married Margaret, daughter of Thomas Holland, Earl of Kent, and widow of his uncle, John Beaufort, Earl of Somerset, but left no issue.

Clarendon, Assize of. [Assize.]

Clarendon, The Constitutions of (1164), received their name from the royal hunting-lodge of Clarendon, near Salisbury, where they were enacted. They were the outcome of the determination of Henry II to settle the relation between Church and State in matters of jurisdiction. The ecclesiastical courts which had been separated from the lay courts by William the Conqueror had gradually extended their jurisdiction, and their pretensions had been favoured by the anarchy of Stephen's reign. Now, however, that justice was once more fairly administered in the civil courts, it became an absolute necessity to assert the supremacy of the State over clergy and laity alike, the more so since the ecclesiastical courts had shown themselves unable to perform the work they had undertaken. Many other points connected with the relations between Church and State had to be settled, such as questions of advowson and excommunication, of election to bishoprics, and of ecclesiastical appeals, and on all these points the Constitutions are very firm in insisting on the rights of the Crown. "They are," says Stubbs, "no mere engine of tyranny or secular spite against a churchman: they are really a part of a great scheme of administrative reform, by which the debatable ground between the spiritual and temporal powers can be brought within the reach of common justice, and the lawlessness arising from professional jealousies abolished." The Constitutions were drawn up by a committee of bishops and barons, the justiciar, Richard de Lucy, having the chief hand in them. Their purport is as follows:

1. Any controversy concerning advowson or presentation to livings to be tried in the king's court.

2. Churches on the royal demesne not to be given away in perpetuity without the king's leave.

3. Clerks accused of any offence to be brought before the king's court, there to answer for such things as the court shall hold to be answerable in that place, and in the ecclesiastical court for such things as shall appear to be there answerable; the king's justice to send an officer to watch the proceedings in the Church courts; convicted clerks to receive no further protection from the Church.

4. No archbishop, bishop, etc., to leave the realm without the king's consent.

5. Excommunicated persons not to give excessive bail.

6. Laymen not to be accused, save by lawful witnesses, in presence of the bishop. If those who are arraigned are such that no one is willing or dares to accuse them, the sheriff shall, on demand of the bishop, cause twelve lawful men of the neighbourhood to swear before the bishop that they will declare the truth in that matter according to their conscience.

7. No tenant-in-chief to be excommunicated or to have his lands put under interdict without the king's leave.

8. Appeals to be from the archdeacon's court to the bishop, from the bishop to the archbishop, and no farther (that is, to Rome) without the king's leave.

9. Disputes between clerics and laymen, whether a fief is held by ecclesiastical or lay tenure, to be settled by the declaration of twelve lawful men, in the presence of the king's justice.

10. A man refusing to appear before an ecclesiastical court not to be excommunicated till an officer of the king has inquired into the matter.

11. Archbishops, bishops, etc., who hold of the king in chief, to have their possessions as baronies, and answer for the same to the king's justices and officers, and follow and observe all the royal rights and customs, and like other barons to participate in the judgments of the king's court, except in cases of life and limb.

12. The custody of vacant archbishoprics, bishoprics, abbeys, and priories of royal foundation to be in the king's hand, and he to receive all the revenues and proceeds. Canonical elections to take place under the king's writ in his chapel, with his assent, and the elect, before consecration, to do homage and fealty to the king, saving the rights of his order.

13. If any of the barons refuse justice to an ecclesiastic, the king to give him justice.

14. The chattels of those who are in forfeiture to the king not to be detained in a church or churchyard.

15. All pleas concerning debts to be tried in the king's court.

16. The sons of villeins not to be ordained without the consent of their lords.

It is important to notice that the mention of a jury in clause 6, and of the principle of recognition by twelve lawful men in clause 9, are the earliest instances of such mention in anything like statute law, though the practice of such recognitions prevailed long before this date. [BECKET.]

Stubbs, "Select Charters" (ed. H. W. C. Davis, 1913).

Clarendon, EARLS OF. [HYDE.]

Clarendon, SIR ROGER (*d.* 1402), was a reputed natural son of the Black Prince. He was a personal attendant of Richard II; and in 1402, on a rumour that Richard was still alive, attempted to raise a rebellion, but was seized and executed.

Clarendon Code, THE, is the name given to the four acts passed during Lord Clarendon's administration, directed against Nonconformists—viz., the Act of Uniformity, the Corporation Act, the Conventicle Act, and the Five-Mile Act. [The four are noted separately (q.v.).]

Clarkson, THOMAS (1760–1846), was born at Wisbech, and educated at St. Paul's School, and St. John's College, Cambridge. In 1785 he carried off the Latin Essay, the subject being, "Is it lawful to make men slaves against their will?" He was so thoroughly convinced by what he read on the subject of the horrors of the slave traffic, that he resolved to devote all his energies towards its abolition. Clarkson began with indefatigable zeal to prosecute inquiries at every port. The result of his researches he embodied in a pamphlet, entitled, "A Summary View of the Slave Trade." Most of the leading men among the Whigs encouraged the movement, and Pitt, in 1788, supported a bill for mitigating the horrors of the Middle Passage. Clarkson's next publication was an "Essay on the Impolicy of the African Slave Trade" (1788). When the French Revolution broke out, he went over to Paris to try to induce the national assembly to set an example to the world by introducing real equality for both white and black men. So unceasingly did he labour that in 1794 his health completely broke down, and he had to cease from all active work. He occupied his enforced leisure in writing a "History of the Abolition of the African Slave Trade" (1808, the year after the act of abolition had passed through parliament). In 1823 he was appointed one of the vice-presidents of the Anti-Slavery Society, which had just been formed. To Clarkson's exertions is the abolition of the slave trade in large measure due, since it was his researches which enabled Wilberforce to bring such convincing proofs of its horrors before parliament.

Clarkson's "Memoirs"; Wilberforce's "Life," 1838.

Classes, THE ACT OF (1649), passed by the Scots Estates, disqualified four "classes" of men from sitting in parliament or holding office for various periods. The classes consisted of the enemies of the Covenant, Malignants, those who had entered into the "Engagement" with Charles I, and persons of immoral life.

P. Hume Brown, "History of Scotland," 1911.

Claverhouse, JOHN GRAHAM OF (1649–89). [GRAHAM, JOHN.]

Clayton-Bulwer Treaty, THE (April 19, 1850), was negotiated between John M. Clayton (for the United States) and Sir Henry Lytton Bulwer (for Great Britain) as the result of mutual jealousy between the two countries over the question of connecting the Atlantic and Pacific oceans by a canal across Honduras. The treaty forbade either government to obtain an exclusive control of the canal or to found colonies in Honduras, Costa Rica, or any other part of Central America, and guaranteed the neutralization of the canal. Disputes arose later as to the precise interpretation of the treaty. It was finally superseded in 1902 by the Hay-Pauncefote Treaty.

R. B. Mowat, "Diplomatic Relations of Great Britain and the United States," 1925.

Cleanse the Causeway (1520) was the name given to a street fight in Edinburgh, between the partisans of the Douglas family and the followers of the crown and the Hamiltons. The Douglases overpowered their antagonists, and drove them from the streets; hence the name of the combat, in which the Earl of Angus, the head of the Douglases, slew Sir Patrick Hamilton, brother of the Earl of Arran.

Clergy is the general name given to the body of men set apart in England for the performance of public worship. Christianity in England was at first monastic, and churches were chiefly served by monks. [CHURCH, THE EARLY CELTIC.] The clergy were maintained by the offerings of the people or by the lords. The ecclesiastical organization of Archbishop Theodore began from the top and was diocesan; but it spread downwards, and parishes were formed on the basis of townships. The Levitical ordinance of giving a tithe to God was first recommended, and in 787 was enacted by ecclesiastical councils which had the authority of witenagemots. At first this tithe went to the bishop, who distributed it into four parts: one for himself, one for the fabric of the church, one for the poor, and one for the incumbent. It was, however, frequently given by the lords of

lands to monasteries, and so the system of appropriation began. The appropriators were bishops, monasteries, or spiritual corporations who received the tithe, and paid only a portion which they deemed sufficient to the *vicar* or curate who discharged the spiritual duties of the parish. Where the parson received the endowments of his office he was styled *rector*. This system of appropriation led to the growth and wealth of monastic orders, and to an inadequate provision for the parochial clergy. Its prevalence in England rendered easy the transference to Henry VIII of ecclesiastical revenues which were held by appropriators in this anomalous way. In early times the clergy were the civilizers and educators of England. Their system, their councils, and their learning made them powerful in influencing the growth of the organization of the state. After the Norman Conquest their status became more definite, as everything else became more definite likewise. The growth of the canon law into a regular system, and the establishment of ecclesiastical courts, gradually led to clerical exemptions from ordinary jurisdiction, which produced disorders. Henry II strove to remedy this by the Constitutions of Clarendon; but criminous clerks were still handed over to ecclesiastical tribunals if they claimed Benefit of Clergy (q.v.), a privilege which was not entirely abolished till 1830.

The tenure of Church property was regulated by the concordat between Henry I and Anselm, which established the obligation of homage on all temporalities. This led to the taxation of Church lands on the same footing as lands held by other barons. The taxation of the spiritual revenue of the clergy was attempted by John, but was withstood. The claim of the pope to tax the clergy for a crusade gradually helped the king to break down clerical immunities on this head. The Crown demanded grants from the spirituality, who considered these demands in convocation. In this way the clerical assembly took part in secular business, and the clergy became more definitely organized into an estate of the realm. They were recognized as such by Edward I in his parliament of 1295, to which he summoned the proctors of chapters and of the parochial clergy by means of the famous Præmunientes clause inserted in the writs of summons to the archbishop and bishops. But the clergy preferred to tax themselves in convocation, and therefore did not form a clerical estate. Probably they considered that they were sufficiently represented by the lords spiritual. [Convocation.]

The clergy in the Middle Ages were a wealthy body. Their share of indirect taxation was nearly a third of the whole amount. Their landed estates were spread over England, and their revenues from tithes and offerings were still greater. The monastic orders especially were good farmers, and did much to bring the soil of England under cultivation. The clergy were mild landlords, and stimulated the national industry. The numbers of the clergy were very large, and they were taken from every class of society. Even villeins sought ordination as a means of obtaining freedom. But the wealth of the Church was unequally divided. The bishops were generally engaged in the business of the state, and their example was followed by a large number of the lower clergy. A statute of 4 Edward III gave legal basis to the traditional custom by which the chancellor exercised the right of presentation to all livings of twenty marks and under which were rated in the king's books; and this statute limited the chancellor's choice to clerks of the Chancery, of the Exchequer, and of both benches. As a result of this income and of the appropriations by monastic houses, together with the dispensations granted by Rome to allow clergy to hold several incompatible benefices, the majority of the parishes were served by unbeneficed clergy and absenteeism was a widespread abuse. Parishes were not well served, in spite of the number of clergy. Very many of them were chaplains, or were endowed by private persons to say masses for their dead. Abuses grew up in proportion as the mechanism of the English Church was broken down by papal interference, and appeals to Rome rendered futile the authority of the bishops. Until the beginning of the thirteenth century the clerical order was amongst the most resolute supporters of natural liberties against the Crown. The growth of clerical corruption gave weight to the attacks of the Lollards upon the clergy, and the clergy, finding themselves threatened, made close alliance with the Crown. Yet the clergy, though ready to unite in defence of their own privileges, never made a compact political power. They were divided amongst themselves. The regular clergy opposed the seculars, the monks disliked the friars, Dominicans were set against Franciscans. In current politics the clergy were as much divided as the nation. They represented the education of the country, and their influence was spread into every class. Their moral influence was not so good. The excessive number of clergy, their wealth and idleness, rendered them on the whole frivolous. The obligation of celibacy was frequently evaded by concubinage, for which in some cases licences were purchased from bishops.

After the Reformation the wealth of the Church and the numbers of the clergy were greatly diminished. The connexion with the papacy ceased, and the clergy became closely united with the Crown. Ecclesiastical courts were not, however, abolished; and under Elizabeth a new court, the Court of High Commission, was created for the purpose of exercising the powers of the royal supremacy. Elizabeth used the bishops as State officials for the purpose of reducing to uniformity the body of the clergy. In large measure the

internal administration of the Church remained unchanged. An attempt was made to restrict the holding of benefices in plurality, but, although some restraints were imposed, the attempt was not very successful. Nor was any effort made to restrict the number of persons taking orders. From the middle of the thirteenth century to the middle of the nineteenth, comparatively little change was made in the internal organization of the Church. Hence the social gulf between the higher and lower clergy was great. The clergy were allowed to marry, but were ill-provided for, and no longer had an intellectual superiority over the laity. In the struggle against popery on one side and Puritanism on the other, the clergy became more and more firm adherents of the royal prerogative. The State, in its desire for internal unity, recognized no other religious system save that of the Church of England, and refused to extend its limits. At the same time the Court of High Commission was used to sanction oppressive proceedings on the part of the Crown. The Great Rebellion destroyed monarchy and Church alike, and at the Restoration the clergy returned as staunch Tories. Even the avowed intention of James II to re-establish Romanism did not, in the eyes of some of the clergy, justify the Revolution. Nearly four hundred followed Archbishop Sancroft in resigning their benefices rather than take the oath of allegiance to William III.

The clergy of the seventeenth century and the early part of the eighteenth as a body were poor, and very many of the incumbents laboured with their own hands. Ecclesiastical incomes were still very unequally divided, and there was a great difference between the wealthy and learned clergy and the ordinary incumbents, who were on the same level as their people. The first attempt to raise the position of the poorer clergy was made by Queen Anne, who resigned the claims of the Crown on annates and first-fruits, dues levied by the pope on benefices which had passed into the hands of the Crown. Out of these dues was formed a fund, known as "Queen Anne's Bounty" (q.v.), for the augmentation of small livings. From this time the average position of the clergy has slowly increased. In 1836 a body called Ecclesiastical Commissioners was established for the improved management and distribution of the revenues of the Church. The number of clergy attached to cathedrals was reduced, and the surplus revenues were applied to the increase of small benefices. In the same year the Tithes Commutation Act converted tithes into a rent-charge upon the land; and so ended the numerous disputes between the clergy and their parishioners which the system of tithes encouraged.

From the reign of Anne the clergy ceased to have any direct political importance. In 1717 the sittings of convocation were practically suspended. Since Anne's reign no bishop has held any office of state. During the eighteenth century the clergy were not zealous in the discharge of their duties till a new stimulus was given to religious zeal by the Wesleyan movement. The clergy were content to rest on their position as officers of a Church "by law established," and there were many scandals in reference to simoniacal appointments. The Tractarian movement of 1833 did much to deliver the Church from Erastianism, and to develop the zeal of the clergy. In 1838 the Pluralities Act did away with many of the abuses caused by the non-residence of wealthy clergymen at the benefices whose revenues they received.

Politically the clergy have been gradually deprived of exclusive privileges, and the State has removed all the disabilities which it had formerly placed on those who were not members of the Established Church. The clergy are now subject to the same jurisdiction as laymen in all civil matters. As regards their orthodoxy, their morals, and the conduct of their ministrations, they are subject to the jurisdiction of their bishops and to the law of the Church. The procedure of the Bishops' Court is regulated by the Church Discipline Act, 1840. Appeals from this court were formerly made to a Court of Delegates appointed by the king; but in 1832 this was transferred to the king in council.

Admission into the clerical body is given by episcopal ordination. Candidates must have reached the age of twenty-three, must prove themselves fit in character, education, and orthodoxy, and must show that they have a definite sphere within which they can exercise their clerical functions. By canon law, ordination conferred an indelible character on the recipient, and a clergyman could not relinquish the priesthood. The Clerical Disabilities Act (1870) provides that a clergyman may execute a deed of relinquishment, which is to be recorded by his bishop in the diocesan registry. After this registration, the priest or deacon is incapable of officiating as such, and loses all his rights as a clergyman.

To enable the clergy to discharge their duties more efficiently, the State exempts them from certain civil responsibilities. They cannot be compelled to serve on a jury or to hold any temporal office. Ecclesiastical revenues cannot be seized in payment of debts, but are subject to sequestration, i.e., the churchwardens pay the sum due out of the profits of the benefice, after making provision for the performance of the services of the church. On the other hand, the clergy labour under certain disabilities owing to their spiritual avocations. They are prohibited from trading, and may not sue for debts due from commercial transactions. In 1800 they were declared incapable of being elected members of the House of Commons.

[In the twentieth century the passing of the Church of England Assembly (Powers) Act in

December 1919, and the measures of reform passed by parliament after consideration by the national assembly, have effected considerable alterations in the position of the clergy. Acts have been passed requiring all parochial clergy to make compulsory contributions to a pension scheme, and providing a more expeditious means of removing from their benefices priests who habitually neglect the duties of their office. A measure for the reform of ecclesiastical courts is also engaging the attention of the national assembly. The position of the clergy may not improbably undergo several changes in consequence of the reforms of the assembly. It is worthy of note, in conclusion, that during the Great War of 1914–18 the clergy were exempted from all liability to military service.]

Stubbs and Haddan, "Councils"; Wilkins, "Concilia"; Stubbs, "Constitutional History," ch. xix; Bp. Gibson, "Codex Juris Ecclesiastici Anglicani"; W. Stephens and W. Hunt, "History of the Church of England," 8 vols., 1899–1904; Blackstone, "Commentaries," book iv. [M. C.]

"Clericis Laicos" are the opening words of the famous bull issued by Pope Boniface VIII (February 24, 1293) absolutely forbidding the king to take, or the clergy to pay, taxes on their ecclesiastical revenues. The result of this was that, in 1297, Archbishop Winchelsey refused to agree to a money grant, whereupon Edward I put the clergy out of his protection and confiscated the estates of the see of Canterbury. Upon this, many of the clergy gave in; but the archbishop still held out, till eventually a compromise was made, whereby Winchelsey promised that, if the king would confirm the charters, he would do his best to obtain money from the clergy, the pope having already declared in the bull *Romana Mater* that his prohibition did not affect voluntary grants for purposes of national defence. [Confirmatio Cartarum.] In July 1297 Boniface completely abandoned the doctrine of *Clericis Laicos* in the bull *Etsi de statu*.

Cleveland, Barbara Villiers, Duchess of (1641–1709). [Villiers.]

Clifford, George, 3rd Earl of Cumberland (1558–1605), early displayed a taste for naval adventure. In 1586 he inflicted considerable damage on Portuguese commerce, and two years later commanded a ship in the attack on the Spanish Armada off Calais. He subsequently engaged in several marauding expeditions against the Spaniards in 1591, 1593, and 1595, and in 1598 took Porto Rico. The earl, besides being renowned for his dashing exploits by sea, was an accomplished courtier and a great favourite of the queen, by whom he was made a knight of the Garter, though his character was not altogether free from stain. "Before his death he had squandered his fortune; nor, high as he may rank as a man of talent, science, enterprise, and chivalry, is his memory as a husband free from the charge of cruelty."

Biography by E. C. Williamson, 1920.

Clifford, Henry, 1st Earl of Cumberland (1493–1542), was famous as one of the three northern nobles who remained loyal to the king's cause during the formidable insurrection of 1536, known as the "Pilgrimage of Grace" (q.v.). His successful defence of Skipton Castle against the vigorous attack of the rebels was an important check to their otherwise triumphant progress through the districts north of the Humber, and considerably advanced him in the confidence and favour of the king. He was created Earl of Cumberland in 1525.

Clifford, John, 13th Baron Clifford, and 9th Baron of Westmorland (*d.* 1461), was the son of Thomas, Lord Clifford, who fell in the first battle of St. Albans. He was a strong Lancastrian, and took part in the battle of Wakefield, after which, in revenge for his father's death, he killed in cold blood the young Earl of Rutland, son of the Duke of York. In 1461 he was defeated and slain at Ferrybridge.

R. B. Mowat, "Wars of the Roses," 1914.

Clifford, Rosamund (*d.* 1175?), commonly called the Fair Rosamund, was the daughter of Walter de Clifford, and mistress of Henry II. There is no foundation for the late story that she was the mother of Henry's two illegitimate sons, William Longsword, Earl of Salisbury, and Geoffrey, Archbishop of York. The story that Rosamund was poisoned by Queen Eleanor is also without authority. Nothing is known of her death. She was buried at Godstow nunnery, but in 1191 Hugh, Bishop of Lincoln, ordered her body to be removed to the chapter-house, where it remained till the Reformation.

Clifford, Thomas, 1st Lord Clifford of Chudleigh (1630–73), descended from an old Catholic family, highly distinguished himself by his bravery in the Dutch War of 1665, and in 1666 was made a privy councillor. He joined the Cabal ministry (q.v.) in 1667, and took a prominent part in the Treaty of Dover, and in advocating the war with Holland. In 1672 he was made lord high treasurer and a baron. In 1673 the passing of the Test Act compelled him, as a Catholic, to resign his office, and shortly afterwards he died. Clifford was one of the most zealous Catholics at court, and a strong advocate of tolerance of all religious opinions.

Clinton, Edward Fiennes de, 9th Lord Clinton and Saye (1512–85), an able commander and astute diplomatist, was, in 1550, appointed lord high admiral of England, having in the previous year held the post of governor of Boulogne. On the accession of Elizabeth, he was confirmed in his office of lord high admiral, though he had just before shown some want of energy whilst commanding the

fleet in the expedition against Brest, 1558. He subsequently became a trusted adviser of Elizabeth, and in 1569 did much to suppress the rising in the north. In 1572 he was created Earl of Lincoln, and in the same year sent to Paris to ratify the treaty with France. His policy was strongly anti-Spanish.

Clinton, Sir Henry (1738–95), was a grandson of the 6th Earl of Lincoln. On the prospect of a rupture with the American colonies, he was sent out with Howe and Burgoyne in command of reinforcements. He distinguished himself at Bunker Hill, and was soon afterwards dispatched to Charleston. He was appointed commandant of Long Island. He did not, however, hold it long, as he was compelled to capitulate to Gates. In January 1778 he was appointed commander-in-chief in America, and was fairly successful in this position. In 1780 he made an expedition to South Carolina and captured Charleston, and at one time had almost won back the Carolinas and Georgia. This campaign was stained by his tampering with General Arnold to induce him to deliver up West Point—a transaction which cost Major André's life. He failed also to succour Cornwallis. Circumstances which would have tried a much greater general than he were opposed to him, and he was superseded. On his return to England, a pamphlet war of mutual recriminations ensued between the two generals. He was afterwards governor of Limerick, and in 1794 was transferred to Gibraltar, in command of which post he died in December 1795.

Clinton's "Narrative," 1782, and "Observations on Cornwallis's Answer," 1783.

Clinton, Sir Henry, G.C.B. (1771–1829), entered the army in 1787, and first saw active service, as aide-de-camp to the Duke of York, in the campaigns of 1793–4 in the Netherlands. On his return to England in 1795 he was appointed lieutenant-colonel of the 66th, and proceeded to the West Indies to join his regiment. On his return from there he served under Lord Cornwallis in Ireland, as aide-de-camp, and was present at the surrender of the French at Ballinamuck. In April 1799 he was attached to Lord William Bentinck on a mission to the Austro-Russian army in northern Italy, and was present at the battles of Trebia and Novi, and the siege of Alessandria. He afterwards joined Suwaroff in Switzerland. On his return to England he was appointed adjutant-general in India till 1805, where he served under Lake at the battle of Laswari. In 1806 he commanded the Guards in Sicily, and held Syracuse from December 1806 to the following November. He was then appointed to the command of a brigade in Sir John Moore's expedition to Sweden, and on his return became adjutant-general to the army in Portugal, in which capacity he was present at the battle of Vimeiro. He accompanied Moore through the Spanish campaign and the retreat to Corunna. His next employment was in Ireland, where he remained two years, until he found a more congenial sphere in the command of a division under Wellington. He rendered conspicuous service at Salamanca, was left in command on the Douro when Wellington advanced to Madrid, and was present at the siege of Burgos. For his services he received the thanks of parliament. His last public services were rendered to the country at Waterloo, where he commanded a division of infantry.

Sir C. Oman, "Peninsular War," 1902–20.

Clive, Robert, Lord (1725–74), was the son of an obscure country gentleman of good lineage but small fortune. He was sent to India in the capacity of a writer in 1743, and was present at the surrender of Madras to La Bourdonnais in 1746. The counting-house was little adapted to his genius, however, and he soon exchanged the pen for the sword. Having obtained an ensign's commission, he distinguished himself in the operation before Devikota, where he attracted the admiration of Major Lawrence (1749). He was also present at the disastrous siege of Pondicherry, under Admiral Boscawen. By this time the success of the confederation which Dupleix had aroused against the British had rendered the French masters of all south India. Clive successfully persuaded Saunders, governor of Madras, to allow him to undertake the celebrated expedition to Arcot, which, by dividing the forces of the enemy, saved the British garrison cooped up in Trichinopoly. Clive's defence of Arcot laid the foundation of the British Empire in India. After fifty days the troops of Chanda Sahib raised the siege. A series of successes, culminating at Trichinopoly, led to the surrender of the French general d'Auteuil to Chanda Sahib, and this in its turn brought about the recall and disgrace of Dupleix. After the capture of Covelong and Chingleput —two strong places in the Carnatic—Clive returned to England, in 1753, with his health greatly impaired. He was received with great distinction by the company and by the ministers, and on his return to India was appointed governor of Fort St. David. In 1756 Clive was entrusted with the task of revenging the tragedy of the Black Hole of Calcutta (q.v.) on Suraj-ud-Dowlah. With Admiral Watson in command of the fleet, he soon recovered Calcutta, and forced the nawab to treat for peace. But no sooner had Clive been called away than Suraj-ud-Dowlah began to intrigue with the French. It was evident that the British power was in serious danger unless a prompt blow were struck; and Clive, after entering into negotiations with the nawab's discontented subjects, utterly defeated the native army at Plassey (June 23, 1757). Mir Jafar was appointed to the government of Bengal; but his fellow-traitor, Omichund, whose services had been secured by a forged promise

of £300,000, received nothing. From the new nawab Clive obtained for the company a concession of the land 600 yards around the Mahratta Ditch, and the zemindary rights of the country lying to the south of Calcutta. The victory of Plassey was followed by the assassination of Suraj-ud-Dowlah; the reconstitution of the government of Calcutta, with Clive at its head; the rout of the invading army of Alamgir, the heir of the Mogul Empire (1759); and the return of Clive to England in 1760. On his arrival he was received with great distinction by all ranks, and honoured with an Irish peerage. In 1765 he went once more to India, as governor of Bengal, pledged to reform the luxury and corruption of the civil servants of the company—who had made large fortunes by the cruellest extortion—and to settle the disturbed affairs of Bengal. He put an end to these practices by enforcing the laws prohibiting the acceptance of presents from the natives; while, at the same time, he raised the pay of the civil service by appropriating to this purpose the proceeds of the salt monopoly. The Nawab of Murshidabad [Mir Kasim] was pensioned off, the dewani of Bengal, Bihar, and Orissa was obtained for the company by imperial firman, and a mutiny in the army was successfully quelled. In 1766 Clive finally returned to England, with his health shattered by severe attacks of disease, when his enemies in the India House tried to impeach him for corrupt practices; but the House of Commons passed a resolution that "Robert Lord Clive had rendered great and meritorious services to his country." Broken, however, by the pressure of bodily and mental suffering, he put an end to his existence in November 1774. [India, Administration of.]

Macaulay, "Essays"; Sir J. Malcolm, "Life of Clive," 1836; Sir C. W. Wilson, "Clive," 1889; H. H. Dodwell, "Dupleix and Clive," 1920; Sir G. W. Forrest, "Clive," 2 vols., 1918. [B. S.]

Clontarf (Cluantarbh), The Battle of, was fought on Good Friday, April 23, 1014. Brian Boru (q.v.) and his son, at the head of the Irish of Munster, Connaught, Meath, and Ulster, were opposed to the Ostmen (q.v.) of Ireland, reinforced by their countrymen from the Baltic and the Orkneys, and supported by the Leinster Irish. The result was a victory for Brian; but both he and his son fell in the fight. The Danes never became formidable to the native Irish after this defeat.

E. Curtis, "Mediæval Ireland," 1923.

Clontarf, Meeting at. A monster meeting in support of the repeal of the Union was to be held on this historic spot on October 8, 1843. The government issued a proclamation for its prevention, and military precautions were taken. O'Connell (q.v.) and the priests exerted themselves to keep the people from assembling, and succeeded, in spite of the short notice given. But it thus became evident that O'Connell would not fight. The repeal movement therefore collapsed.

"Annual Register," 1843; Sir T. Erskine May, "Constitutional History," ed. F. Holland, 1912.

Close Rolls, The, are certain records of the Crown containing letters, mandates, etc., of a private nature. They begin in 1204, and treat of an infinite variety of subjects. They are of very great importance in the thirteenth, fourteenth, and fifteenth centuries as containing materials for local and family histories, and also as shedding light on many obscure parts of our national annals. The Close Rolls of John and the first eleven years of Henry III have been printed by the Record Commission under the editorship of Sir T. Hardy.

Closter-Seven, The Convention of (1757). [Kloster-Zeven.]

Cloth of Gold, Field of the, is the name given to the meeting between Henry VIII and Francis I of France at Guines in June 1520. It has been so designated from the lavish splendour with which it was prepared. The meeting was preceded in May, and followed in July, by conferences between Henry VIII and the Emperor Charles V at Sandwich and Gravelines.

Clovesho was the place appointed at the Council of Hertford (673) for the annual assembling of the whole Church. These projected annual assemblies were not held, but two notable synods were held at Clovesho in the eighth century. There have been numerous conjectures as to its situation. It may perhaps be identified with Cliffe-at-Hoo, in Kent, though some have claimed for it a position nearer London.

Club, The, was a name given to the parliamentary majority of the Scots parliament, 1689, which used to meet in a tavern in Edinburgh to concert measures against the government. The Club, which was composed of various elements, including Tories, discontented Whigs, and men of other political creeds, soon attained considerable power, and proved an immense hindrance to the government. In 1690 its chief members, Annandale, Ross, and Montgomery, began to intrigue with the Jacobites, but Annandale divulged the plans and the "Montgomery Plot" was abandoned.

P. Hume Brown, "History of Scotland," 1911.

Clyde, Sir Colin Campbell, Baron (1792–1863). [Campbell.]

Cnut. [Canute.]

Cobbett, William (1762–1835), the son of a Surrey farmer, was born at Farnham. After spending some years as a solicitor's clerk and a private in the army, he went to America in 1792, and opened a bookseller's shop in Philadelphia. Here he issued a series of pamphlets over the signature of "Peter Porcupine." In 1801 he returned to England

and set up a morning paper, in which he warmly supported Pitt. This failed, and he started the *Weekly Political Register* in January 1802. At first he was patronized by the ministry, but in 1805 he became an eager Radical, and a formidable opponent to the ministry. In 1810 he was prosecuted for some remarks on military flogging, and imprisoned for two years; but he continued to write. It was at this time that he issued *Twopenny Trash*, a series of papers wherewith he harassed the administration. In 1817 he again settled in America; but returned in 1819 and took an active part in the trial of Queen Caroline. He also unsuccessfully contested Coventry and Preston. Renewing his attention to agriculture, he took a farm, and attempted to introduce Indian corn as a staple article of English produce, but the project proved a failure. About this time he undertook his famous series of political tours, which were published under the title of "Rural Rides" (1830). In 1831 he was prosecuted for publishing a libel with intent to rouse discontent in the minds of the labourers. In defending himself he made a defiant speech, declaring that "the Tories had ruled the country with rods, but the Whigs scourged it with scorpions." The jury disagreed and he was discharged. In 1832 he was returned to the reformed parliament for Oldham. The exertion of speaking on the Marquis of Chandos's motion on agricultural distress on May 25, 1835, and remaining late to vote were too much for him. He went down to his farm early next morning, and died three weeks afterwards. He was a most prolific and popular writer, and the vigour of his style and his extraordinary mastery of the resources of the language have been deservedly praised. Among his works are the "Parliamentary History of England from the Norman Conquest in 1066 to the year 1803," a well-known and useful compilation; the "Political Register"; "Cottage Economy," 1823; and a translation of Marten's "Law of Nations," 1795.

The biographies of Cobbett include those by E. I. Carlyle, 1904; G. K. Chesterton, 1925; G. D. H. Cole, 1924.

Cobden, Richard (1804–65), was born at Midhurst, in Sussex, and became early in life a traveller for a cotton firm, settling in Lancashire. In 1828 he started a business in partnership with some of his relatives. He was highly successful in his new sphere of work, and travelled abroad in Greece, Turkey, and the United States in the interest of the house to which he belonged (1835–7). On his return from America he addressed several letters on economic and political subjects to the *Manchester Examiner*, strongly advocating the theories he championed in later years—peace, retrenchment, non-intervention, and free trade. Meanwhile the Anti-Corn Law League had been established in Manchester (1838), and when Cobden and John Bright (q.v.) joined its ranks they roused its energies to the full. At the election of 1841, when Lord Melbourne appealed to the country in favour of a fixed duty on corn, Cobden was returned for Stockport. He now had every opportunity of advocating his views; and at last Sir Robert Peel declared himself in favour of the suspension of the Corn Laws (1845) and repealed them in the following year, paying a just tribute to Cobden's efforts. While absent on the continent Cobden was returned for the West Riding of Yorkshire in 1847. He had previously declined to join Lord Russell's minority, but he offered a strong opposition to the Derby government of 1852, and roundly denounced the policy of the Aberdeen coalition in entering the Crimean War (1854). Though he succeeded in carrying a vote condemning Sir John Bowring's proceedings in China, however, his course was so distasteful to his constituents that he did not offer himself again for the West Riding and remained out of parliament until 1859, when he was elected in his absence for Rochdale. In 1860 he negotiated the Cobden Treaty (q.v.) with France, but still refused to accept office. To the end he continued an ardent advocate of free trade and non-intervention, and was one of the few British politicians who supported the North in the early stages of the American Civil War of 1861–5. His principles of free trade and non-intervention sprang from a common root—his earnest desire to destroy tariff barriers and other obstacles to internationalism and peace. He detested what he called the "filthy idol" of balance of power, and urged governments to "keep their hands off and allow the mutual interests of free commercial intercourse to weave bonds of union between peoples," and to make an end of the prevailing system of diplomacy "poisoned by obsolete traditions of suspicion and hostility." He died on April 2, 1865.

Lord Morley, "Life of Cobden," 1881; J. A. Hobson, "Richard Cobden the International Man," 1918; W. H. Dawson, "Cobden and Foreign Policy," 1926; Cobden's Speeches, ed. J. Bright and J. E. Thorold Rogers.

Cobden Treaty, The (January 23, 1860), was a commercial treaty concluded between Great Britain and France, Richard Cobden (q.v.) being the British plenipotentiary. It is remarkable for having been negotiated by Cobden not by the set methods of diplomacy, but in an informal conversation with the Emperor Napoleon III. It met with considerable opposition from the Conservative party in England, and from the protectionist followers of Thiers in France. The terms were a limitation of the French duties on British manufactured goods to 30 per cent., the abolition of the British duty on French manufactured goods (and French silk), and a reduction of the duty on French wines to three shillings per gallon.

Cobham, Eleanor, was first the mistress and then the wife o Humphrey, Duke of Gloucester, to whom she was married some time before 1431. She was the daughter

of Reginald, Lord Cobham. In 1441 she was arraigned on a charge of treason and witchcraft, and it appeared that her accomplices had by her orders constructed a waxen image of King Henry VI, which they gradually melted before a fire, it being expected that the king's life would waste away as the image was acted upon by the heat. In the event of Henry's death, the Duke of Gloucester, as the nearest heir of the house of Lancaster, would have succeeded to the throne. For these crimes Eleanor Cobham was compelled to do public penance in the streets of London, and was imprisoned for life.

K. H. Vickers, "Humphrey Duke of Gloucester," 1907.

Cobham, Barons. [Brooke, Henry; Brooke, William.]

Cobham, Lord (*d.* 1417). [Oldcastle.]

Cochrane, Robert, said by his enemies to have been a stonemason, but more probably an architect, was the favourite and principal adviser of James III of Scotland, whom he is said to have instigated to murder his brother, the Earl of Mar. On Mar's death, Cochrane obtained a grant of his estates, a circumstance which roused the Scots nobles to fury. No audience could be obtained with the king except through his favourite, and the debasement of the coinage which he advised irritated the whole nation. He was hanged, together with some other favourites of the king, at the bridge of Lauder, by Archibald Douglas (q.v.), Earl of Angus ("Bell-the-Cat"), in 1482.

P. Hume Brown, "History of Scotland," 1911.

Cochrane, Thomas, 10th Earl of Dundonald (1775–1860), after brilliant service against the French as commander of the *Speedy* and of the *Pallas*, entered parliament as member for Honiton (1806). In 1807, with Sir Francis Burdett, he was elected for Westminster, and so excited the enmity of the authorities by his attacks upon naval administration that when, in 1808, he failed in his gallant attempt to destroy the French fleet off Brest, he was put upon half-pay. In 1814 he was charged with having circulated lying news of the fall of Napoleon in order to make money on the Stock Exchange, and, though innocent, he was cashiered and imprisoned. In 1817 and subsequently he distinguished himself in the naval service of Chile (1818–22), Brazil (1823–5), and Greece (1827–8). In 1832 he received a free pardon, and became a rear-admiral.

J. B. Atlay, "Trial of Cochrane Before Lord Ellenborough," 1897; biographies by H. R. Fox Bourne, 2 vols., 1869, and J. W. Fortescue, 1895.

Codrington, Christopher (1668–1710), was born in Barbados, and having served with distinction in Europe, being present at the siege of Namur, was rewarded in 1699 with the post of governor of the Leeward Islands. In 1703 he planned and carried out the attack on the French at Guadeloupe.

Codrington, Admiral Sir Edward (1770–1851), entered the navy in 1783, and was present at the battles of the First of June and Trafalgar. He accompanied the expedition to Walcheren, and was employed off the coast of Spain co-operating with the Catalonian patriots during the Peninsular War. During the war with the United States which followed he was promoted to the rank of rear-admiral. In 1815 he was nominated a K.C.B., was promoted to the rank of vice-admiral, 1825, and was appointed commander-in-chief of the Mediterranean squadron, 1826. It was in this capacity that he took the leading part in the battle of Navarino, October 20, 1827. In reward for this, Codrington was advanced to the dignity of the Grand Cross of the Bath; while from the Emperor of Russia he received the Grand Cross of St. George; and from the King of France the Grand Cross of St. Louis. But at home opinions were divided as to the necessity of what the Duke of Wellington called "an untoward event," and Sir Edward was thought to have been unduly influenced by his Philhellenic idea. He was recalled in April 1828, on account of subsequent neglect, declared Wellington, rather than because of Navarino. Before sailing for England he negotiated the Convention of Alexandria (q.v.), August 6. He obtained the rank of full admiral in 1837, and was appointed in 1839 commander-in-chief at Portsmouth, resigning his seat as M.P. for Devonport, which he had held since 1832.

His "Memoirs," edited by his daughter (1873), provide a good deal of valuable evidence for the obscure period of Navarino and his subsequent recall.

Coinage. The Britons seem first to have learnt the art of coinage from the Gauls about a hundred or two hundred years before the invasion of Julius Cæsar. The Gaulish native coinage at this era consisted chiefly of rude imitations of the gold staters of Philip II of Macedon, which almost from the time that they were struck, or say from about 300 B.C., began to have a currency in that country. These copies passed over into Britain, and were again in their turn copied still more rudely by the Britons. The coins of Philip, which thus afforded a prototype to both the Gaulish and British coins, represented upon one side the laureate head of Apollo (or possibly Arês or Heraclês), and on the reverse a two-horse chariot or biga. The British imitations of these pieces are so rude that at first sight no resemblance between the original and the copy can be detected. The barbarous artists, unable to copy the head, have represented it by only a few lines and dots, and have at last confined their attempts at copying to the hair and the laurel wreath. On the reverse, the chariot and charioteer have almost or totally disappeared, and the horse is barely recognizable. At first the British currency was entirely of gold, but a short time before the Roman invasion, silver, copper, and tin coins were

also issued. These began by being imitations of the gold coinage, but afterwards copied the silver and other metal coins of Gaul. The British coins were at first entirely without legend; but about the time of the Roman invasion names began to appear upon them. Some of these names are otherwise known to history, as is, for example, Cunobelinus, the Cymbeline of Shakespeare. Although Cæsar's invasion did not immediately affect the political condition of the country, a tendency to imitate the Roman civilization (which was beginning to take a firm hold in Gaul) set in in Britain, and of this there is abundant evidence on the coins. The Macedonian type gradually disappears, and we have designs copied from the contemporary Roman coinage.

After the subjugation of South Britain by the Romans, the regular imperial series was substituted for the native currency, British towns of mintage being Londinium (London) and Camulodunum (Colchester). The last Roman coins struck in Britain were probably some which bear the name of Magnus Maximus the usurper, and which were apparently issued in or about A.D. 383. From this time forward a considerable interval occurs. Doubtless, Roman coins were still current in Britain, though as time went on they must have diminished in numbers. Then came the rise of the Saxon currency. The first coins issued by the Saxons seem to have been some small silver pieces usually called *sceattas*, weighing twenty grains, and bearing generally no name, whose precise date, on this account, it would be very hard to determine. Those of the sceattas which are probably the latest are some which have Runic letters, and which can be dated in the middle of the seventh century. While we are speaking of these coins it is the proper place to notice a series of copper pieces, very like the sceattas in size and shape, which were confined altogether to the kingdom of Northumbria, and which belong to a rather later period than the sceattas, namely, to the eighth and part of the ninth centuries. They are called *stycas*.

We then come to the coin which long remained almost the sole money of the English, with the insignificant exception of a few gold coins, which were struck from time to time. This was the *penny*. It was copied from the silver *denarius*, which in the course of the eighth century and under the Carolingian dynasty had come to supplant the gold currency of the Merovingian time. The penny, like the Carolingian denarius, was a thin and flat silver coin, weighing some twenty to twenty-four grains; the full weight being twenty-four, whence the twenty-four grains which make up our pennyweight. The usual type of the penny showed on one side a rude head or bust, intended conventionally to represent that of the king, whose name was written round the head, while on the reverse the piece showed some device, most frequently a form of cross: around this device was written the name of the moneyer, i.e., the fabricator of the coin, and of the town in which the piece was made. The pennies begin with Offa, King of Mercia (A.D. 757–96), and they continue (with trifling exceptions) the sole English coins until the reign of Edward I (1272).

The student must be placed upon his guard against confounding the actual denominations of coins with the denominations of *money of account*. In early times calculations were constantly made in money of account which was unrepresented by any coined pieces. This was a reminiscence of the days when money was computed altogether by weight. In fact, it may be said that the name of almost every coin which has ever existed has denominated a weight before it denominated a coined piece (e.g., the Greek *stater*, the Jewish *shekel*, etc.). The Saxon money of account was of two kinds. One was derived from their weight system, which was a combination of the Roman and a non-Roman Teutonic system, and whose chief denominations were the *pound* and the *mark*. The second money of account was simply taken from the Roman (or Byzantine) gold coin, the *solidus*, which in English was called the *shilling*. We frequently read of sums computed in pounds, marks, and shillings. Occasionally a solidus in gold was actually struck. The value of these moneys of account relative to the current coin has remained unaltered. The pound contained twenty shillings, or 240 pence; the mark two-thirds of the pound, or 160 pence. The mark eventually fell out of use, leaving the three forms of money by which we still compute—the pound (liber), the shilling (solidus), and the penny (denarius). From these Latin names come our symbols, £, s, d.

The Norman Conquest produced at first no material alteration in the English coinage. The penny continued to be the sole currency down to the reign of Edward I. Henry I is said to have ordered an issue of half-pennies, but none of these are known. John struck some half-pennies at the London and Winchester mints. The pennies of the first two Williams were as varied in their types as those of any previous monarch; but after these reigns the types diminished rapidly in number, and from the time of Edward I downwards, through many subsequent reigns, this coin was made upon one uniform pattern, which showed on the obverse a full face crowned, and on the reverse a long cross; the whole displaying a distinctly architectural design. The *groat* (first coined in the reign of Edward I) was in type almost identical with the penny. The next important change was made by Edward III, who introduced a gold currency into England. For a long period in the Middle Ages—that is to say, from the beginning of the ninth century to the middle of the thirteenth—the gold coins in use in western Europe had been supplied by the Emperors of Byzantium, whence these

pieces acquired the name of *bezants*. Florence and Venice, in the course of the thirteenth century, instituted a gold currency of their own, and this example was speedily followed by other countries of Europe. Henry III had made the experiment of a gold coinage by striking gold pennies worth thirty times as much as the silver coins; but this was only an experiment. Edward III introduced a regular gold currency, first of *florins* (named after the gold coin of Florence), and afterwards of *nobles*, so called on account of the fineness of their metal. In value they were equal to eighty pence—i.e., to half a mark. The noble represented on one side the king in a ship (said to be an allusion to the victory of Sluys), and on the other a highly ornamental cross. *Half* and *quarter nobles* were issued at the same time. The type was slightly altered by Edward IV, who replaced the reverse cross by a sun, and on the side of the ship placed a rose, from whence his pieces got the name of *rose nobles*. They were also called *ryals* (royals). Silver having declined in value in comparison with gold, the rose nobles were now worth ten shillings, and to represent the older value of half a mark a new piece was struck, having on one side the figure of St. Michael trampling upon Satan, and on the other a ship bearing a cross. This coin was called the *angel noble*, or, more shortly, the *angel;* its half was the *angelet*.

Further changes of importance are to be noted in the reign of Henry VII. In the gold currency, the *pound sovereign* was added to the pieces already in circulation. This coin, which was larger than any previously struck and current for twenty shillings, represented upon the obverse the king enthroned, and on the other side the royal arms over a rose. Shillings were now first struck, and the type of the groat was changed from a front to a side face. Henry VIII struck some double-sovereigns, as well as half-sovereigns, and *crowns*, or quarter-sovereigns, in gold, and he issued a new type of noble (not continued in subsequent reigns) called the *George noble*. It nearly resembled the angel, but displayed St. George in place of St. Michael on the obverse. This king is unfavourably distinguished as the first who persistently debased the coinage of the country. The debasement continued during the two following reigns; but in the reign of Elizabeth the coinage was restored to its former purity. Edward VI first struck the *crown* and the *half-crown* in silver, as well as the *sixpence*. In the reign of Mary we have sovereigns, rose nobles, angels, half-angels, half-crowns, shillings, groats, pence, and the divisions of the penny; but in the reign of Elizabeth we find the highest complement in the number of its denominations which the English coinage ever attained. It now consisted of no fewer than twenty distinct kinds of coin, viz., *in gold*, of the sovereign, half-, quarter-, and half-quarter-sovereign, rose noble or ryal, angel (now equal to half-sovereign), angelet and quarter-angel, crown and half-crown; *in silver*, of the crown, half-crown, shilling, sixpence, groat, half-groat, threepenny, and three-halfpenny pieces, the penny, the three farthings, the half-penny, and farthing. Queen Elizabeth also struck coins for the use of the East India Company, which may be reckoned the beginning of the English colonial coinage. In the reign of James I there was no substantial alteration, though some of the above denominations were changed, and some abandoned. The sovereign was now generally known as the *broad*, and this name was continued through the reign of Charles I and through the Commonwealth. Charles I struck some pieces of the value of three pounds, and subsequently, during the scarcity of gold which he experienced during the Civil War, he melted plate and coined it into silver pieces of the values of twenty and of ten shillings.

From the accession of James I until the reign of Charles II, considerable fluctuations took place in the value of gold, and therefore in the value of the chief gold coin. At one time the broad was worth as much as thirty shillings. In the reign of Charles II it became fixed to the somewhat arbitrary value of twenty-one shillings, and as the gold from which the money of this reign was made came chiefly from the Guinea coast, the highest gold coins of this period acquired the name of guinea-pounds, or of *guineas*. Henceforth, until nearly the end of the reign of George III, the guinea entirely replaced the sovereign, and the gold currency, from the reign of Charles II to George III, uniformly consisted of pieces of five, two, one, and half-guineas. In 1817 George III reintroduced the sovereign, and the guinea was abandoned. Copper coins were first made in 1672, and replaced by bronze in 1861. £5 and £2 pieces, in gold, and a silver four-shilling piece were added in 1887, when new designs were placed on all the coins in honour of Queen Victoria's jubilee. The double florin and the groat were not continued in the coinage of Edward VII, and the crown piece has since also been discontinued until 1928, when new designs were introduced in our silver coinage. As a result of the financial crisis caused by the Great War of 1914–18 the gold coinage ceased to be current and was replaced by treasury notes to the value of ten shillings and one pound.

The coinage of Scotland began at a much later date than did that of England. With the exception of a few rude pennies, we have no Scottish money until the reign of David I, about the year 1124. The first coinage of Scotland followed as closely as possible the types of the English money, consisting, like the English coinage, at first exclusively of *pennies*, and about the end of the thirteenth century (David II) of the penny and the *groat*. The *noble* was likewise introduced by David II,

but not continued in subsequent reigns. After her long struggle for independence had come to an end, Scotland began to issue a series of new denominations, which we will briefly mention in the order in which they were introduced. Robert II coined gold pieces called, from their types, *St. Andrew* and *Lion* (having the shield of Scotland upon one side), and equal respectively to half and a quarter of the noble. These two names and types were afterwards united for one piece. James I struck a coin called *demy*, and equal in value to half an English noble. In the reign of James III were issued the first coins in base silver, or billon, and of a very low value, which went by the names of *placks* and *half-placks*. The Scottish coinage was now completely separated from the English, though some of the nominal values were still retained. The actual values of the Scottish currency deteriorated so rapidly that when, in the reign of James VI (I), the coinages of the two countries had to be brought into agreement, the Scottish shilling was found to be worth only one-twelfth of the English shilling. Therefore, when we read of a certain number of shillings Scots, we may pretty generally reduce that to the same number of pence in English reckoning. In the reign of James III we notice the introduction of two new gold coins, the *rider*, which shows the king on horseback, and the *unicorn*, on which that animal is holding a shield. Divisions of these pieces and of the St. Andrew were struck. Two other gold coins, not differing much from these in value, but different in type, belong to the reign of James V—viz., the *ecu*, or crown, giving (as the name implies) the shield of Scotland on the obverse, and the *bonnet* piece, where the king's bust is represented in a square cap. The same prince coined a billon piece, known as the *bawbee*, a corruption from *bas pièce* in Scottish French. In the reign of Mary we have a number of new coins, which by their names show an approach to the contemporary English coinage —viz., the *twenty shilling* piece, the *ryal* in gold, the *testoon*, equal in value to an English sixpence, and a billon piece called *hardhead*. A separate Scottish coinage was continued in the reigns of James I and Charles I, but the coins were more and more assimilated to the English type.

The Irish coinage calls for little remark. The Danish kings of Ireland in the tenth and eleventh centuries struck pennies, some of which bear the names of known kings. The first coins struck after the Anglo-Norman conquest were issued by John while still a prince, and governor of Ireland. Henceforward the Irish coinage follows that of England, with these differences—that it contains no gold coinage, nor the higher denominations of silver, and is generally of a more alloyed metal. The harp for Ireland and the three crowns are the most distinctive types. The principal Anglo-Irish mint places were Dublin and Waterford. Edward IV struck a considerable Irish currency, and at various mints, Dublin, Cork, Drogheda, Limerick, Trim, Waterford, and Wexford. During the period that James II remained in Ireland, after his flight from London, he issued a coinage of bronze, generally called gun-money, which assumed the denomination of coins of corresponding size and type in silver. On the accession of William and Mary this coinage fell to its metal value, that is to say, a nominal value of £22,500 was bought back for £640.

G. Macdonald, "The Evolution of Coinage," 1911; Avebury, "Short History of Coins and Currency," 1903; R. Ruding, "Annals of the Coinage of England," 1840; J. Evans, "The Coinage of the Ancient Britons"; C. F. Keary and H. A. Grueber, "British Museum Catalogue of English Coins"; H. A. Grueber, "Handbook of Coins of Great Britain and Ireland."

[C. F. K.]

Coke, Sir Edward (1552–1634), chief justice of England, was born at Mileham, in Norfolk. After leaving Cambridge, he became a member of the Inner Temple, and was called to the bar early in 1578, when his extraordinary ability speedily became manifest. Appointed recorder of Norwich, 1586, he fulfilled the duties of his office with such acuteness that, in 1592, he was made recorder of London, and in the same year solicitor-general. As Speaker of the House of Commons, in 1593, he distinguished himself by the flowery nature of his addresses to Elizabeth, and a few months later became attorney-general, in which capacity he conducted the prosecution, for the Crown, of the Earls of Southampton and Essex (1601). In 1603 Coke, who had received the honour of knighthood from James I, was the Crown prosecutor at the trial of Sir Walter Ralegh, on which occasion he displayed unfeeling harshness and arrogance. Three years later Sir Edward Coke was engaged to prosecute the conspirators in the Gunpowder Plot, and displayed great ability in his management of the case. Shortly afterwards he became chief justice of the Common Pleas, and, in 1613, was transferred to the King's Bench and made a privy councillor. His enemies were, however, many and powerful; Lord Chancellor Ellesmere, Buckingham, and Sir Francis Bacon were his implacable foes, and in 1616 Coke refused to assist the court by giving judgment for the king in the case of Commendams (q.v.), and thus gave them an opportunity to procure his downfall. The chief justice was removed from his office on the charge that in his reports of decided cases he had introduced several things in derogation of the royal prerogative. The enmity of Bacon continued, but Coke, by the alliance of his daughter with a brother of Buckingham, regained some small share of the royal favour, and was subsequently one of the managers of Bacon's impeachment. In 1621 he entered parliament, where he speedily drew upon himself the hostility of the court by his opposition to monopolies, and by his determined

assertion of the power of parliament. At the end of the year he was imprisoned in the Tower, but was released after a few months, and continued to take an active part in parliamentary affairs, whilst, in 1628, he originated and carried the Petition of Right (q.v.). Sir Edward Coke's reputation as a lawyer and as a judge was unequalled in his age. As the author of the celebrated "Reports," 1600–15, and the "Commentary upon Littleton," 1628, he is still a writer of the greatest importance to those who would know anything of the history of English law and practice.

Biographies by C. W. Johnson and H. W. Woolrych.

[F. S. P.]

Colborne, Sir John, 1st Baron Seaton (1778–1863), one of the most famous generals of his age, distinguished himself in his first campaign in Holland (1799). In 1801 he was present at the battle of Maida, and served throughout the Peninsular War with great distinction. It is said that his handling of his regiment at Waterloo contributed in no small degree to the British victory. In 1828 he was made lieutenant-governor of Upper Canada, and governor-general of the same province in 1837. He was also commander of the forces at the same time, and to his energetic action the easy suppression of the Canadian rebellion of 1838 was mainly due. In the following year his services were rewarded by a peerage, and in 1860 he became a field-marshal. In 1843 he was made lord high commissioner of the Ionian Isles, an office which he held for six years.

Biography by G. C. M. Smith, 1903.

Colchester (Essex), the Roman Camulodunum, was a "colonia" and one of the most important Roman stations in England. Immense quantities of Roman relics have been found here. It was an important centre under the kings of the West Saxon line, and was strongly fortified by Edward the Elder. It appears in Domesday as a place of considerable importance. In 1218 it was taken by Louis of France. The town enjoyed considerable trade all through the Middle Ages. During the Great Rebellion it was captured by the Royalists under Lord Goring in 1648. Fairfax besieged it for eleven weeks, and finally took it. The abbey of St. John was a Benedictine foundation, instituted in the reign of Henry I, and suppressed in 1539. The town returned two members to parliament from 1295 to 1885, when the number was reduced to one. It received a charter from Richard I in 1189.

C. E. Benham, "Old Colchester," 1897.

Colchester, Charles Abbot, Lord (1757–1829). [Abbot.]

Coleman, Edward (*d.* 1678), was secretary to the Duchess of York. He was a Roman Catholic, a convert from Protestantism, and a busy intriguer, who corresponded secretly with the French court. He was one of the first accused by Titus Oates of complicity in the Popish Plot (q.v.). His papers were seized, and he was arrested. In his possession were found letters addressed to Père La Chaise, Louis XIV's confessor, in which he asked for money to be employed in giving "the greatest blow to the Protestant religion it has received since its birth," together with other expressions of a similar character. These were considered to be conclusive proofs of his guilt. On his trial Oates and Bedloe bore witness against him, and he was executed on December 3.

J. Pollock, "Popish Plot," 1903.

Colepeper, John, Lord (*d.* 1660), after having spent many years abroad in foreign service, returned to England, and was elected to the Long Parliament, where he distinguished himself by his vigorous opposition to monopolies. In 1642 the king made him chancellor of the exchequer, and he acquired great influence in the royal councils. On the outbreak of the Civil War he joined the king, was made master of the rolls in 1643, and a peer in 1644. He accompanied Prince Charles into exile. At the Restoration he returned to England, but died very soon afterwards.

Clarendon, "History of the Rebellion," 1702–4.

Colet, John (1466 ?–1519), Dean of St. Paul's, was the son of Sir Henry Colet, and was educated at Magdalen College (?), Oxford. About 1493 he went to the continent, and studied Greek in Italy and Paris, making the acquaintance of scholars. Returning in 1496, he lectured at Oxford on divinity and Greek. In 1505 he was made prebendary and dean of St. Paul's. Between 1508 and 1512 he founded and endowed St. Paul's School. Colet was one of the most effective of the teachers of the "New Learning" in England in the early part of the sixteenth century, and one of the most earnest of the knot of churchmen who aimed at the reformation and purification of the Church of England without actually separating from Rome.

F. Seebohm, "The Oxford Reformers," 1867 and 1896; J. H. Lupton, "Life of Colet," 1899 and 1908.

College, Stephen (*d.* 1681), known as "the Protestant joiner," was a citizen of London, celebrated in Charles II's reign for his intemperate zeal against the Roman Catholics. In 1681 he was sent to Oxford by Shaftesbury to watch the proceedings of the court party during the session of parliament. While at college there he distinguished himself by inventing a "Protestant flail" for beating out the brains of Papists, and by writing coarse rhymes against the king. He was indicted in London on a charge of high treason, but the bill was thrown out by the grand jury. Subsequently he was tried at Oxford, found guilty of a conspiracy to seize the king, on the evidence of Dugdale and other informers, and executed.

Collier, Jeremy (1650–1726), was rector of Ampton, in Suffolk, and in 1685 was appointed lecturer at Gray's Inn. He was a zealous partisan of the Stuarts, and was committed to Newgate for writing against William III; he was, however, released without trial. But having granted absolution to the prisoners executed for the Assassination Plot (q.v.), he was obliged to leave the country. Returning to London, he wrote several works, among which was the famous "Ecclesiastical History of Great Britain" (1708–14), which involved him in a controversy with Burnet.

Collingwood, Cuthbert, Lord (1750–1810), was born at Newcastle-on-Tyne, and was very early sent to sea. In 1774 he served under Admiral Graves in America, and led a party of seamen at Bunker Hill. In 1776 he proceeded to the West Indies, where his promotion was rapid, as he stepped into each place vacated by Nelson, and in 1780 he accompanied Nelson in the expedition against San Juan, where his strong constitution served him well among the pestilential marshes. During the three next years he did good service in the capture of French merchantmen, and on peace being concluded in 1783, rejoined Nelson in the West Indies. In 1786 he returned to England, but did not long remain idle; and at the battle of the First of June, 1794, he greatly distinguished himself, though his services were passed over by Lord Howe. In command of the *Excellent,* he was present at the battle of St. Vincent (February 1797). After this he was employed in blockading the enemy's ports, and in 1799 was made a rear-admiral, and appointed to serve in the Channel fleet. He was shortly afterwards dispatched with reinforcements to Lord Keith in the Mediterranean. In 1803 he was sent to join Admiral Cornwallis off Brest. In 1804 he was engaged in the blockade of Cadiz, until the union of the French and Spanish fleets compelled him to retire. But he soon resumed his position, and only left it to join Nelson's fleet in its pursuit of Villeneuve. In command of the *Royal Sovereign* he was second in command to Nelson at Trafalgar, and, leading one division of the fleet, was the first to engage the enemy. On Nelson's death the command devolved on Collingwood, who has now been acquitted of any blame for not having saved more of the enemy's ships after the battle. He was at once raised to the peerage with a life pension of £2,000 per annum. He continued actively employed in annoying the French coast, and guarding the relations of England with the countries bordering on the Mediterranean. So unremitting were his exertions that they produced a disease which finally, on March 7, 1810, killed him almost at his post, and before he could reach England. He was of all the able captains of his day second only to Nelson, nor was he less beloved by his men for his gentle consideration and his daring courage.

Collingwood's "Life," 1828; W. C. Russell, "Collingwood," 1891 and 1901. [W. R. S.]

Collins, Michael (1890–1922), Irish politician, began his career in the British civil service, in which he remained until 1909. He was one of the organizers of the revolt of Easter 1916, and after a few months of imprisonment at Frongoch he became Sinn Fein member for County Cork in December 1918, and in de Valera's Republican ministry of 1919 he combined the offices of minister of finance and head of the intelligence department. The British government unavailingly offered a reward of £10,000 for his arrest. In 1921, however, he was prominent in bringing to a successful issue the negotiations opened between de Valera and Lloyd George; though his efforts to reach a settlement with Ulster and to establish the Free State by moderation did not succeed in averting civil war in Ireland in 1922. He was shot from ambush while motoring towards Cork on August 22, 1922.

Biography by Piaras Béaslai, 1926.

Colonial Conferences. [Imperial Conference.]

Colonial Office, The, as a department of state dates from 1854, but it actually developed from a series of privy council and parliamentary committees and commissions. At first colonial affairs were not delimited; they were the concern of the privy council, committees of which were appointed to deal with trade and plantations. Archbishop Laud's commission (1634–41) was followed in 1643 by a parliamentary commission under Robert Rich, 2nd Earl of Warwick. Then control of the colonies was assumed by the council of state, which appointed committees to deal with specific questions as well as anticipated the Restoration council for foreign plantations (1660). In 1672 this council was united to the council for trade, but two years later its functions were transferred to the privy council. In 1694 parliament attempted to gain control of colonial affairs and in 1696 a separate board of trade and plantations was appointed, which, however, became merely advisory to the secretary of state for the southern department. In 1768 a secretary of state for the colonies was created, but both the secretary and the board were abolished in 1782. Two years later a committee of the privy council was appointed, but administration was left to the home office. In 1794 Henry Dundas became the secretary responsible both for war and the colonies. Under him the committee lost its colonial functions and became known as the board of trade. His successor in 1801 united as a separate secretaryship of state the two departments of war and colonies, which were not separated until the creation of a fourth secretary of state in 1854. Since the Napoleonic wars colonial affairs have grown in importance and

the staff of the department has been greatly augmented. In 1907 the office was divided into the Dominions, the Colonies, and the General Divisions, and a secretary appointed to deal with correspondence arising from the Imperial conferences. In 1921 the affairs of the Far East were added to its duties. In 1922 it supervised the treaty arrangements with Ireland and is now responsible for relations with the Irish Free State. In July 1925 the Dominions Office was created, under a secretary of state for the Dominions identical with the colonial secretary, but as a separate department of state, to relieve the Colonial Office of business connected with all the self-governing Dominions, the self-governing colony of South Rhodesia, the South African territories of Basutoland, Bechuanaland Protectorate, and Swaziland, and Imperial conferences. The overseas settlement department of the Dominions Office was created to administer the Empire Settlement Act of 1922.

The Colonial Office is divided into the following departments: General (including treaties, League of Nations, defence); West Indian (including also British Honduras, British Guiana, Prince Edward and Marion Islands); Far Eastern; Ceylon and Mauritius (including St. Helena, Fiji, West Pacific Isles); Gold Coast and Mediterranean (Gibraltar, Malta, and Cyprus); Nigeria; East Africa; Tanganyika and Somaliland; West African Frontier Force; King's African Rifles; Middle East; and Accounts.

An unofficial journal, edited by Sir W. H. Mercer, was published from 1907 under the title of "The Colonial Office Journal" and from 1914 (vol. 8) as "The Colonial Journal," until publication was ceased in 1920 (vol. 13).

C. M. Andrews, "British Committees, Commissions, and Councils of Trade and Plantations, 1622–75" (Johns Hopkins University Studies Series, xxvi, nos. 1–3. Baltimore, 1908); Preface to "Acts of the Privy Council of England, Colonial Series," vol. i., 1908; "Colonial Office List" (annually to 1925); "The Dominions Office and Colonial Office List" (annually from 1926); Parliamentary Paper, Cd. 5745, pp. 75–95 (Reconstruction of the Colonial Office in "Minutes of the Proceedings of the Imperial Conference," 1911). Sir G. Fiddes, "The Colonial Office," 1927.

SECRETARIES OF STATE FOR SOUTHERN DEPARTMENT (COLONIES)

1702. Lord Nottingham.
1704. Robert Harley.
1707. H. Boyle.
1710. H. St. John.
1714. Lord Townshend.
1717. J. Addison.
1718. T. Craggs.
1721. Lord Carteret.
1724. Duke of Newcastle.
1748. Duke of Bedford.
1752. Lord Holdernesse.
1754. Sir J. Robinson.
1755. H. Fox.
1756. W. Pitt (except April–June 1757)
1761. Lord Egremont.
1763. Lord Halifax.
1766. General Conway.
1766, August. Lord Shelburne.

SECRETARIES OF STATE WHO ADMINISTERED THE AFFAIRS OF THE COLONIES, 1768–94

1768, February 27. Wills Hill, Earl of Hillsborough (Marq. of Downshire).
1772, August 27. William, Earl of Dartmouth.
1776, January 25. Lord George Sackville Germain (Visct. Sackville).
1782, March 8. Welbore Ellis (Lord Mendip).
April 15. William, Earl of Shelburne.
July 17. Thomas, Lord Grantham.
1782, October 5. Thomas Townshend (Lord Sydney).
1783, April 18. Frederick, Lord North (Earl of Guilford).
December 23. Francis, Marq. of Carmarthen (Duke of Leeds).
1784, January 22. Thomas, Lord Sydney.
1789, June 5. William Wyndham Grenville (Lord Grenville).
1791, June 8. Henry Dundas (Visct. Melville).
1794, August 7. William Henry, Duke of Portland.

SECRETARIES OF STATE FOR THE COLONIAL AND WAR DEPARTMENTS, 1794–1854.

1794. Henry Dundas (Visct. Melville).
1801. Lord Hobart (Earl of Buckinghamshire).
1804. Earl Camden (Marquis).
1805. Visct. Castlereagh (Marq. of Londonderry).
1806. William Windham.
1807. Visct. Castlereagh (Marquis).
1809. Earl of Liverpool.
1812. Earl Bathurst.
1827. F. R. Robinson (Earl of Ripon).
W. Huskisson.
1828. Sir George Murray.
1830. Visct. Goderich (Earl of Ripon).
1833. E. G. Stanley (Earl of Derby).
1834. Thomas Spring Rice (Lord Monteagle).
Earl of Aberdeen.
1835. Charles Grant (Lord Glenelg).
1839. Marq. of Normanby.
Lord John Russell (Earl Russell).
1841. Lord Stanley (Earl of Derby).
1845. William E. Gladstone.
1846. E. Grey.
1852. Sir J. S. Pakington, Bart. (Lord Hampton).
Duke of Newcastle.

SECRETARIES OF STATE FOR THE COLONIES FROM 1854.

1854, June 10. Sir G. Grey, Bart.
1855, February. Sidney Herbert (Lord Herbert of Lea).
March. Lord John Russell (Earl Russell).
July 21. Sir William Molesworth.
November 17. Henry Labouchere (Lord Taunton).
1858, February 26. Lord Stanley (Earl of Derby).
May 31. Sir Edward Bulwer-Lytton (Lord Lytton).
1859, June 18. Duke of Newcastle.
1864, April 4. Edward Cardwell (Visct. Cardwell).
1866, July 6. Earl of Carnarvon.
1867, March 8. Duke of Buckingham and Chandos.
1868, December 10. Earl Granville.
1870, July 6. Earl of Kimberley.
1874, February 21. Earl of Carnarvon.
1878, February 4. Sir Michael E. Hicks Beach (Earl St. Aldwyn).
1880, April 28. Earl of Kimberley.
1882, December 16, Earl of Derby.
1885, June 24. Colonel Sir F. A. Stanley (Lord Stanley of Preston and then Earl of Derby).
1886, February 6. Earl Granville.
August 3. Edward Stanhope.
1887, January 14. Sir Henry Thurston Holland (Baron Knutsford, 1888, and Visct. Knutsford, 1895).
1892, August 17. The Marquis of Ripon.
1895, June 28. Joseph Chamberlain.
1903, October 9. Alfred Lyttelton.
1905, December 11. Earl of Elgin and Kincardine.
1908, April 16. Earl (now Marq.) of Crewe.
1910, November 7. Lewis Harcourt (Visct. Harcourt).
1915, May 27. A. Bonar Law.
1916, December 11. W. H. Long (Lord Long).
1919, January 14. Visct. Milner.
1921, February 14. Winston S. Churchill.
1922, October 25. Duke of Devonshire.
1924, January 23. J. H. Thomas.
November 7. L. C. M. S. Amery. [H. R.]

Colonies, THE. [BRITISH EMPIRE.]

Columba, ST. (521–97), was a native of Gartan, in Donegal; he was the son of Fedhlimdh and Eithne, both of Irish blood royal. Educated for the Church, he founded, in 545, the monastery of Derry, and subsequently established many churches in Ireland. In 563 he crossed over to Scotland, with the object of preaching the Gospel to its pagan

inhabitants. Later accounts ascribe the departure of Columba from Ireland to his action in bringing about a battle between two Irish tribes in 561, but the story is of doubtful authenticity. Columba landed in Iona, receiving the grant of the island from Conall, King of Dalriada, or, as some think, from Brude, the Pictish monarch; here he founded his church, which became for 150 years the national Church of Scotland. The Columban Church, always intimately connected with the Church of Ireland, was in some points of doctrine and ceremonial opposed to that of Rome, to which it owed no allegiance. [CHURCH, THE EARLY CELTIC.] After some years spent in the establishment of his monastery and in preaching to the Scots of Dalriada, Columba went on a mission of conversion to the court of Brude, King of the Picts, at Inverness; having won over the monarch to the new faith, he proceeded to establish monasteries throughout the Pictish territory. In 575 he accompanied to Ireland Aidan, King of Dalriada; and was active at the Council of Drumceatt at which the independence of Aida from the Irish Dalriads was asserted. The remaining years of his life were chiefly spent at Iona and in founding churches amongst the southern Picts. The clouds of tradition and romance in which the facts of his life are enshrouded render it somewhat difficult to estimate his true character; he is called by his biographer Adamnan a man of contrasts, "at once tender and irritable, rude and courteous, grateful and revengeful." He seems to have possessed political insight as well as religious fervour, and his work contributed greatly to the development of a consolidated Scotland and a united Scots people. Columba died in June 597 before the altar of his own church of Iona. In later years part of his relics were removed to Kells, in Meath, and part by Kenneth MacAlpine to Dunkeld.

Adamnan, "Life of St. Columba," several editions.

Columbia, BRITISH, was formerly part of the Hudson Bay Territories. It rose into importance owing to the discovery of gold there (1858–61) and the consequent influx of settlers. It was created a Crown colony in 1858. In 1866 Vancouver Island, and in 1868 Queen Charlotte Islands, were incorporated with it; and in 1871 the whole district was formed into a province of Canada (q.v.). The government, which, like those of the other provinces of the Dominion, is subject to the central authority at Ottawa, consists of a lieutenant-governor and a legislative assembly of forty-eight members, with an executive council of seven.

M. Lawson, "History and Geography of British Columbia," 1906.

Combermere, SIR STAPLETON COTTON, 1ST VISCOUNT (1773–1865). [COTTON.]

Commendams. On the vacancy of a benefice, it was sometimes customary to assign it to the care of a bishop, to be held *in commendam* until a proper person could be found on whom to bestow it. This system was employed for the purpose of evading the law against pluralities, and was frequently abused. In 1616 occured the famous *Case of Commendams*, when an action was brought against Neile, Bishop of Lichfield, for holding a living, *in commendam*, to which it was alleged he had been illegally presented by the king, whose general prerogative of granting a commendam was disputed. The case is famous for the subserviency of the judges, who, having made some slight effort to resent the king's attempt to obtain a verdict favourable to himself, subsequently sued for pardon on their knees. Sir Edward Coke's opposition to James I's unconstitutional act entailed his dismissal shortly afterwards.

Commendation. [FEUDALISM.]

Commerce, ENGLISH. Short book-lists will be found beneath the headings, ECONOMIC HISTORY, AGRICULTURE, INDUSTRY, CUSTOMS, GILDS, and elsewhere. The works given below are all of first-rate importance, though they vary considerably in depth of treatment and comprehensiveness.

General and Introductory: Day, "History of Commerce" (clear treatment; useful list of authorities at end); Ashley, "Economic History" (not recent, but still the best work of its kind); Cunningham, "Western Civilization in its Economic Aspects," "Growth of English Industry and Commerce"; Sée, "Les Origines du Capitalisme Moderne" (a brilliant sketch); Traill (ed.), "Social England" (no longer up-to-date but still valuable); Lavisse et Rambaud, "Histoire Générale."

Early and Mediæval: Lipson, "Economic History," vol. i (the best chapters are those on gild organization and town life); Boissonade, "Life and Labour in the Middle Ages" (not always reliable, but very illuminating); Dopsch, "Grundlagen der europäischen Kulturentwickelung"; Huvelin, "Le Droit des Marchés et des Foires"; Gross, "Gild Merchant"; Heyd, "Geschichte des Levantehandels" (also in French); Green, "Town Life in the Fifteenth Century"; Unwin, "Gilds and Companies of London."

From 1500 onwards: Schauz, "Englische Handelspolitik gegen Ende des Mittelalters"; Unwin, "Studies in Economic History"; Haring, "Trade and Navigation between Spain and the Indies"; Williamson, "Maritime Enterprise, 1485–1558"; Lingelbach, "Merchant Adventurers of England"; Epstein, "Early History of Levant Company" (short and sketchy, though useful); Lucas, "Beginnings of English Overseas Enterprise"; Hewins, "English Trade and Finance, mainly in the Seventeenth Century"; Scott, "English Joint-Stock Companies" (a work of vast industry; of great importance for the history of commerce in the seventeenth century); Beer, various works on English colonial policy having special reference to trade; Schmoller, "The Mercantile System"; Hunter, "British India"; Knowles, "Industrial and Commercial Revolutions"; Bisschop, "Rise of the London Money Market"; Fuchs, "Trade of Great Britain and her Colonies"; Bowley, "Short Account of England's Foreign Trade in the Nineteenth Century."

Commissaries, THE COURT OF, for Scotland, was an ecclesiastical court created in 1563, "to fill up the gap caused in the administration of civil justice" by the abolition of the Consistorial Court. It dealt with divorce cases, sentences of excommunication, and other ecclesiastical matters.

Commissions are instruments issuing from the Crown, and delegating authority to particular persons to perform certain acts. Thus, in military matters a commission is, properly speaking, the document issued to every military officer, authorizing him to perform duties on behalf of the state. *Commissions of array* were royal warrants authorizing certain individuals to raise men for the purpose of exercising and training them in war. [Military System.] Among the permanent bodies of commissioners, who perform regularly duties delegated by the Crown, are the commissioners in lunacy, who are required to supervise the care of lunatics, and the justices on the commission of the peace. [Justice.] *Royal Commissions* are frequently issued to small bodies of persons—members of either House of parliament, and others—empowering them to inquire into the operation of laws, into alleged grievances, or social, economic, or educational matters; generally with a view to future legislation. It is not usual to appoint members of the government unless the inquiry affects their own departments, or is non-political; and members of a commission who subsequently take office are usually superseded or abstain from signing the report. In commissions appointed under an act of parliament the members are sometimes nominated in the act itself; but in a Royal Commission strictly so-called names are not usually communicated to parliament beforehand. They are empowered to collect evidence, and to examine witnesses, though not on oath; and their proceedings are recorded and usually published in the form of a report. Royal commissioners are also appointed by the Crown, on the report of both Houses of parliament to the effect that the judge who has tried any election petition has reported the prevalence of corrupt practices. They inquire into the matter; and on their report the action of parliament in the way of disfranchisement or prosecution is based. Such commissions were established in 1853.

Common Lands, Open Fields, and Enclosure. These topics naturally belong to one another. The methods of joint occupation and use of lands in England, besides possessing an intrinsic interest for the economic historian, become part of the subject-matter of political history as soon as the enclosure movement begins to make an impression on the social structure. Enclosure cannot be rightly understood without a study of the conditions which farming in severalty replaced. By enclosure is generally meant the process by which estates composed of large open arable fields, divided into strips and supplemented by woodland, meadow land, and waste for pasturage, were converted into aggregates of smaller fields which were then fenced or ditched and held in private ownership. The process has, in fact, generally marked the transition from collective to individual occupation. The mediæval village farm, operated by the villagers on what is called the open-field system, was the prevalent type of agricultural organization over the greater part of the country. It reached its highest and most scientific stage of development in the good flat farming lands of the Midlands and was the standard unit (with local variations) throughout the central plain and eastern and southern counties. In the north, in the south-west, and in Kent collective farming on the open-field plan never took so firm a hold. In the north, north-west, and south-west the older methods of agriculture and systems of tenure, sometimes termed Celtic and associated particularly with Wales, never entirely gave way. Further, the complete adoption of open-field farming was impossible in many parts of these areas, since natural features (e.g., in the Lake District of Cumberland) imposed the necessity for more individualistic methods. This second consideration also applies to the down and forest lands of Kent, where special conditions prevailed. As early as the seventh century the common arable fields of the Anglo-Saxon community are known to have existed. Of their history before this period we still know very little, nor do we know at exactly what date the habit of more or less haphazard movement from one fertile area to another, as the soil became exhausted, gave place to the permanent cultivation of a single area of intensive husbandry; but there is evidence of the existence of "common intermixed arable acres" in the Laws of Ine. It is not, however, until the eleventh and twelfth centuries that we are able to tell on exactly what principle the village farms were organized, and then it appears that two systems were in use, viz., those of two-field and three-field husbandry. In either case one of the large tillage fields into which the arable of the community was divided would lie fallow each year, resting after its exhaustion by a corn crop and drawing fresh strength from the waste matter dropped by the villagers' beasts upon it. After harvest the temporary fences would be removed from the field or fields that had been sown for corn, and the whole arable area thrown open as pasture until the ploughing for the next year's corn began. On the relative distribution of the two- and three-field systems the recent researches of Professor H. L. Gray have provided more definite information. The fertile country of the midlands, extending from the Welsh borders to the Fens and from Hampshire to Durham, was the area of three-field agriculture. Here the open village had its longest history. "The two-field system was most apparent in the counties of Oxford, Gloucester, Somerset, Dorset, Warwick, Wilts, and Berks, the upland parts of which counties form a compact area mostly of high bleak downland, not favourable to a developed type of agriculture. In the more fertile valleys the three-field system prevailed" (Curtler). The eastern counties had customs of their own which prevent

their approximation to either of the systems mentioned. During the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries improvements in methods and the extension of knowledge of good farming led some villages which had previously practised the two-field course to take the revolutionary step of changing over to the three-field system. Whatever the open-field arable system used, the areas sown were always parcelled out to the lord of the demesne and his tenants in small allotments, in the shape of long strips of anything from half an acre to an acre or more in extent. These roughly represented the area which a plough could cover in one day, and it may very well be that the strip system has its origin in the allotment of land tilled under a system of co-operative ploughing, whether it be of Celtic or Germanic invention. The larger owners naturally received a greater number of strips. Individual tenants had to harvest their own crops, but it was hardly to their convenience that they were not compact but scattered in the fields.

The strip system of communal cultivation is subject to several forms of criticism. It has been described as "wasteful, unsystematic, and in every way bad economy." The even current of village life was apt to be disturbed from time to time by quarrels between the owners of neighbouring strips. There were alleged trespasses, encroachments, removals of landmarks. No one could improve his land with any prospect of reaping an ultimate reward. Nor was careful cleaning feasible when the thistle seeds of an untidy neighbour could drift across to destroy the fruit of a man's labour. Moreover, the course of the crops and the determination of the common routine of husbandry depended on the general voice of the village. The agreement of the lord and of all the tenants was required before any improvement could be instituted in crop-rotation. Outside the arable fields the use of the common hay-meadows and of the common waste depended similarly on the general will. On the other hand, it has been argued that if farming of a high order was seldom possible, at least a definite standard of average competence was maintained, since no sign of individual negligence could escape the public eye, and the bad farmer would be subject to the discipline of the manorial officials. Apart from this a stronger argument presents itself to those who regret the unquestioned diminution of the class of small occupying landholders. Individual enterprise was not altogether suppressed. An ambitious farmer, however small his beginnings, could improve his position by the gradual acquirement of land strip by strip, and even the cottager could invest his small capital in the few acres sufficient to give him a partial independence.

The mediæval village farmer, with his portion of the village arable, had rights over the adjoining meadow and waste. While the hay was growing, the meadows (Lammas land) were fenced, and strips in them were realloted to the individual co-operators. From July or August to the beginning of February they were thrown open as common pasture. The common waste, unlike the meadow, was used all the year round for pasturing the village beasts. Frequently, though no allotment of ground was practised, a check on individuals was employed, which consisted in *stinting* the commons, that is, in limiting for each man the number of stock which might be turned out in rough approximation to the value of the arable portion of his tenement. His pasture rights on the waste were part of the most valuable assets of his property. *Common appendant*, the right to turn out oxen and horses, cows and sheep, belonged to those whose freehold or tenement anciently comprised part of the village arable. *Common appurtenant* was a right which proceeded as a special grant from the lord of the manor (who from the lawyers' point of view was the owner of the common) and did not necessarily attach to the holding of ploughland. *Common in gross* occurred when rights were taken up beyond the strict allowance of the ancient stint. It could be used by men who were wholly without land on the manor, being "neither appendant nor appurtenant to land but annexed to a man's person." In addition to pasturage rights there existed *common of estovers* (the cutting of wood) and *common of turbary* (the cutting of turfs).

Reference is made in other articles to the break-up of the manorial system. [Manor; Black Death; Peasants' Revolt; Commutation; Copyhold; Villenage.] The mediæval manor was destroyed in the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries; but open-field husbandry remained as the object of scientific attack and of passionate defence for many generations to come. In 1236 the Statute of Merton was passed, confirming the claim of the manorial lord to enclose the waste; but he must not proceed to extremes; enough must be left for the use of the tenants. It is not to be supposed that the latter were always strong enough to enforce the lord's observation of the law, and it was a frequent matter of complaint in the sixteenth century that the villagers were "straitened" in the use of their commons. The geometrical simplicity of the holdings in the average twelfth-century manor was by the fourteenth century considerably disturbed. Some villagers, even though they held by base tenure, had amassed large holdings; an increasing inclination showed itself on the part of the lord to lease out his demesne land as a farm to a tenant for terms of a number of years. Money was playing a larger part in the internal economy of the village; farm produce was transported to neighbouring towns and to distant parts to feed the denser centres of population. Commercialism had invaded the manor. Enclosure on the part of the peasantry was sufficiently frequent to leave

its mark on the history of the fourteenth century, and it proceeded side by side with that undertaken by the lords, but often the motives were different. The tenants, where they enclosed their strips, or threw them together in compact fields, did so for convenience and efficiency in arable farming. The lords, with their frequent difficulties in obtaining labour, were often tempted to enclose for the purpose of creating extensive sheep pastures, which could be managed at a small labour charge, and with increasing prospects of a good return for their wool. The tenants in their turn were affected by the growth of pasture farming. In the sixteenth century they enclosed more pasture land than arable, sometimes, no doubt, as a protection against the big graziers who overstocked the commons with their sheep. Until the reign of Edward VI the conversion of arable fields into sheep walks was the dominant motive of the enclosers of the open village farms, if we are to believe contemporary writers. In its expression public opinion was against enclosure. Writers, like Tusser, who approached the topic from the technical side, emphasized its advantages, and Hales, who fully realized the evils of depopulation and rural insecurity for which the oppressive and speculative landlord could be made responsible, yet remarks through the mouthpiece of his Knight in the "Discourse of the Common Weal" that "experience should seem plainly to prove that enclosures should be profitable and not hurtful to the common weal, for we see that countries where most enclosures be are most wealthy, as Essex, Kent, Devonshire. Experience showeth that tenants in common be not so good husbands as when every man hath his part in several." Hales was writing at the time when popular indignation against the enclosing landlord was at its height. In 1549 the great rising under Ket in Norfolk broke out, the rebels throwing open the fields which had been hedged in, and displaying particular animosity against the enclosers of commons. The Prayer Book issued by authority in 1553 contained a special prayer for the conversion of landlords to a proper spirit of responsibility for the welfare of their tenants. Enclosure proceeded without cessation after the middle of the sixteenth century, but the public outcry became gradually less loud. The most satisfactory way of accounting for this decline of feeling is to assume that changes in the prices of wool and arable produce began to make tillage more profitable, with the necessary consequence that the wholesale depopulation involved by the conversion of ploughland areas to pasturage ceased to be so remarkable a social evil. The efforts of the government, actuated by both mercantilist and humanitarian motives, to protect the corn lands in a long series of parliamentary acts may also have had a slight effect in preventing its continuance, though this is doubtful. Enclosures of the Tudor period affected chiefly the Midland counties. In nine of these, including Middlesex in the south, the land enclosed between 1455 and 1607 was more than 8 per cent. of the total area, according to Dr. Gay's figures; and it was in these Midland counties, notably Northamptonshire and Warwickshire, that the last of the great enclosure revolts occurred in the latter year. The rising led to the appointment of a commission of inquiry, working on the lines adopted by early commissioners in 1517–19 and 1548. The government followed its old course of supervising and, where possible, preventing enclosure. This negative policy did not survive the Restoration. But there was no return on the part of landowners to the earlier mode of quiet enclosure entirely unchecked by official recognition. A common means of agreement found confirmation of allotment in severalty in a completed suit between the lord and his tenants in the Court of Chancery. This means could be employed, too, to bring pressure on the unwilling members of the village farm. At the end of the century the Chancery decree began to be superseded by the private act of parliament. A general bill for permitting enclosures was proposed in 1681, but private acts continued to be the rule until the first general act, which was passed in 1801. Seventeenth-century enclosure after the first two decades seems on the whole to have made little diminution in the arable lands. A large amount of fen country was drained and converted into farm land. There was considerable approvement of the waste elsewhere; but our knowledge of these years is at present somewhat fragmentary. From the reign of Anne onwards much information is provided by the acts themselves, by the numerous publications of those who wrote on the subject of agriculture and on the struggle between the new and the old schools of husbandry, and, at the close of the century, by the experts who prepared reports on the counties for the newly-established Board of Agriculture (founded 1793). Whereas enclosure in earlier days had been undertaken as much for the creation of sheep pastures as for other purposes, the dominant note of the eighteenth-century changes was improvement of arable. Already, since the end of the Tudor period, improvements in crop rotation and in new grasses had been the subject of experiment. The eighteenth century is remarkable for the number of enthusiasts sprung from all classes of the rural community who devoted their lives to the development of new agricultural methods and processes. Those who gave thought to the immense gain in productivity which enclosure and drainage brought to arable land had considerable influence in bringing about the rapid advance of enclosure in the central plain of England, which was still relatively the most backward part of the country from their point of view. It has been estimated that, between 1700 and 1760, a series of 208 acts enclosed about 250,000 acres of common field and waste; between 1761 and 1801, 2,000 acts enclosed

3,180,000 acres; between 1802 and 1844, 1,883 acts enclosed 2,549,000 acres; since 1845, upwards of 670 awards have enclosed over 500,000 acres (more than half of which were waste land). [See "ENCLOSURE AND COMMONS SINCE 1801."]

Gonner, "Common Land and Enclosure"; Johnson, "The Disappearance of the Small Landowner"; Slater, "The English Peasantry and the Enclosure of the Common Fields"; Tawney, "The Agrarian Problem in the Sixteenth Century"; Curtler, "The Enclosure and Redistribution of our Land" (the most recent summary); Ernle, "English Farming"; Hammond, "The Village Labourer, 1760–1832"; Gras, "History of Agriculture"; Gay in "Transactions of R. H. S.," 1904; and *Quarterly Journal of Economics*, 1903; Leadam, "The Domesday of Enclosures," and in "Transactions of R. H. S.," 1900. [A. V. J.]

Common Law may be defined as that part of the law of the land which, before the Judicature Act of 1873, was administered by those courts which were called courts of common law, in distinction to the courts of equity. It was founded on the old popular law of the nation, and has grown by the process of legislation and by the assimilation in whole or in part of other systems; just in the same way as the judicial system of the royal courts introduced after the Conquest became part of our common law. It consists of *written laws* or *statutes*, and of *unwritten laws* or *customs*; though the term "common law" was generally used in a more restricted sense to describe the system of customary law grounded on the recorded decisions of successive judges, as opposed to the "written" or statute law. Such decisions of judges which are preserved in year-books, reports and digests of cases, as well as certain famous law books such as the "Institutes" of Sir E. Coke, are of high authority in our courts. The application and interpretation of the statute law is entrusted to the judges. By the way in which they carry out this work the law is modified. They are, however, not free to interpret statutes as they choose, but must observe certain rules in their dealings with them; as, for instance, that all acts of parliament, except in cases where the effects would be manifestly absurd or unjust, and so contrary to the clear intention of parliament, are to be interpreted according to the plain meaning of the words. For judges are not set to speculate on, but to carry out, the intentions of parliament. In order to ascertain the meaning of a statute, the preamble, though not in itself law, may be consulted as an authority. As regards the administration of statutes, it is to be observed that no statute is of retrospective force unless the same is expressly declared; that repealed statutes are not to be taken into account except as having had force before their repeal; that general terms used after particular cases apply only to cases which are strictly *ejusdem generis*; and that all penal statutes and such statutes as relate to taxation are to be construed strictly. The statute law begins with 9 Hen. III, the Great Charter. Customary law has the same force as statute law as to the assent of the people. For *lex non scripta* "consists of those rules and maxims concerning persons and property which have obtained by the tacit consent and usage of the inhabitants of the country." Customs are either general or particular. General customs bind all men equally who are under the same conditions, though they may not have been the subjects of enactment. For a general usage, if ascertained and established, becomes part of the common law and is recognized by the courts. Particular customs are exceptional in their application. For a custom to be good it must have arisen before legal memory, which has been fixed at the first year of Richard I. This doctrine has, however, been regulated by statute (2 and 3 William IV, c. 71, 1 and 2). A custom must, moreover, be continuous as regards right; it must be peaceably enjoyed; not unreasonable; it must be certain, or at least such as can be ascertained; and it must be consistent or compulsory in its application. A particular custom which is contrary to general rights must be construed strictly. The customary law is declared by the judges, and their decisions collectively exhibit the common law both as regards the application of statutes and the declaration of customs.

W. S. Holdsworth, "History of English Law," 1923. [W. H.]

Common Order, THE BOOK OF, was the service book of the Scottish Reformers, and was compiled, in 1567, by Knox from a manual issued by Calvin. It long continued to be used by the Presbyterians, both in Scotland and England.

Common Pleas, COURT OF. [PLEAS.]

Commons, THE HOUSE OF, is the Lower Chamber or representative branch of the English parliament, appointed by popular election. The peculiar feature in the constitutional position of the Commons, when they secured their place as part of parliament, is that they had little more than a formal share in legislation; in control of the administration, only the power of petition; and no share at all in the function of justice; while almost from the first they took the chief part in the grants of taxation. This theoretic position is traceable even at the present time, when the Commons alone settle taxation, whereas their share of legislative and administrative power won by the conversion of the petition into a "bill" is, at least in theory, only concurrent with that of the House of Lords, and the Lords retain exclusively the powers of justice. These peculiarities are due to the historical conditions of the development of the House of Commons. Another peculiarity, which only these historical conditions can explain, is the meaning which came to be attached to the word

"commons," including freeholders and burgesses at once, and which thus differentiated essentially the English parliamentary system, both in its construction and in the course it has run, from the representative systems of other countries. Lastly, the history of the "third estate" brings out the original character of the members of the House of Commons as being mere delegates, and the gradual replacement of this by the higher character of senators, so that each member is not the deputy of a locality, but a representative of the whole.

The word "commons" (*communitates, communauté*) is found in the thirteenth century often in the simple sense of the whole body of the nation. But under the influence of the French use of the word for an organized body such as the town corporations, it comes to be also used for smaller organized representative bodies, such as the county courts or the corporate body controlling the boroughs, or again, the body of tenants-in-chief. The barons at Oxford in 1258 speak of the twelve appointed *per le commun*, i.e., by the baronial tenants-in-chief, to consult *pour le commun de la terre*, i.e., for the whole nation. Indeed the whole constitutional struggle between classes in this century may be put in the formula of a struggle as to the practical interpretation of the word *communitas*. And for some time it seemed that the English constitution would be cast in a mould like the French, constituted of clergy, chief tenants, boroughs; or at least that it would resemble that of Aragon (clergy, magnates, knights, towns); for each of these bodies had in England at one time an identity of its own. What, then, defeated this tendency? What common ground brought the burgesses and freeholders' class together in England alone of all countries? The answer is, the shire-moot, or county court. Here the two classes had been long used to meet and work together under royal orders, the *communitas sciræ* had contained not only freeholders from hundred and township, but also the representative burgesses from each borough, entrusting the duties laid on the shire to three or four of the more discreet knights; and after the dangerous precedent had been set aside of Simon de Montfort's dealing with the boroughs apart from their shires, from 1283 the writ for knights and burgesses alike was executed in the shire-moot. The shire had brought over the knights from the baronial body to the freeholders, and had now associated the knights with the burgesses. The only thing which threatened to keep them still separated in parliament was the system of taxation, and when the old feudal taxation by aids, scutages, and carucages [Aid] had yielded to the national taxation by subsidies and customs, it became natural for the knights and burgesses, as the representative and taxing body, to make common cause. By the end of the fourteenth century they had coalesced to form a body clearly differentiated from the lords.

The English parliament, then, in the fourteenth century, consisted of two "estates"—if that term be permitted—the clergy and the lords, and a third body, which had more the character of a representation of localities. It had seemed not impossible under Edward I that two other groups might be added—the lawyers and the merchants. The former would have been fatal to the Commons' acquisition of administrative supervision; the latter, fatal to their monopoly of taxation, and so to their one weapon against the Crown. However, not only was this not realized, but the actually existing clerical group entered on the suicidal policy of escaping their position between "the hammer and the anvil"—pope and king—by taking up a position of jealous constitutional isolation, and persisted in dropping out of the parliamentary system. The Commons were left alone, the sole body representative of the nation, and the sole body too which could be fairly deemed able to impose a national tax. For while the making of laws and the administering of supreme justice had been the business of the king and his great council, it had been always necessary to obtain the active concurrence of the shire-moot to raise a tax. Thus the terms in which the representatives are called to Edward I's parliaments are merely "to hear"; under Edward II, "to hear and consent to," as against the Lords "to treat of" the matters. But the evolution of the two Houses increased the powers of the representative House, as did also the appeals to them made by the contending parties of the court and the opposition baronage in 1322, 1327, 1386, 1387, 1399. Also through the reign of Edward III the Commons felt, as their song said, that they were the "shippe's mast, That with their chattel and their good Maintained the war from first to last." And moreover, the knights of the shire were now taking up that attitude of bold, yet wary and unsleeping opposition which justifies Hallam in saying that they "bore the brunt of the battle for constitutional liberty." Thus it was almost wholly their energy which, in the battle over taxation, secured to parliament in 1340 the control of direct taxation, and in 1362 of the customs; while, under Richard II, the indirect control by appropriation and audit, and the rule settled in 1401, that grants be made the last day of the session, laid down the principle that redress precedes supply, as the downfall of Richard II was a protest against the claim of the Crown to an ordaining power tantamount to the law-making power of parliament. "The year 1341 distinctly marks the acquisition by the third estate of its full share of parliamentary power, the Commons asserting, and the Lords allowing them, an equal share in the common demand of right and control" (Stubbs).

In legislation it had already in 1327 become the rule to say "at the petition of the Commons," instead of "by their assent." And this was made a reality—the real initia-

tive was given to them—when in 1439 the petition was transformed into a "bill, containing in itself the form of an act," a usage which became regular under the Tudors. To the control of administration the Commons had made their first step by their great petition against grievances in 1309, and this attitude they maintained by indefatigable petitioning through the century, e.g., in 1376 especially; while their being called on to ratify the depositions of Edward II and Richard II strengthened their claim immensely, as did the period of regency after Edward III, and above all the fact that, up to 1437, the Lancastrian dynasty's parliamentary title obliged the kings to subject their council to instructions from parliament, and to constitute it of such members as would be agreeable to the Commons. Even Edward IV evaded rather than defied their interference. The Tudors have been accused of packing the House with creatures of the court, and of introducing more than eighty new boroughs, with a view to influencing parliamentary policy. The alleged "subservience" of the Tudor parliaments is, however, to be ascribed less to royal interference and intimidation than to the fact that the Tudors had the confidence of their subjects, and, in the last resort, knew how to yield when the temper of the House had been dangerously stirred by anxiety as to the succession, by an ecclesiastical measure for which they were not prepared, or by some great defect in the ordinary administration, such as the abuse of monopolies in Elizabeth's reign. In the seventeenth century a common spirit animated the whole House. It was far better attended, the grant of freedom of speech became more of a reality than the warning with which it was conjoined against abuse of the grant. The old weapon of impeachment, which had proved so formidable to unpopular royal ministers in 1377, and in 1386, and in 1449, had lain unused since then, but was brought forth once more against Mompesson and Bacon in 1621, and against the Earl of Middlesex in 1624, and, as used against Strafford in 1640, gave the deathblow to ministerial reliance on Crown support. No part of the Commons' work is now more thoroughly carried out than this supervision of all public departments by the machinery of motions for a resolution, motions before supply, and questions to ministers. Similarly the House, by its representative character and its hold of the purse, has long had practically the final voice in deliberation on such matters as foreign policy, and the determination of war and peace. In the fourteenth century the Commons had mostly avoided direct interference in such questions, but the failure of the French wars had roused them to more straightforward interposition, and this jealousy was afterwards revived by distrust of the action of the court. In taxation the fourteenth century had seen the sole right to impose taxes won for parliament by the Commons, the fifteenth sees the Commons secure the fruits of this victory solely for themselves, for in 1407 it was allowed that a tax could originate only with the Commons; the Lords and the clergy in convocation having nothing to do but practically to follow with corresponding grants. This claim they did not relax under the Tudors, though it was evaded by benevolences, and it was this which brought them first into collision with the Stuart theory of prerogative, which took nowhere a more offensive form than in the ship-money and customs duties by which it aimed at superseding the representative control of taxation. The Petition of Right (1628) and the Bill of Rights (1689) embodied this as a cardinal principle of the constitution, and it was completed by the doctrine first heard in 1671 and 1680, and subsequently vindicated in 1861 by their resolute action in rejecting the Lords' amendments to the Bill for Repealing the Paper Duties, that no amendment can be made in a money bill of the Commons, nor can the Lords even indirectly impose any charge. And this the language of the acts of parliament and of the King's Speech formally recognizes. The exclusive authority of the Commons in financial matters was finally established by the Parliament Act of 1911. It is this principle, as much as the necessity to renew the Mutiny Act, that gives the Commons control over the numbers of the standing army. But with all their sole control, and the annual Appropriation Act, and budget, and elaborate machinery for audit and for criticism of each item, it may be doubted whether the growth of public expenditure is not beyond the power of the House, as at present constituted, effectually to restrain.

In the course of their long advance to supreme power in the state, the Commons have sometimes made errors; thus they were defeated in their attempts to tax the clergy (1449) and to claim a share of the Lords' judicial powers (1400, and Floyd's Case, 1621), and they were compelled to abandon the practice of forcing bills through the Lords by tacking them to a money bill; but most of all have they misjudged their dignity in the interpretation they have sometimes given to privilege of the House. As to the elections in the shires, acts had been passed in 1406 and 1430 to check the interference respectively of the sheriff and of others than freeholders; but the cognizance of disputed elections lay with king and council until the Commons took notice of such cases in 1553 and 1586, and in 1604 entered on an indecisive conflict with the Chancery. Since that date, however, or indisputably since the Aylesbury Case (q.v.) in 1704, the House has been judge of its own elections, a function it deputed to a committee from 1790, and from 1868 more honourably delegated to the judges, with marked results on the purification of the public tone in relation to bribery, as can be seen in the stringent clauses of the bill of 1883. [Bribery.]

As to privilege of members of the House of Commons from arrest, the first important case to be noticed is that when the Speaker, Thorpe, was imprisoned on an action of trespass brought by the Duke of York in 1453. But Henry VIII, in *Ferrers' Case* (1543) supported their claim, and James I had to allow it in his first parliament (*Shirley's Case*), and it has been allowed consistently ever since, with the exception that it has ceased to be extended to members' servants. The House has always exercised jurisdiction over its own members by committal or expulsion, though the former expires at a prorogation, and is so far inferior to the internal jurisdiction of the Lords. The important privilege of freedom of speech was not acquired till the Lancastrian reigns, and was little respected in practice by the Tudor kings, but under the Stuarts the release of Sir John Eliot and others (1629), and the failure of the attempt upon the Five Members (q.v.) (1642), led to the recognition of the principle by the King's Bench and its final enunciation in the Bill of Rights (1689). It still was found necessary, after the undignified dispute with Stockdale (1837–40—q.v.), to pass an act protecting printers of parliamentary papers from liability to actions for libel. On the other hand, in appealing to privilege to prevent the publication of debates, the Commons had put Wilkes into the position of a representative of a just and irresistible popular demand (1771), and they have more prudently given up this pretension, as well as the inconvenient custom of excluding "strangers" at a single member's request [resorted to, however, in 1927].

The constitution and structure of the House of Commons has also a history of its own. In 1295, 37 counties and 116 boroughs were represented; the Tudor period saw the addition of two English counties with two members, and 12 Welsh counties with one member each, and more than 80 boroughs. It was not until Charles II's reign that the Palatinate of Durham first sent members to the House of Commons. The number of boroughs increased up to 1832, and in the interval 45 members had been added for Scotland, 100 for Ireland, and 5 for the universities. After many proposals for reform, the Reform Bills of 1832 and 1868 transferred members from many boroughs to the counties, and increased the representation of Scotland and Ireland. Further alterations were made in 1885 [and by the great Representation of the People Act of 1918, which for the first time extended the franchise to women. Since the creation of the Irish Free State in 1922 the total number of members of the House of Commons has been 615]. [Reform Bills.] In 1430 the county franchise was declared to belong only to 40s. freeholders; in 1707 a property qualification for members was required; but the former has been steadily enlarged since 1832, while the latter was abolished in 1858. [Elections.] The original theory of the representative system under which a member was a delegate from a particular place had always tended to be tacitly dropped in favour of the wider senatorial theory that each member represents the whole commons; and occasional endeavours in the fifteenth century to require from candidates residence as a qualification were fortunately never acted on. A greater necessity was to strengthen the independence of the House and make its representative character a reality by excluding lawyers (1372, 1404), maintainers (1350, etc.), and sheriffs (1372 and afterwards); but the "Undertakers" (q.v.) of the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, and the placemen of the eighteenth century, were not satisfactorily excluded till the rule established in 1707 disqualifying pension holders, and even obliging members appointed to office to seek re-election.

But the essential defect in the Commons as a representative House up to 1832 lay elsewhere. The representative system, which when first constituted in the thirteenth century was an honest reflex of the social state, failed to respond to the expansion of society; the villeins who were unfit for representation in 1295 had acquired practical independence before 1381; the boroughs which were worthy of representation at 1295 fell into decay as the centre of gravity of the population shifted from the south of England to the north. Thus the Commons of the sixteenth century had ceased to be a just representation of contemporary wealth and intelligence; yet reform was delayed till it was almost enforced by revolution, a pregnant lesson which statesmanship will do well to learn of history. [Parliament.]

See the authorities given under Parliament; also Pasquet, "Origin of the House of Commons," trans. R. G. D. Laffan, 1925; E. Porritt, "The Unreformed House of Commons," 2 vols., 1909.

[A. L. S.]

Commonwealth, The, a term formerly employed to signify the general weal, and the nation with its inhabitants, was specially adopted to designate the government which intervened between the death of Charles I in January 1649 and the establishment of Cromwell's Protectorate in December 1653, though it is used broadly for the whole period from 1649 to 1658. After the forcible ejection of certain of its members by Colonel Pride [Pride's Purge], December 6, 1648, the House of Commons consisted of 80 members. On February 6, 1649, seven days after the execution of Charles, this mutilated House resolved that the House of Peers ought to be abolished, and on the next day adopted a similar resolution with regard to the office of a king. These resolutions were afterwards enlodged in acts of parliament, and a further act passed enacting that the people of England and of all the dominions thereto belonging should be governed as a Commonwealth and free state (May 19, 1649); the executive was vested in a Council of State (q.v.) of forty-one members, re-elected by the parliament yearly. With the exception of three or four members,

this council always consisted of members of parliament. The average attendance of the House was about fifty, and as the most active members of the council were also the most active members of parliament, it was the council which was mainly responsible for the policy of the government. There was no individual responsibility; all work being done by committees formed of members of the council, and of the parliament, and of both bodies united.

The republic rested entirely for its maintenance on the army. Yet amongst the mass of officers and soldiers no desire was felt for the continued existence of the present parliament. Before the execution of Charles a project drawn up by Ireton had been presented to parliament, demanding its speedy dissolution, and proposing the election of triennial parliaments, a reform of the electoral system, and a redistribution of seats. The parliament was, however, unwilling to decree its own dissolution, and the dangers with which the new government was surrounded justified its refusal to take the question into consideration. It had to face the hostility of the Presbyterian section of the Puritan party, as well as of old Royalists and Irish Catholics. Both in Ireland and Scotland the Prince of Wales was proclaimed king of the three countries. Prince Rupert ruled the Channel at the head of some revolted ships. Foreign princes refused to recognize the republic. Dangerous mutinies broke out amongst the Fifth-Monarchists and Levellers in the army. These, however, were quickly suppressed, by the energy and decision of Cromwell and Fairfax in dealing with the mutineers. An act was passed to restrain the press (September 20, 1649). An engagement to be true and faithful to the Commonwealth, as established without king or House of Lords, was required as a necessary preliminary to holding any office in Church or State (October 12), and by a subsequent act was rendered universal (January 2, 1650). In Ireland Cromwell in nine months brought the greater part of the country again into subjection to England. His great victories gained over the Scots at Dunbar (September 3, 1650) and Worcester (September 3, 1651) destroyed for the time all hope of a Presbyterian or Royalist reaction, and reduced Scotland to the condition of a subject province. A bill was introduced into parliament for the union of the two countries. An act was passed for the settlement of Ireland, which excepted from pardon all persons who had taken part in the massacre of 1643, and confiscated a large amount of land belonging to Irish Catholics (August 12, 1652). A further bill was brought in for the planting of Protestant families on the land thus confiscated.

In March 1649 the Council of State appointed Milton its secretary for foreign tongues. After the victory of Worcester, foreign princes, who before refused to recognize the republic, sought its friendship. During the two years in which Cromwell was reducing Ireland and Scotland, the Republicans in London had raised a formidable navy—Prince Rupert, driven by Admiral Blake from the mouth of the Tagus when he sought refuge, saw his fleet dispersed and destroyed in the Mediterranean (1649). Commercial jealousy led to the passing of the Navigation Act (October 9, 1651), intended to transfer the carrying trade of the Dutch to Englishmen, and in the ensuing summer to the opening of hostilities with the United Provinces. In an engagement off Dover the English under Blake were worsted by the Dutch under Van Tromp. In February 1653 the hostile fleets again engaged off Portland Isle, when the Dutch were defeated and driven for refuge into the Texel.

After the restoration of internal peace the question of the dissolution of the parliament again rose into prominence. Various acts had been passed by which the House sought to express its regard for religion and morality, but the chief reform demanded remained unexecuted, nor did it seem probable that the government, as at present constituted, would ever have the energy requisite for the attainment of practical results in the directions required. The reform of the law, a definite settlement with regard to the Church and the appointment of ministers, the termination of the system of sequestering the estates of former delinquents, and of governing by means of committees, appeared no nearer attainment than at the time of the institution of the Republic. The impracticability of compromise between the so-called Republicans, Vane, Ludlow, and others, who sought to maintain the existing form of government, and those who were indifferent to the form the government should assume, so long as the predominance of the Puritan party was assured, led to the sudden and forcible ejection of the members from their seats by Cromwell (April 19, 1653).

From this time Cromwell was practically at the head of the government, which was for the time carried on by a council of thirteen, including himself and eight other officers. In July, in answer to his summons, there met an assembly of 139 persons, known as the Little Parliament, or as Barebones' Parliament (q.v.), from the name of one of its members, a leather-seller—Barbon, a London anabaptist. It was representative of the reforming party, and was divided nearly equally between a more radical but small majority and a large, less radical, minority. It passed acts for the relief of debtors, for the registration of births, marriages, and deaths, and the institution of civil marriages. It also brought in bills affecting the Poor Laws and the administration of justice. It voted the abolition of the Court of Chancery. It further voted that the choice of ministers should be vested in their parishioners, and rejected by a majority of two the report of a committee in favour of the con-

tinuance of tithes. These votes on the Church question represented the triumphs of those who desired to effect the severance of Church and State. The minority, opposed to a voluntary system, took opportunity in the name of the parliament of resigning their authority to Cromwell. The officers of the army determined to restore the executive into the hands of a single person, and, on December 16, Cromwell was installed head of the government with the title of Lord Protector of the Commonwealth of England, Scotland, and Ireland. [INSTRUMENT OF GOVERNMENT.]

"Calendars of State Papers (Domestic Series) During the Commonwealth," edited by Mrs. Green; Scobell, "Collection of Acts and Ordinances" made in parliament from 1640 to 1656; Thurloe, "Collection of State Papers"; Whitelocke, "Memorials of English Affairs," 1682; Ludlow, "Memoirs," 1894; "The Memoirs and Life of Colonel Hutchinson," by his Wife; "Letters and Journals of Robert Baillie," which extend from 1637 to 1662; Carte, "Collection of Original Letters and Papers," 1739, and "A History of the Life of James, Duke of Ormond," 1736; C. H. Firth, "Cromwell," 1890, and "Last Years of the Protectorate, 1656–8," 2 vols., 1909; S. R. Gardiner, "England During the Commonwealth and Protectorate," 3 vols., 1903; E. Jenks, "Constitutional Experiments of the Commonwealth," 1890.

Commutation in English agrarian history is the process by which cash payments were substituted for labour services and payments in kind. The commutation of services naturally involved closer attention to the keeping of manorial accounts, and it is from the evidence furnished by these accounts that attempts have been made by modern historians to trace the growth of the practice. As early as the beginning of the twelfth century rent-paying tenants existed in numbers considerable enough to show that the process had begun, but for two centuries more labour services were still the rule in most parts of England except Kent and the north-west. Even before commutation took place, however, it was customary to assess labour services in monetary values. Thus the transition was accomplished on many estates with an ease which would not otherwise have been possible. In the fourteenth century money began to play a larger part in local economy, whilst simultaneously the ancient self-sufficiency of the manor was breaking down. It was often to the convenience of the villein to pay money rather than perform services, and where the supply of services was greater than strict economy required in the working of the lord's demesne lands, commutation of part at least of his labour dues would be to the lord's convenience also. As the practice developed, the obligation of the manorial tenant changed in many places gradually from the stage of customary servitude to a stage in which the proportion of services and money payments varied according to seasonal needs and the option of the lord, and finally to the stage of fixed rent and money payment for services. Boon works lingered after week-work had gone. The period to which the process in its fullest vigour can be ascribed has been the subject of controversy. It now seems evident that Thorold Rogers's original view that services had largely been commuted for rents before the Black Death must be abandoned. In the north, however, in the west, in Kent, and in parts of East Anglia, where the standard three-field manorial system had never taken deep root, labour services were the exception at a much earlier date. Elsewhere during the thirteenth century permanent commutation was making way in uneven patches and the process continued in the fourteenth. The Black Death hastened commutation in some districts by stimulating the survivors on the manors to raise their social level by commutation to one more in keeping with their improved economic position. Attempts on the part of the lord to thwart such endeavours played their part in provoking the discontent which found expression in the Peasants' Revolt of 1381. The process of commutation therefore continued with an increased impetus. By the middle of the fifteenth century labour services had fallen almost entirely into disuse. In the few manors where they remained, in whole or in part, commutation took place before the end of the sixteenth century. But even as late as 1707 the manor of Crondal was leased with all the works not arrented into money. [BLACK DEATH; MANOR, THE MEDIÆVAL; VILLENAGE.] [A. V. J.]

T. W. Page, "The End of Villeinage in England"; H. L. Gray, in *English Historical Review*, xxix, 1914; A. E. Levett, "The Black Death," in Oxford Social and Legal Studies; E. Power, in *History*, July 1918; J. E. A. Jolliffe in *English Historical Review*, xli, 1916.

Compounders, THE, were a section of the Jacobite party who wished for a restoration of the Stuarts, "but for a restoration accompanied by a general amnesty, and by guarantees for the security of the civil and ecclesiastical constitution of the realm." They obtained their name about 1692. The Compounders formed the main strength of the Jacobite party in England; but the more violent party or Non-Compounders were all-powerful at St. Germains. Their leader at St. Germains was the Earl of Middleton, who resigned in 1693. They were much offended by James's Declaration in 1692, and shortly afterwards recommended that James should resign in favour of his son, on his refusal to accept their conditions, part of which was the observance of the Test Oath. The remainder of their history is merged in that of the Jacobite party. [JACOBITES.]

Comprehension Bill, THE (1689), was a scheme for the relief of Protestant Dissenters proposed by the Earl of Nottingham. A measure of similar tendency had been advocated on the occasion of the enactment of the Test Act, but had been allowed to drop. Another proposal of similar tendency, a bill to relieve Protestant Dissenters from the penalties of the 35th of Elizabeth, suffered a similar fate in 1663. Nottingham's bill provided that (1) all ministers of the Established Church, and

members of both universities, should be freed from the necessity of subscribing the Thirty-nine Articles on signing a declaration that they approved, and would support, "the doctrine, worship, and government of the Church of England"; (2) scrupled ceremonies, such as the wearing of a surplice, the sign of the cross in baptism, the admission of godfathers and godmothers to christening, and the reception of the Eucharist in a kneeling position, were left at discretion; (3) a Presbyterian minister might acquire all the privileges of a clergyman of the Church of England on submitting to the imposition of the hands of a bishop. This bill was mutilated in the Upper House, and a petition substituted that the king would call the houses of convocation "to be advised with in ecclesiastical matters." The Nonconformist clergy, themselves accustomed to independence, and disliking formal subscriptions of faith and compulsory uniformity, were not anxious for the passing of the measure; and accordingly the scheme of comprehension was allowed to fall absolutely and finally to the ground.

J. Stoughton, "History of Religion in England" (2nd edn., 8 vols., 1901).

Compton, Henry (1632–1713), was the youngest son of the Earl of Northampton. After studying at Oxford he entered the army, but soon after relinquished the military for the clerical profession. In 1669 he was made a canon of Christ Church; in 1674, Bishop of Oxford; and in 1675 was translated to London. He incurred the displeasure of James II by disregarding the royal order prohibiting controversial sermons, and was suspended from his episcopal functions. He joined Danby and others in inviting William of Orange to England, and took a leading part in the Revolution. He assisted in the coronation of William and Mary, but, being disappointed in his hopes of obtaining the archbishopric of Canterbury, from that time took little further part in public affairs.

Compton, Spencer, Earl of Wilmington (1673 ?–1743), a son of James, Earl of Northampton, was chosen Speaker of the House of Commons in 1715. He was a favourite of George II while Prince of Wales; and on the prince's accession he was commissioned to form a ministry (1727). Walpole, however, gained over the king by proposing to increase the civil list; and Queen Caroline's influence was employed in his favour. Compton could not even draw up the speech from the throne, and had to apply to his rival for assistance. He saw that his power was gone, and soon accepted the position of president of the council, with a peerage as Lord Wilmington. He gave lukewarm support to Walpole, and remained neutral when, in 1741, Sandys's motion that Walpole should be removed from the king's council was brought forward. On the fall of Walpole in January 1742, Pulteney, who refused the premiership, proposed Wilmington as first lord of the treasury and nominal head of the government. He retained most of the old ministers. The only incident in his brief administration was the committee of inquiry against Walpole [Walpole, Sir Robert].

Biographies of Walpole.

Compurgation, or Law-wager, was a mode of defence common to the laws of many of the barbarian tribes who overran the Roman Empire. It was a recognized part of Anglo-Saxon legal procedure. A man accused of an offence might clear himself by a formal denial of the charge, provided that he could support his denial by the oath of a certain number of other persons (compurgators). The number of compurgators required varied according to the heinousness of the offence, and the rank of the accused and the accuser; but in England it was commonly twelve. Compurgation persisted after the Norman Conquest. In the twelfth century it began to be regarded with disfavour, especially by the royal courts, but it was only gradually that it fell into disuse. In the later Middle Ages it continued to be used frequently in the manorial courts, in the borough courts—where it was particularly valued as an alternative to trial by battle—and in the ecclesiastical courts; while it lasted into modern times as a special peculiarity of the actions of Debt, Detinue and Account. The compurgators were not a jury, but "a body of sworn witnesses to character." The last instance of the use of compurgation in England occurred in 1824 (King *v.* Williams). It was finally abolished in 1833.

W. S. Holdsworth, "History of English Law," 3rd edn.; Sir F. Pollock and F. W. Maitland, "History of English Law," 2nd edn., 1911; Lea, "Superstition and Force."

Comyn, John, 3rd Earl of Buchan, was a staunch adherent of Edward I. He was defeated by Bruce at Inverury (1308) and had his territory harried by the victorious troops. He died in England in the same year. His wife, Isabella Macduff, sister of the Earl of Fife, was a supporter of Robert Bruce, and crowned that king at Scone, March 27, 1306. For this she was imprisoned by Edward I in a cage at Berwick, as a warning to those who dared to support Bruce.

P. Hume Brown, "History of Scotland," 1911.

Comyn, John, Lord of Badenoch, surnamed "the Black," married Marjory, sister of John Baliol. He was a man of vast wealth and influence, and, in the competition for the Scottish throne in 1291, put in a claim as a descendant of Donald Bane. He had been named a regent of the Maid of Norway, and, in 1289, was one of the Scots commissioners sent to Salisbury to confer about the marriage of the young queen to Prince Edward of England.

Comyn, John, called "the Red" (*d.* 1306), was the son of John Comyn, of Badenoch, and Marjory, sister of John Baliol. In 1298, after the battle of Falkirk (q.v.), he was chosen one of the three guardians of Scotland. In

1302 he defeated the English troops at Roslin, while in the following year he made an unsuccessful attempt to relieve Stirling. In February 1304 he laid down his arms and submitted to Edward I, whom he is said to have counselled to put Bruce to death. Bruce met Comyn at the monastery of the Minorites, at Dumfries, charged him with treachery, and stabbed him, February 10, 1306. Bruce and Comyn were at this time the two rival claimants for Scotland—Comyn as the grandson of Devorguilla, having the same claim which John Baliol had successfully established in 1292.

P. Hume Brown, "History of Scotland," 1911.

Conadh Cerr (*d.* 629) was the son of Eocha, who apparently resigned the kingdom of Dalriada in his favour, 627. In this year Conadh fought at the battle of Ardcorran in Ireland on the side of the Irish Dalriads; and two years later was defeated at another battle in Ireland, fighting against the Cruithnigh and his own father, who was now apparently king of the Galloway Picts.

A. B. Scott, "Pictish Nation," 1918.

Confirmatio Cartarum (1297) was the name given to an important document in which Edward I, under pressure from the barons led by the Earls of Hereford and Norfolk, and the clergy led by Archbishop Winchelsey, confirmed and extended the constitutional rights established in the two preceding reigns. It was obvious that the Great Charter, in the mutilated condition in which it had been left in 1225, was not sufficient guarantee against arbitrary taxation on the part of the king. Early in 1297 Edward, in sore need of funds for the war with France, and at odds with both clergy and baronage, seized the wool of the merchants; and a few months later he prevailed upon such of the barons and commons as were still in London to make him an irregular money grant. When the king had departed for Flanders at the end of August the earls appeared under arms in London. They drew up a series of new articles to be added to the Great Charter, and these the regent was obliged to concede; the king confirming his son's act at Ghent in November. The articles were seven in number:—(1) The charters are confirmed, and are to be kept in every point without breach. (2) Any judgment given henceforth contrary to the points of the charters aforesaid by the justices, or by any other royal ministers, to be undone, and holden for naught. (3) Copies of the charters are to be sent to the cathedral churches of the realm, and read twice a year to the people. (4) The bishops are to excommunicate all who break the charters. (5) The exactions by which the people have in former times been aggrieved are not to be a precedent for the future. (6) For no business henceforth will the Crown take such manner of aids, tasks, or prizes but by the common assent of the realm, and for the common profit thereof, saving the ancient aids and prizes due and accustomed. (7) Forasmuch as the commonalty of the realm have been sore grieved with the maltote on wools, the king undertakes that in future he will impose no such levy without their common assent and goodwill, saving to him and his heirs the custom of wools, skins, and leather granted before by the commonalty.—The confirmation of the charters may be held to have carried a stage farther the work begun at Runnimede. It was not, however, until the statute of 1340, which provided that the community "be not henceforth charged or grieved to make common aid or to sustain charge but by common assent of the prelates, earls, barons, and other great men and commons of the realm of England and that in parliament," that the principle of "no taxation without consent" was definitely established.

Stubbs, "Select Charters," ed. H. W. C. Davis, 1913.

Congé d'Élire—"leave to elect"—is a Norman-French phrase, signifying the sovereign's permission for the dean and chapter of a vacant see to proceed to the election of a bishop. In pre-Norman times the bishops were, as a rule, appointed by the king in the witenagemot, though there occasionally occur instances of an election more or less free—as in the case of Helmstan, Bishop of Winchester (839). After the Norman Conquest the election became by degrees canonical, though even then it was held in the king's chapel, or so much under his influence as to be little more than nominally free. The dispute about investiture between Henry I and Anselm ended in a compromise, by which the sovereign was to confer the temporal power, while the election was to be made by the chapter. In 1164 a clause in the Constitutions of Clarendon mentions the custom that elections to bishoprics should be "by the chief clergy of the Church, assembled in the king's chapel, *with the assent of the king*"; whilst, in 1214, John, by a special charter, made a grant to the chapters of free canonical election, reserving, however, to the king the right of licence and approval. This charter was confirmed by Magna Carta, and again in 1351 by Edward III; and in spite of various attempts at interference on the part of the pope the Crown as a rule managed to secure the appointment of its nominees. In 1534 an act of Henry VIII provided that with the *congé d'élire* the king was also to send the name of the person he wished to be elected; and that if the election were delayed beyond twenty days after the issuing of the royal licence, or if any other than the royal nominee were chosen, the dean and chapter should incur the penalties of Præmunire (q.v.). It was also provided that after a delay of twelve days on the part of the chapter the king might fill up the vacant see by letters patent. The method of this act still prevails in England. In Ireland, before the Irish Church Act of 1869, the nominations were made by letters patent. [Bishop.]

Congleton, Henry Brooke Parnell, 1st Baron (1776–1842). [Parnell.]

Congregationalism. The Congregationalists who emerged in England in the sixteenth century found their charter in the words of Jesus: "Where two or three are gathered together in my name, there am I in the midst of them." The fundamental idea of Congregationalism is its conception of the church: a church is composed of those who, believing in the Lord Jesus Christ, join together for worship, fellowship, and service. Since Hort's time it has generally been admitted by New Testament scholars that the apostolic churches were congregational, and that "the very origin and fundamental nature of Ecclesia as a community of disciples renders it impossible that the principle should rightly become obsolete." A group of Christian believers, with Christ in the midst, needs no other authority, being independent of all other civil and ecclesiastical organizations, deriving its power from the living Lord. It was this principle that was rediscovered by the Elizabethan Separatists. The translation of the Bible into the vernacular would inevitably have led to the discovery, sooner or later, but it was accelerated by the experiences of many devoted Christians in the sixteenth century. During the Marian persecution many English Protestants fled abroad: there they not merely saw that some of the things previously deemed necessary to worship and to the right constitution of a church were indifferent, but their difficulties, especially at Frankfort, led to discussions in which Episcopalian, Presbyterian, and Congregational ways of thinking began to emerge. On the continent too they learnt of Anabaptism, a name which, because of the excesses of some who bore it, was held in horror by many, but now stands as representing pioneers of civil and religious liberty, especially in regard to the freedom of religion from control by the civil power. It was in England, however, that events paved the way for the establishment of churches of a congregational order. During Mary's reign the "secret meetings" of Protestants for worship—in houses, ships, fields, woods—revealed to them the fact that sacred buildings, ministers, sacraments, prayer books, were not absolute essentials for true worship. Whatever might be the penalty, they refused to forsake the assembling of themselves together; the result was that, in Dale's words, "When Elizabeth came to the throne the blessedness of those secret meetings for worship would not soon be forgotten. Devout men and women had learnt that in a small company of Christian people, united to each other by strong mutual affection and a common loyalty to Christ, it was possible to realize in a wonderful way the joy and strength of the communion of saints; and that such an assembly, though it had only a weaver or wheelwright for its minister, might have a vivid consciousness of access to God through Christ, and might receive surprising discoveries of the divine righteousness of love." So it came about, when it became clear that queen and parliament were not to proceed with the reformation of the Church, keeping many "remnants of popery," and not accepting Calvinistic discipline as they accepted Calvinistic doctrine, that the memory of the blessings received in the assemblies a few years before decided men and women to proceed with reformation "without tarrying for any." Life precedes literature, and in London, some fifteen years before Robert Browne set forth Congregational principles so clearly that he who runs may read and understand them, there were gatherings of Christians who not merely joined in worship and fellowship, but elected ministers, elders, and deacons, and administered discipline. It is one of these London congregations, whose minister, Richard Fitz, died in prison (probably in 1571), that has the best right to the priority (see Dr. Albert Peel's "The First Congregational Churches, 1567–71"). In 1582 Robert Browne published three little books which stated the vital principles of Congregationalism, setting out that "the Kingdom of God was not to be begun by whole parishes, but rather of the worthiest, be they never so few": from him came the name Brownist (q.v.), by which the Independents were known for several generations. A Cambridge man, who had become convinced of the truth of Congregationalism, he established a congregation in Norwich, but had soon to flee to Middelburg, and then to Scotland. The Presbyterians and the Puritans strictly so-called (those who desired merely to purify the Church from what they considered Roman corruptions, without proceeding to separation) were all opposed to Browne's teaching. He was imprisoned many times, and ultimately conformed, though even in his long period of conformity he seems to have had a local church group in his house. Elizabeth and her advisers, especially Archbishop Whitgift, were determined to stamp out Nonconformity; the queen, while claiming that she desired no windows to look into any man's conscience, insisted that all her people should attend their parish churches to show that they were true subjects. Drastic legislation in 1593—in which year Sir Walter Ralegh said in parliament (probably much exaggerating) that there were 20,000 Brownists in the country—resulted in the deaths of Henry Barrow, a lawyer, John Greenwood, a preacher, and John Penry, an heroic young Welshman, all of whom had attended Congregational worship in London. The result of ruthless suppression was to drive the Separatists into exile, and from 1593 onwards, especially in the Netherlands, little Congregational communities were to be found abroad. From one of these, the flock at Leyden, under the pastoral care of the saintly and broadminded John Robinson, came the Pilgrim Fathers, who, headed by their elder, William Brewster, crossed the Atlantic in the *Mayflower*

in 1620, establishing the Plymouth plantation, with William Bradford as governor from 1621. They were speedily followed by thousands of other colonists, including men of education and good standing. While the settlers of Massachusetts, Connecticut, and Newhaven were not Separatist, when they came to found their churches in the new land, they looked to Scripture for their model, and discovered that the resultant churches were much like those of the Plymouth pioneers. In America Congregationalism thus for a time became a state religion, the franchise being limited to church members, the civil power calling synods, and taxes being levied on all for the support of the ministry.

Congregational churches had meanwhile again made their appearance in England, imprisonment making no difference to those who believed that wherever they gathered together in faith Christ would be with them and give His blessing. Gradually men of influence in the country attached themselves to the churches, especially when Independency (the name seems to have been first used about 1640) began to have political significance. In the Westminster Assembly of Divines (q.v.) the "Dissenting brethren"—a little group of Independents—pressed their arguments with such earnestness that all thinking men were constrained to consider their positions, which they put forward both by voice and pen. The fortunes of war made Independency, under its "chief of men," Cromwell, the controlling force in the land. Milton also had Independent views, as had many others of the leaders of the parliament and army. Cromwell, however, was far ahead of his time, and he could not secure that general tolerance of religious opinions which he desired, though during the Commonwealth there was a wider tolerance than at any preceding period. With the Restoration, Independency of course lost its power, while the Act of Uniformity in 1662 removed from the Church of England 2,000 of its ablest ministers, of whom perhaps 500 were Congregationalists. Many of these found employment in teaching—often contrary to law—and one of the most inspiring chapters in the history of Congregationalism is to be found in the work done in the Dissenting academies for the training of ministers in England, and in the establishment of Harvard and Yale across the Atlantic. In 1689 came the Toleration Act (q.v.), when Nonconformist worship was allowed. Many buildings were erected, and in 1730 there were about 360 Congregational churches in England. Congregationalism suffered from the general decline in religion in the eighteenth century, being rescued from a long period of decay by the Evangelical revival, though probably the establishment of Sunday schools was a contributory cause. The Methodist movement helped to humanize the life and theology of Congregationalism, and the hymns of Charles Wesley, combined with those of the Congregationalists Watts and Doddridge, gave a new reality to worship.

The nineteenth century began with 800 Congregational churches, and also with a Missionary Society (the London) for whose foundation and enterprise these churches were in large measure responsible. During that century the denomination grew in members and in influence. It united with other Nonconformists in strenuous and successful campaigns for the removal of the civil and religious disabilities which rested upon them. It also saw the constant struggle to reconcile the contending claims of autonomy and connexionalism. So rigidly did local congregations, especially in England, construe their independence, that they were very suspicious of all attempts at co-operation or at the establishment of inter-congregational associations. After several counties had formed unions to aid the weaker churches in their areas, the Congregational Union of England and Wales was formed in 1831. These county and national—and, since 1891, international—councils have advisory powers only, but their influence has steadily increased, especially since the beginning of the present century. To get the full value of union and of efficient administration, and yet to retain the initiative and freedom that spring from the autonomy of each church, is the primary and continual problem of the Congregational churches. It is only as they possess the sense that every church is the One Church outcropping in a particular locality that the spirit is attained by which these apparently conflicting claims can be met. This sense the churches of the first century had in unique measure: it is a *sine qua non* of the existence and constant progress of Congregationalism.

Originally Calvinistic in doctrine, Congregationalists have no binding creed. At times, both in America and England (Savoy Conference, 1658, and also in 1833) they have issued declaratory statements of faith, but it is a fundamental conviction that Christians should be willing "to walk together in all God's ways, made known, *or to be made known* to men." This freedom from credal bonds gives power of adaptation to changing circumstances, and ability to express the eternal gospel in the language of successive periods. Congregationalism has made little impression on countries outside England and the United States. In the former there are to-day about 5,000 churches, and in the latter about 6,000. It ought not to be overlooked that many other bodies, especially the Baptists, have Congregational views in regard to the government of the church.

Williston Walker, "Creeds and Platforms of Congregationalism," and art. *Congregationalism*, in "Encyclo. of Religion and Ethics"; R. W. Dale, "Manual of Congregational Principles," and "History of Congregationalism"; Albert Peel and J. V. Bartlet, "The Outline of Christianity," vol. iii (cc. xxi and xxii). [A. P.]

Coningsby, Thomas, Earl (*d.* 1729), was member for Leominster during the reign of William III. He was "a busy and unscrupu-

lous Whig." He accompanied the king to Ireland in the capacity of paymaster-general. On the departure of William to England he was created one of the lords justices. He superintended and signed the Treaty of Limerick. During the next six months, by his unprincipled rapacity, and by the favour he showed to Roman Catholics, he succeeded in alienating all classes, and was recalled. In 1701 we find him voting for the Resumption Bill, although he had received considerable grants of Irish land. "He was," says Macaulay, "an unprincipled man: he was insatiable of riches; and he was in a position in which riches were easily to be obtained by an unprincipled man." After the death of Queen Anne, Coningsby was created a peer of Great Britain (1719).

Connaught. The ancient kingdom of Connaught, originally called Olnegmacht, comprised, roughly speaking, the present counties of Galway, Mayo, Sligo, Roscommon, Leitrim, and Cavan, afterwards added to Ulster. According to tradition, when the Scoti established themselves in Ireland, their great chief, Tuathal (*d.* about A.D. 160) reigned over Munster, Leinster, and Olnegmacht, and in the great division of the country between his grandson Con, or Cond, "of the hundred battles," and the rival king, Mogh of Munster (whence came the terms Leith-Cuinon, "Con's half," for north Ireland, and Leith-Mogha, "Mogh's half," for south Ireland), the district now known as County Clare, which had originally belonged to Olnegmacht, was transferred to Munster. About this time the name of the kingdom was changed from Olnegmacht to Connaught. In the reign of King Laeghairé, Connaught was converted to Christianity by St. Patrick (about 433). In the time of the so-called Irish Pentarchy, Connaught was a fairly compact kingdom, owing allegiance to the Ard-Riagh, or chief monarch of Ireland, usually chosen from the kings of Meath. Its power was at its height in 561, when Fergus defeated the Ard-Riagh Diarmid at the battle of Sligo; but soon afterwards the kingdom split up into principalities, and continued through the Danish invasion, in which the nobles unpatriotically sided with the invader, though they afterwards changed sides and aided Brian Boru in winning the great battle of Clontarf (1014) (q.v.). Soon after this, the great sept of the O'Connors of Roscommon became prominent in Connaught, and began to wage civil war with the O'Neills of Ulster and the O'Briens of Munster. Turlogh O'Brien drove the reigning O'Connor from his kingdom in 1079, but Turlogh O'Connor overran the whole of Munster in 1118, and followed this up by taking Dublin. His son, Roderic O'Connor, claimed the title of Ard-Riagh of Ireland, and was crowned with great pomp in Dublin in 1166. Soon afterwards he drove Dermot Macmurrough, King of Leinster, from his kingdom, whereupon the latter sought help from Henry II of England, and the English invasion followed. Roderic, a man of indolent disposition, made little attempt at resistance, but did homage to Henry in 1175, when the sovereignty of Ireland was reserved to him with the exception of Dublin, Meath, Leinster, Waterford, and Dungarvan. His son, Cathal, pursued the same policy on John's visit to Ireland in 1210. Henry III, however, by a great breach of good faith, granted the country, in 1225, to Richard de Burgh, and after a terrible struggle he succeeded in holding his own against the O'Connors, who were, as usual, split up into several factions; and the sept was almost annihilated in the reign of Edward II, when Felim O'Connor joined Edward Bruce, and was defeated by his kinsman Rory, supported by the Burghs and Berminghams at Athenry (1316) (q.v.). About the middle of the century the Burghs of Connaught, the younger branch, threw off their allegiance to the English crown, and Connaught was divided between their leaders, while they changed their name at the same time to that of Burke. The race rapidly degenerated; they adopted Irish manners and intermarried freely with the O'Connors, in spite of the Statute of Kilkenny (1366) (q.v.). The power of the latter revived, so that by the commencement of the reign of Henry VIII they still claimed to be kings, and had extended their dominions to within twenty miles of Dublin. Their strength was, however, checked in the reign of Edward VI by Sir Edward Bellingham, who built a castle at Athlone to curb Connaught. In the reign of Elizabeth the Burkes suffered a sterner punishment; they had remained quiet during the Ulster and Munster insurrections, but at last, in 1576, when the hated Sir Nicholas Malby was appointed president of Connaught, they arose in rebellion. The whole of the country was in return laid waste by fire and sword, and the unfortunate race nearly exterminated in that and the following years. In 1566 Connaught ceased to be a kingdom, and was divided into counties by act of parliament. Clare, or Thomond, originally part of Connaught, was soon afterwards added to it again, but at the Restoration it once more became part of Munster. [Burke; O'Connor.] In the reign of Charles I an Inquiry into Titles in Connaught was made at the instance of Wentworth, afterwards Lord Strafford, when lord-lieutenant of Ireland. The idea was first mooted in 1634, but was laid aside in order to conciliate the Irish parliament. As soon, however, as they had voted the necessary supplies, Charles broke his promise of making sixty years' possession a bar to the claims of the Crown, and, in 1635, issued a commission to inquire into defective titles in Connaught, wishing to dispossess the landlords and colonize the country on the plan which James I had pursued in Ulster. After the juries had been warned what the consequences of contumacy would be, the commission went to work, and soon declared that the lands of the Burkes about Athlone—in fact, nearly

three-fourths of the province—belonged to the Crown. For this the foreman of the jury, Sir Lucas Dillon, was permitted to retain some of his own lands. In most cases the landlords had no title-deeds to show, and those who had were forced to pay large fines for their confirmation. In Galway alone the jury refused to find for the king; they were fined the sum of £4,000 each and imprisoned, when the sheriff, on whom a penalty of £1,000 was imposed, died. The Transplantation to Connaught was effected during the Protectorate. Cromwell determined, in 1653, to confine the Irish nation to the desolated province of Connaught, and declared that they must transplant themselves thither within seven months on the penalty of death. There they were to be enclosed by a cordon of soldiers, to whom a strip of land, a mile wide, running round the coast and the Shannon, was assigned. The population was now reduced by war and banishment to about 850,000, and for them 800,000 acres were set apart. By a summary process the estates of the Catholic gentry were confiscated, according to their degree of complicity in the Irish rebellion and their resistance to the Protectorate, in various proportions, from one- to two-thirds, which were handed over to adventurers and Parliamentary soldiers, while they were forced to accept an equivalent across the Shannon. After the appointed time had passed, an Irish gentleman was hanged for refusing to transplant, and several hundreds, with their families, were sent as slaves to Barbados. Many others were removed bodily, with what they could save of their possessions, to Connaught. The utmost severity was used in the process, noble ladies, for instance, being compelled to go on foot, and all being reduced to the greatest misery. Some of the sons of the banished owners wandered about their old estates, living by outlawry and the hospitality of their fathers' tenants. A sum of £20 was laid on the heads of these "Tories," in 1657, and their extermination decreed, together with that of two other "beasts," the wolf and the priest. After the Restoration an attempt was made (1661) to soften these conditions, the result of which was that it was declared that all Catholics who were innocent of rebellion should be restored to their estates. Those, however, who had accepted lands in Connaught were forced to abide by their bargains, and of those who returned from exile but few obtained any redress.

O'Curry, "Manuscript Materials of Ancient Irish History," 1861; Cusack, "History of the Irish Nation," 1877; McGee, "History of Ireland," 1865; Haverty, "History of Ireland," 1860; C. L. Falkiner, "Counties of Ireland," in Royal Irish Society's Proceedings, vol. 24, 1903. [L. C. S.]

Connaught, Prince Arthur William Patrick Albert, Duke of (*b.* 1850), third son of Queen Victoria, entered the army in 1866 and became successively captain (1871), lieut.-colonel (1876), major-general (1880), lieut.-general (1889), and general (1893). He served in Egypt (1882), India (1886–90), and Ireland (1900). In 1879 he married Princess Louise Marguerite of Prussia. From 1907 till 1909 he held command in the Mediterranean, and he was governor-general of Canada, 1911–16. His only son, Prince Arthur of Connaught (*b.* 1883) married Princess Alexandra, Duchess of Fife (1913).

Connecticut. [American Colonies.]

Conservative. [Tory.]

Conservators of the Peace, The, were the predecessors of our modern justices of the peace. Little is at present known of their history. Their origin is usually traced to the proclamation of Archbishop Hubert Walter in 1195 appointing knights to receive from everyone above fifteen years of age an oath to the effect that they would aid in the preservation of the peace in certain specified ways. These knights were to receive all persons arrested and hand them over to the sheriff. In the thirteenth century knights of the shire were frequently employed by the Crown in police and administrative work. In 1230 and 1252 men were appointed in each county to enforce watch and ward and the assize of arms. In 1264 Simon de Montfort appointed custodians to preserve the peace of the realm; and the precedent was followed by Edward I after the Civil War. In 1277 each sheriff was ordered to have a good man elected in full county court to attend especially to the conservation of the peace (*custos pacis*); and the enforcement of the Statute of Winchester in 1285 was entrusted to custodians or "conservatores." Under Edward II the office gradually took form, and immediately on the accession of Edward III statutory provision was made for the appointment of guardians of the peace in all counties (1 Ed. III, s. 2, c. 16). Next year they were empowered to punish all who resisted or disobeyed their orders (2 Ed. III, c. 6), and in 1330 (4 Ed. III, c. 2) their powers were still further enlarged to enable them to receive presentments, and to send those presented before the justices of jail delivery—the sheriffs being forbidden to release such persons by writ of mainprize, if they were not by law mainpernable. Finally in 1344 the persons assigned to keep the peace were empowered, together with "other wise and learned in the law," to hear and determine felonies and trespasses (18 Ed. III, st. 2, c. 2). In 1361 there were assigned in every county "one lord and with him three or four of the most worthy in the county with some learned in the law" to keep the peace, to arrest and imprison offenders, to imprison or take surety of suspected persons, and to hear and determine felonies and trespasses done in the county (34 Ed. III, c. 1); and in 1363 these were ordered to hold their sessions four times a year. It is generally held that it was after the statute of 1361 that the "keepers" first became known as "justices"

of the peace; but it is probable that they might legitimately have been so described in 1344 or even earlier.

Beard, "Office of Justice of the Peace in England," 1904; Putnam, "Early Treatises on the Practice of the Justices of the Peace," 1924; W. S. Holdsworth, "History of English Law," vol. i, 1922.

Consilt, The Pass of, near Flint, is memorable for a narrow escape of Henry II, who was surprised here in 1157 by the Welsh under Owain Gwynnedd, and forced to draw off his troops, after suffering heavy losses.

Consistory Courts. [Ecclesiastical Jurisdiction.]

Consols is the usual abbreviation for the government stock, properly entitled Three per Cent. Consolidated Bank Annuities. It originated in the year 1751, when an act was passed consolidating several separate stocks bearing interest at 3 per cent. In 1787 the public debt was further consolidated by the union of the Aggregate, General, and South Sea Funds. By the act 56 Geo. III, c. 98 (1816), it was united with the Irish Government Fund. The National Debt (Conversion) Act of 1888 reduced the interest to 2¾ per cent. and provided for a further reduction to 2½ per cent., which took place in 1905. [National Debt.]

Conspiracy to Murder Bill, 1858. [Orsini Question.]

Constable (derived from the Latin *comes stabuli*, count of the stable) was originally an office in the Byzantine court. The name was borrowed by the Frankish kings; and in the Carolingian epoch a *comes stabuli* was at the head of the imperial stables, the marshals serving under him. In England the title is used in several different senses.

(1) It might be loosely applied to any high military command. Thus during the Norman and Angevin periods we hear of constables of castles, of garrisons, of troops, and even of ships; while the unit of the feudal host was the "constabularia" of ten men.

(2) The *Lord High Constable* first appears about the time of Stephen as one of the great household officers; and the first high constable who is at all prominent in history is Miles of Gloucester, one of the chief supporters of the Empress Matilda, who created him Earl of Hereford in 1141. The high constable may be considered to have succeeded to the duties of the officer who, before the Conquest, was known as "the staller"; he was "quartermaster-general of the court and army." From the "Dialogus de Scaccario" (q.v.) we learn that he was also, in the time of Henry II, one of the officers of the exchequer, where he helped the treasurer to check the accounts of the king's household servants. As was the case with the other great officers of the royal household, the office of lord high constable had, before the end of the reign of Henry II, become an hereditary dignity. It passed to the family of Bohun, through Humphrey de Bohun, who married the daughter and heiress of Miles of Gloucester; and on the extinction of that line in 1372 it was held by Thomas of Woodstock (*d.* 1397), who married the heiress of the last Bohun, Earl of Hereford. With the accession of the house of Lancaster (1399), the office ceased to be hereditary. The Earl of Northumberland was made constable by Henry IV in 1399, but the office was taken from him in 1403 and given to the Duke of Bedford. Subsequently the Duke of Somerset was made constable in 1450, but there seem to have been considerable gaps between many of the appointments. The lord high constable, together with the marshal (q.v.) had by the time of Edward I acquired great powers in the management of the feudal army; he superintended the mustering, billeting, and formation of troops, took care that those who owed service by their tenure sent the proper number of men, and during the campaign held court for the trial of military offences. In 1297 Humphrey de Bohun, Earl of Hereford, together with Bigod the marshal, refused to take charge of an army destined for Guienne, availing themselves of the legal quibble that they were only bound to serve when the king in person was present, and they gained their point. From this date also the judicial functions of the lord high constable became important; besides administering martial law, he was, with the marshal, whose functions are by no means distinct, the presiding officer of the Court of Chivalry (q.v.), and, as such, decided questions of honour and heraldry. These powers became considerably enlarged, and tended to encroach on the jurisdiction of the courts of common law, and were strictly limited in 1389. Edward IV, however, revived and increased the powers of the constable's court for the purpose of punishing the Lancastrians. Tiptoft, Earl of Worcester, was empowered to take cognizance of all cases of high treason, "to hear, examine, and conclude them, even summarily and plainly, without noise and show of judgment, on simple inspection of fact." Richard III bestowed the office on Henry Stafford, Duke of Buckingham, partly, perhaps, with the idea of making it hereditary once more, for Buckingham was descended from the Bohuns. His son Edward was appointed to act as constable at the coronation of Henry VIII in 1509, and in 1514 claimed the office as his by hereditary right, but his downfall and death ended the claim of the Staffords. Ever since, the office of lord high constable has only been conferred by the Crown *pro hac vice*, as at a coronation. The Duke of Wellington officiated in that capacity at the coronations of George IV, William IV, and Victoria.

(3) *The Lord High Constable of Scotland* can be traced back to the time of David I. In Scotland the duties of the office consisted in commanding the army while in the field, in the absence of the king, and, in conjunction

with the marshal, judging all transgressions committed within a certain distance of the king's palace, known as the "chalmer of peace." In 1321, when Sir Gilbert Hay was made Earl of Errol, the office was made hereditary in his family. It was expressly reserved by the treaty of Union, and by act of parliament in 1747. It is now, however, purely honorary.

(4) *The High and Petty Constables* were in the Middle Ages the representatives and executive agents of the hundred and the townships respectively. It is probable that in their developed form they absorbed the older officials of their districts—viz., the reeve or headman of the hundred, and the head-boro or tithing-man of the township. The first mention we have of them *eo nomine* is in a writ of Henry III (1252), which provides for the appointment in every vill of two constables, and in every hundred of one chief constable, to enforce the assize of arms and take cognizance of matters relating to the conservation of the peace. The Statute of Winchester (1285) ordered the selection in every hundred and franchise of two constables to make the view of armour, and to oversee the operation of the system of watch and ward; and these duties were enforced and enlarged by a series of enactments in the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries. With the decay of the older communities of township and hundred, and the development in the sixteenth century of new centralized institutions, the office of constable underwent important modifications. The right of appointment, which had originally vested in the hundred court, the town, or the leet, passed to the justices of the peace, whose executive agents the constables in effect became. Through them the hundred and vill were linked up with the activities of the new civil unit of the parish, which, in its turn, was subordinated to the organized control of the J.P.s. Thus by a process of adaptation the high and petty constables of the mediæval period were gradually and silently transformed into officials of a modern state. The high and petty constables continued to be the executive legal officers in the counties until the organization of a county police force between 1839 and 1859. The office of high constable was abolished by the High Constables Act of 1869, and that of petty constable, except in so far as it was incorporated in the county police system, by the Parish Constables Act of 1872.

(5) *Special Constables* are peace officers sworn in by the justices of the peace to act on special occasions, when the ordinary police force is thought to be inadequate. Their appointment is regulated by an act of 1831 (1 and 2 Wm. IV, c. 41), which was amended and supplemented in 1914 (4 and 5 Geo. V, c. 61) and 1923 (13 and 14 Geo. V, c. 11).

"Complete English Peerage," new edn., ii, Appendix; J. H. Round, "The King's Serjeants and Their Coronation Services," 1911; W. S. Holdsworth, "History of English Law," iv, 1922; S. and B. Webb, "Local Government," "Parish and County."

Constance of Brittany (*d.* 1201) was the daughter and heiress of Conan, Count of Brittany. She was married to Geoffrey, son of Henry II, by whom she had two children, Eleanor and Arthur. After Geoffrey's death, in 1186, she obtained the guardianship of her son and the government of the duchy, but was soon afterwards compelled to marry Ranulf, Earl of Chester, who made himself so hated in Brittany that on Henry II's death, in 1189, he was driven out, and Constance restored to power. In 1196 she was seized by a body of troops under her husband, and imprisoned for eighteen months; her conduct during this period in asserting the rights of the Bretons was most adverse to the interests of her son, in addition to which she had quarrelled with her powerful mother-in-law, Eleanor, as well as with her husband, from whom she obtained a divorce in 1199. She now married Guy, brother of the Viscount of Thouars, by whom she had three daughters, from the eldest of whom, Alix, sprang the Dukes of Brittany who played such an important part in the French wars of Edward III's reign.

Constance of Castile (*d.* 1394) was the elder daughter of Pedro the Cruel of Castile. In 1371 she became the second wife of John of Gaunt, who inherited, through her, claims to the crown of Castile.

Constantine [MacFergus] (*d.* 820), expelled Conall, King of the Picts, and obtained the Pictish throne (789 ?), having in all probability authority over Dalriada also. In 796 some monks from Lindisfarne visited his court, and for them he is said to have founded the church of Dunkeld, which he made the religious centre of Scotland in place of Iona. The reign of Constantine is chiefly memorable as marking the date of the first historical attacks of the Norsemen on the British shores. It was in 793 that they harried the holy island of Lindisfarne, and a few years later seized upon the western islands, and slaughtered the monks of Iona. By these pirates, who henceforward for several centuries continued their ravages, nearly all communications between Ireland and Scotland were in time broken off.

A. B. Scott, "Pictish Nation," 1918.

Constantine (*d.* 879), son of Kenneth MacAlpine, succeeded his uncle Donald as King of Alban, 863. His reign is chiefly remarkable for a series of conflicts with the Norsemen, under Olaf the White, King of Dublin. Olaf's son, Thorstein the Red, is said to have conquered Caithness and Sunderland, "and more than half Scotland." When Fingall drove the Dubhgail out of Ireland, the latter invaded Scotland, and defeated the Scots king at Dollar and Inverdoret, at which last battle Constantine was killed.

Constantine (*d.* 952), son of Aedh, reigned over the kingdom of Alban, 900–43. He was a man of vigour and an experienced

warrior. In 904 he cut to pieces in Strathearn an invading body of Danes, under Ivar. Soon afterwards at an ecclesiastical council held at Scone he seems to have united the Pictish and the Scottish Churches under the Bishop of St. Andrews, thus apparently ending the supremacy of Dunkeld, which had succeeded that of Iona. In 908 he procured the election of his brother Donald to the throne of Strathclyde, and in 918 joined the Northumbrians against the Norsemen, whose advance was checked by the allied armies at the battle of Corbridge-on-Tyne. Under the year 924 the "Anglo-Saxon Chronicle" tells us that amongst other nations the Scots chose Edward the Elder for father and lord. But these peaceful relations cannot have lasted very long, for in 933–4 we find Edward's successor, Athelstan, invading Scotland, and penetrating as far as Dunotter, and ravaging the coasts of Caithness with his fleet. Constantine, in retaliation, joined with the Norsemen and the Britons of Strathclyde in an attempt to wrest Northumbria from the English king, but the united forces were defeated at Brunanburh (q.v.), 937. In 942 or 943 Constantine resigned his crown, and became a monk in the monastery of St. Andrews, where he died in 952.

"Anglo-Saxon Chronicle"; P. Hume Brown, "History of Scotland," i, 1911.

Constantius Chlorus, Cæsar of the West under Diocletian and Maximian (292–306), ruled over the provinces of Spain, Gaul, and Britain, and seems to have spent much of his time in this country. He defeated the pretender, Allectus (q.v.), in 296, and reunited Britain to the Empire. He died at York in the year 306. He was the father of Constantine by Helena, whom tradition describes as of British birth. Actually she seems to have been a Bithynian woman of humble origin.

Constitution, The Irish, of 1782. In 1779 the Irish Volunteers (q.v.), whom the carelessness of the government and the undefended state of Ireland had allowed to become formidable, had succeeded in frightening the government into repealing the trade restrictions of the Revolutionary Settlement period. The movement was continued, and, under the direction of Grattan, aimed at legislative independence. In 1781 Lord Carlisle, the new viceroy, was instructed to resist all efforts at legislative independence, but nevertheless, notice was given of bills for the repeal of Poynings' Act (q.v.) and of the Mutiny Act. The repeal of the first, placing the Irish parliament more or less in the position of the English parliament, could not be resisted, and was carried in December 1781. The repeal of the Mutiny Act, however, was not carried, though moved by Grattan. When parliament again met, in February 1782, the Volunteers assumed a very threatening attitude, and the patriot party, backed by the resolutions of Dungannon, and aroused by the mention of Ireland in some unimportant acts passed in England, proceeded, through Grattan, on February 22, 1782, to move a sort of declaration of independence, but they were beaten by 137 to 68. But, though the resolutions were lost, the principle on which they were based had been admitted by everyone. The parliament was now adjourned, and when it met again, in March, the North ministry was overthrown, and the Whigs were in office. On April 17 Grattan was content to move an amendment in the address demanding complete independence, and the House then adjourned to wait for an answer from England. On May 17 resolutions were passed in the English parliament conceding the repeal of Poynings' Act and of the statute 9 George I and a biennial Mutiny Bill. On May 27 the Irish parliament received the news, and immediately voted £100,000 and 20,000 men for the war. Flood indeed attempted to declaim against England's concessions as insufficient, but failed, and the House resolved "that the right of legislation of the Irish parliament in all cases, internal and external, had been already asserted by Ireland, and fully admitted by England." The constitution of 1782 was thus conceded. But it made corruption on a large scale necessary, set up an anomalous relationship between the two kingdoms, and hastened the Union as achieved in 1800.

Grattan, "Life of Grattan," 1839–46; M. Bodkin, "Grattan's Parliament," 1912.

Constitutions of Clarendon. [Clarendon.]

Consuls are persons empowered to take charge of the trading and commercial interests of British subjects in foreign towns. They were introduced in the sixteenth century, but it was not till the end of the seventeenth that it became customary to appoint them regularly. Their duties are to give advice and assistance to British traders; to settle their disputes where possible; to guard the legal rights of British subjects under foreign jurisdiction; and to report on the trade of the country in which they are resident. By the Consular Marriage Act (12 and 13 Vict., c. 68) (1849), consuls are empowered to celebrate marriages between British subjects resident in their district. They can take evidence on oath as to crimes committed on British ships, and are empowered to send home the offenders for trial; and they are also to exercise a general superintendence over British shipping, so as to see that the Merchant Shipping and other acts are not violated. In some cases British consuls are also diplomatic agents or *chargés d'affaires*, empowered to communicate with the foreign offices of the states in which they are stationed, and in this case they are called *Consuls-General*.

E. C. Stowell, "Le Consul," 1909.

Conventicle Act, The (1664), enacted that anyone over sixteen years of age present at an unlawful assembly or conventicle was to incur fine or imprisonment. A conventicle was defined as an assembly of more than four persons, besides the members of a family, met together for holding worship not according to the Church of England. In 1670 the act was amended, and the penalties greatly lessened, but a severe fine was imposed on anyone who lent his house for such meetings. The Conventicle Act was repealed by the Toleration Act of 1689.

Convention, The (1689), is the name given to the parliament which met after the flight of James II to settle the succession. It met on January 22, 1689, on the authorization of an interim assembly summoned by William in December. It placed the administration and the disposal of the revenue in the hands of William of Orange pending the settlement of the kingdom. The Commons then proceeded to declare the throne vacant, and to vote that it was inconsistent with the safety of the kingdom that it should be governed by a popish king (January 25 and 26). The Lords, after much discussion, negatived the resolution that the throne was vacant, Danby's party asserting that the crown had, on James's abdication, devolved on Mary. Disputes thereupon broke out between the two Houses. After a conference the Lords yielded, and a resolution was passed that the Prince and Princess of Orange should be declared King and Queen of England. On February 12 the Declaration of Rights was drawn up, and next day the crown was tendered to and accepted by William and Mary jointly. As soon as the new monarchy was established, the question was broached whether the Convention should be turned into a parliament. A bill declaring the Convention a parliament passed the Lords, and after a sharp debate was accepted by the Commons. It contained a clause requiring members of both Houses to take the oaths to the new king and queen. The military and financial settlement of the kingdom was carried out by the parliament thus constituted, which also in December 1689 converted the Declaration into statutory form as the Bill of Rights (q.v.).

Burnet, "History of his Own Time," ed. O. Airy, 2 vols., 1897–1900; G. M. Trevelyan, "England Under the Stuarts," edn. of 1923.

Convention Bill, The, passed by the Irish parliament in 1793, declared the assemblage of persons calling themselves representatives of the nation, under any pretence whatsoever, illegal. Fitzgibbon carried it, in spite of the violent opposition of Grattan and the Duke of Leinster.

Convention of Estates, or Convention Parliament, The (1689), was the name given to the Scottish parliament which assembled on March 14, 1689, after the Revolution. On April 4 the Estates passed a resolution declaring that King James VII, "being a professed papist, did assume the regal power and acted as king without even taking the oath required by law, and hath by the advice of evil and wicked councillors invaded the fundamental constitution of this kingdom, and altered it from a legal limited monarchy to an arbitrary despotic power, and hath exercised the same to the subversion of the Protestant religion, and the violation of the laws and liberties of the nation, inverting all the ends of government, whereby he hath forfaulted the right to the crown, and the throne is become vacant." On April 11 the Estates adopted the Claim of Right, which set forth the fundamental liberties of the kingdom of Scotland, that no papist could be King of Scotland, that the Scottish Church was Presbyterian, and finally declared that William and Mary were King and Queen of Scotland. Two days later (April 13) a number of resolutions, called the Articles of Grievances, were voted. Under this head were condemned the committee of the lords of the articles, the maintenance of a standing army in time of peace, and the marriage of the king or queen to a papist. These set forth a number of acts done under the authority of bad laws which the Estates desired to have repealed. The convention exercised the executive authority in Scotland till the crown had been duly offered to and accepted by William III, when it became a parliament.

"Acts of the Parliament of Scotland," vol. ix; P. Hume Brown, "History of Scotland," 1911; R. S. Rait, "The Parliaments of Scotland," 1924.

Convention Parliament, The (1660), is the name given to the assembly which established the Restoration of Charles II. It assembled April 25, 1660, on the authorization of the reconstituted Long Parliament, which dissolved itself on March 10. It immediately accepted the Declaration of Breda (q.v.), and passed the famous resolution to the effect that "according to the ancient and fundamental laws of the kingdom the government is and ought to be by king, lords, and commons." Charles was formally proclaimed on May 8 and entered London twenty-one days later. After his return the discussions of the convention turned chiefly upon the questions of the amnesty, the settlement of the claims of property which had changed hands, the settlement of the Church, the army, and the royal revenue. In regard to the first, an amnesty was voted for all but regicides and four others. In regard to the second, an act was passed restoring confiscated Crown and Church lands, but confirming in their possession those who had acquired Royalist lands by purchase during the interregnum. The army was disbanded, with the exception of a small bodyguard which Charles was allowed to retain. The Crown revenue was fixed at £1,200,000 a year, raised partly from tunnage and poundage, which was now granted to the king for life. After much discussion, the settlement of the Church was left open when the

parliament was dissolved on December 29, 1660. In addition, the Convention Parliament re-enacted several of the more useful measures of the Commonwealth period. Among these were the Navigation Act of 1651 and the act abolishing military tenures (1656). The king received as compensation for the feudal incidents of which he was thus deprived, an annual payment of £100,000 raised by an excise on beer.

G. M. Trevelyan, "England Under the Stuarts," edn. of 1923.

Convocation is the name given to the general assembly of the clergy of the kingdom. The organization of the Church gave its councils great importance in early times, and under the Norman kings this conciliar activity was still further developed. The Church had its synods of the nation, the province, and the diocese; they were attended by prelates, chapters, archdeacons, and the parochial clergy. In general history, these synods became important as clerical taxation was introduced. As this became customary, diocesan representatives were sent to the provincial convocations for the purpose of giving their assent to taxation. The first definite instance of representation in convocation is found under Archbishop Stephen Langton in 1225. In 1283 a rule was laid down that each bishop should summon to convocation two proctors of the clergy of his diocese and one proctor from each cathedral or collegiate church, who were to have full power of consenting to such measures as the community of the clergy might think fit. This was the constitution of the convocation of the province of Canterbury. That of the province of York, dating from 1279, contained two proctors from each archdeaconry. Besides these elected members were bishops, abbots, priors, deans, and archdeacons, as *ex-officio* members.

The jealousy between the two archbishops, and the difficulty in reconciling their claims, led, in the twelfth century, to quarrels. National Church councils became almost impossible, and ecclesiastical questions were discussed separately by the two convocations. Such matters as concerned ordinary discipline were decided for themselves. On other matters they presented petitions to the king, which were called *gravamina*.

When Edward I, in 1295, organized more completely the parliamentary representation of the several estates, he wished also to incorporate the clergy with the parliamentary system. For this purpose he summoned to parliament, by separate writs addressed to each bishop, the proctors of the chapters and the parochial clergy, together with bishops, deans, and archdeacons personally. Thus the convocations were summoned as spiritual councils of the archbishops, and the proctors were further summoned to parliament by the clause of the king's writ to the bishops, known, from its first word, as the "præmunientes" clause. In this way the two convocations were to be worked into the parliamentary system, while retaining their position as spiritual councils besides.

The clergy, however, showed great reluctance to enter into this arrangement. Probably they thought that they were sufficiently represented by the lords spiritual, and did not wish to be drawn into parliamentary disputes, in which their own privileges might suffer. The Crown in vain addressed letters to the archbishops urging them to compel the attendance of the clerical estate. After 1340 the Crown acquiesced in the rule that clerical taxes should be granted in convocation, and in the fifteenth century the attendance in parliament of clerical proctors died away. The duty of voting taxes led to the summons of convocation at the same time as parliament, but this was from motives of convenience, and did not affect the independence of convocation.

In the course of time the convocation became divided into two Houses. This arrangement, at first only occasional and for discussion of specific matters of business, became gradually permanent and a prolocutor was appointed to preside over the meetings of the Lower House. But the clergy never achieved any independence of the Upper House, beyond the right of a negative over all final decisions of that House, and the prolocutor was the deputy of the archbishop, not his equal.

In the weakness of the clergy before the royal power, convocation was used by Henry VIII to bring about the separation of the English Church from the Church of Rome. The clergy were informed that they had incurred the penalties of the Act of Præmunire by recognizing Wolsey's legatine authority, which had been recognized by the king himself. Iniquitous as was this penalty, the clergy were helpless against the king, and convocation, in 1530, assented to a large subsidy to appease the royal wrath. In the bill which granted it the royal supremacy was admitted, with the proviso "as far as Christ's law allows." The Act of Submission, 1533, practically abolished the legislative powers of convocation. It established that convocation "is, always has been, and ought to be, summoned by royal writ"; there was to be thenceforth no legislation without the king's licence, and a revision of the existing canon law was committed to a mixed commission of clergy and laity.

Henceforth, during the sixteenth century, the convocation of the province of Canterbury was recognized as expressing the opinions of the clergy, and worked with parliament in framing the formularies and laws of the Church. The Prayer Book and the Articles received the sanction of convocation before being submitted to parliament. In 1604 convocation drew up a new body of canons, which were sanctioned by the king, but were not ratified by parliament. These canons remain as the basis of ecclesiastical

law for the clergy, but are not legally binding on clergy or laymen except where they incorporate previous laws.

After the Restoration convocation was summoned, in 1661, to revise the Prayer Book and remodel the canons. In this matter it did little; but this assembly is remarkable as being the last convocation which granted a clerical subsidy. During the Commonwealth the clergy had been taxed with the laity, and there seems to have been a general agreement that this method was more convenient. Accordingly, this clerical privilege was abolished by a private compact between Lord Chancellor Clarendon and Archbishop Sheldon. The important constitutional change was made without any parliamentary authority (1664). Convocation thenceforth ceased to grant taxes and to have any political importance. The clergy, being merged in the estate of the Commons, became electors for members of the Lower House.

In 1689 William III was desirous of extending the limits of the Church, and of introducing alterations which would allay the scruples of Dissenters. A commission was appointed to draw up a scheme which was to be submitted to convocation. Convocation sat in two Houses: the bishops in the Upper House, the other officials and proctors in the Lower. The struggle of parties took place over the election of a prolocutor, or president, of the Lower House, and those opposed to any change were in a considerable majority. After this the Lower House showed such decided difference of opinion from the Upper that nothing could be done, and convocation was soon prorogued. It was not summoned again for ten years (1700), when the differences between the Upper and Lower House were still more openly shown. [A long controversy raged between the two Houses in which the champions of the Lower House strove to maintain the independence of their House, arguing from a fanciful parallel between the two Houses of parliament and those of the convocation. Though beaten in the field of argument, the Lower clergy carried on a vigorous offensive against the bishops in the actual sessions of the convocation.] Finally, the Lower House refused to submit to the archbishop's prorogation, and adjourned by its own authority. The next convocation, in 1702, resumed the question of the archbishop's right of prorogation, and the conflict between the two Houses continued. At length, in 1717, the writings of Hoadly, Bishop of Bangor, excited great wrath amongst the clergy, and gave rise to what is known as the "Bangorian controversy." As it was clear that the Lower House of convocation would censure Hoadly, who was a favourite with the government, convocation was prorogued by royal writ, and was not again summoned for business till 1852. It is true that it met formally till 1741, when the Lower House agreed to admit the president's right of prorogation, but it refused to receive a communication from the Upper House. Being judged incorrigible, it was not again called together till its revival in 1852, a revival due to the increased interest in ecclesiastical affairs.

The convocations of the two provinces now meet with the sessions of parliament. They are summoned by a writ from the Crown to the archbishops. In the Upper House of each convocation sit the archbishop and bishops; in the Lower House, the deans, archdeacons, with proctors elected to represent the cathedral chapters and the beneficed clergy.

[M. C.] [N. S.]

[In December 1919, by the passing of the Church of England Assembly (Powers) Act, the members of the two Houses of convocation of both provinces were incorporated in the constitution of the national assembly. In this assembly were to sit an Upper House composed of archbishops and diocesan bishops of both provinces, and a Lower House of Clergy, identical in personnel with the Lower Houses of the convocations of Canterbury and York, together with a House of Laity. The setting up of an assembly thus constituted, with power to prepare measures for the consideration of parliament, has inevitably affected the prestige of the convocations. None the less the convocations retain their authority as the provincial synods of the Church, whilst the national assembly exists to facilitate the dispatch of business between the Church and the parliament and would need reorganization if the Church were disestablished. In the procedure relating to the revision of the Prayer Book great care has been exercised to safeguard the rights of convocation. The proposals of the House of Bishops were presented to a joint synod of the convocation of both provinces sitting together, and the Lower Houses of Canterbury and York then separated for detailed consideration of and representation concerning the proposals laid before them. After the Lower Houses had presented their several representations, the bishops formulated their final proposals, and laid them before the Lower Houses of both provinces sitting together. The two convocations then voted on the question of placing the proposals before the national assembly. An affirmative vote was given, and the revised Prayer Book was duly submitted to the assembly. After being accepted, the Book was laid before parliament. Had it received the sanction of both Houses, it would have been again brought before the convocations for final synodical approval before being presented to the King. [Prayer Book.]

Bp. Gibson, "Synodus Anglicana," and "Codex Juris Ecclesiastici Anglicani"; Wilkins, "Concilia"; Cardwell, "Synodalia"; Hody, "History of Councils and Convocation"; Lathbury, "History of Convocation."

[N. S.]

Conway, Henry Seymour (1721–95), was the second son of the 1st Lord Conway. After serving in the army, in 1741 he was returned to parliament for Higham Ferrers.

In 1757 he was appointed second in command of the Rochefort expedition, under Sir John Mordaunt. In 1761 he commanded the British troops in Germany, in the absence of the Marquis of Granby. At the end of George II's reign, Conway had been appointed groom of the bedchamber, and he was continued in that office by the new king, until his independent conduct and his opposition to the ministry on the question of general warrants cost him alike this post and all his military commands. On Rockingham's accession to power, Conway was appointed joint secretary of state with the Duke of Grafton, and leader of the House of Commons; and, unfortunately for himself, was persuaded by "his evil genius," Horace Walpole, to hold his ground, until he could no longer retreat with credit in 1768. During the later years of that period the policy of the cabinet towards the American colonies had been directly opposed to Conway's views. On the king's demand for Wilkes's exclusion from parliament, he "confessed that he had not the courage to face the consequences of a step which would make every second Englishman a rebel at heart, and convert London into a hostile capital." He accordingly resigned the seals, but acted as an unpaid member of the cabinet until the return of Lord Chatham and the resignation of Lord Camden, when he refused any longer "to provide respectability for the whole administration." When the Marquis of Granby was dismissed from the command of the army his place was offered to Conway, and declined. In 1772 he was appointed governor of Jersey. Ten years later he became commander-in-chief of all the forces. In the same year he brought forward a motion, praying that his majesty would terminate the war with the colonists. This was lost by only one vote; and when he brought forward the same motion a few months later he carried it against Lord North by a majority of nineteen. In the following year he retired into private life.

Trevelyan, "Early Years of C. J. Fox," 1908; Walpole, "Memoirs of George III," 1845; "Chatham Correspondence."

Conyers, Sir John (*fl.* 1469). In 1469 the north of England was the scene of a series of risings. An insurrection took place in Yorkshire, apparently in the Lancastrian interest, led by Robert Hilyard, called Robin of Holderness. This rebellion was suppressed by Lord Montagu, and Hilyard was slain at York. In the meantime, Sir John Conyers, taking advantage of the discontent existing among the commons of the north, had adopted the name of Robin of Redesdale, and raised a force, estimated at 60,000 men. They published a manifesto charging the king with misgovernment, and demanding reform. This revolt was probably instigated by Warwick; it was certainly approved, supported, and made use of by Clarence and the Nevilles. The king's forces were defeated at Edgecott, near Banbury, the king's adherents, such as William Herbert, Earl of Pembroke, Humphry Stafford, Lord Rivers, and others, seized and beheaded, and the king himself became the prisoner of the Archbishop of York, and was obliged to issue a general pardon.

Cook, Captain James (1728–79), the famous navigator, first gained notoriety in Canada (where he did good service at the siege of Quebec, 1759), and subsequently surveyed the coast of Newfoundland. In 1768, being sent to the Pacific for the purpose of observing the transit of Venus, he discovered New Zealand and New South Wales (April 1770); and four years later made a second voyage of discovery, in which he again visited New Zealand. His conduct to the natives at first was such as to excite their hatred, but in his subsequent voyages he invariably followed a conciliatory policy. On Cook's third voyage, undertaken with the view of discovering a north-west passage to India (July 1776), he visited the Sandwich Islands, and pushed his explorations to the western coast of America. He was murdered as he was returning from this voyage by the natives of Hawaii, in Karakakoa Bay. Captain Cook's ability as a surveyor and explorer is the more noteworthy from the fact that he began life as a common sailor, and was entirely without education.

Biography by W. Besant, 1904.

Cook Islands. [New Zealand, Dominion of.]

Cookę, Sir Anthony (1504–76), a man of great learning, was selected as preceptor to Edward VI when Prince of Wales. In 1553 he was committed to the Tower on suspicion of being concerned in the plot to put Lady Jane Grey on the throne. He was restored to favour, however, on the accession of Elizabeth.

Cooke, William, in 1552 was made a judge of the Common Pleas. He is said to have been one of the witnesses to the will of Edward VI, altering the succession in favour of Lady Jane Grey; but there is some doubt as to whether he actually signed the document. He died in 1553.

Coomassie. [Kumasi.]

Cooper, Anthony Ashley, 1st Earl of Shaftesbury (1621–83), was the son of John Cooper and Anne, daughter of Sir Anthony Ashley. He was educated at Oxford, and in 1640 entered parliament. At first he espoused the cause of the king, and on the outbreak of the Civil War he was placed in command of Weymouth, but being superseded in this office he went over to the Parliament, by whom he was placed in command of the forces in Dorset. He sat in the Barebones' and the first Protectorate parliaments, but subsequently had some quarrel with Cromwell, and was excluded from

the parliament of 1656. He was a member of Richard Cromwell's parliament, and on the restoration of the Long Parliament he was made one of the council of state. He was one of the deputation sent over to The Hague to invite Charles II to return, and was elected to the Convention Parliament. In 1661 he was made chancellor of the exchequer and created Lord Ashley. In 1667 the Cabal ministry, of which he was a prominent member, was formed, and in 1672 he was made Earl of Shaftesbury and lord chancellor. All the wrong-doings of the Cabal ministry have been attributed to him, but it is now clearly proved that he had no share in advising the closing of the exchequer, while in foreign policy his wish seems to have been to preserve the Triple Alliance. The last lay lord chancellor, as a judge, he atoned for lack of knowledge of law by great impartiality and acumen. The passing of the Test Act occasioned the downfall of the Cabal administration in 1673, and Shaftesbury at once joined the opposition and commenced intrigues with Monmouth. In 1677 he brought himself into collision with the Crown on the question of the prorogation of parliament. He was in consequence sent to the Tower, and remained there for twelve months. The year 1678 is memorable for the pretended Popish Plot, of which Shaftesbury has been accused of being the inventor; and whether this be so or no, he was certainly one of the chief supporters of the violent attack upon the Catholics, and especially upon the Duke of York. In 1679 he was made president of the council, devised by Temple for carrying on the government, but only held office for six months, his strong support of the Exclusion Bill rendering him objectionable to the king. It was during this brief tenure of office that he got the Habeas Corpus Act (q.v.) passed, which was generally known at the time as Lord Shaftesbury's Act. In 1680 he made an attempt to impeach the Duke of York as a popish recusant, but he was foiled by the judges suddenly dismissing the grand jury. In 1681 he attended the Oxford Parliament with a large body of followers, many of whom were armed; and this violence, together with the palpable lies disseminated by Oates and other informers, did much to destroy his influence, and Charles committed him to the Tower. He was indicted for high treason, but the grand jury ignored the bill, and he was released. He now plotted with Sydney, Russell, and others to effect a change of government; but the conspiracy being discovered, he fled to Holland in November 1682, where he died two months later. Shaftesbury is the Achitophel of Dryden's satire, where he is thus described—

> "For close designs and crooked counsels fit,
> Sagacious, bold, and turbulent of wit;
> Restless, unfixed in principles and place,
> In power displeased, impatient of disgrace."

Macaulay practically accepts Dryden's character, but Ranke considers that Shaftesbury logically followed the principle of toleration all through his life.

Christie, "Life of Shaftesbury," 1871; biography by H. D. Traill, 1885. [F. S. P.]

Cooper, Antony Ashley, 7th Earl of Shaftesbury (1803–85), was a direct descendant of the 1st earl. He entered parliament in 1826, and devoted his life to the amelioration of the condition of the lower classes, and several times carried through bills for their relief. [Factory Legislation.]

Biographies by F. Hodder, 1886; D. M. Williams, 1925; J. L. and B. Hammond, 1923.

Co-operation. The aim of co-operation may be said to be to enable workers to work "not in the interest of, nor in order to enrich, one individual, or a few, but in the interest of the general body of those who are concerned, both as workers and as consumers of the ordinary necessaries of life" (Acland and Jones). The societies that have as yet been formed with this view are of three kinds. (1) *The Distributive Societies, or Retail Stores.* They sell goods for ready money only, and at the ordinary market prices. The profits at the end of every quarter are divided amongst the members according to the amount of their *purchases.* (2) *The Wholesale Societies*—one in England (founded in 1864), and one in Scotland (founded in 1868). They supply the retail stores with goods. Their managing committees are elected by the stores. (3) *Manufacturing or Productive Societies* and *Federal Corn Mills.* These societies, with some exceptions, are combined in a Co-operative Union, founded in 1869. It is the object of this union to abolish false dealing in any shape or form, and "to conciliate the conflicting interests of the capitalist, the worker, and the purchaser." The union holds an Annual National Congress, at which matters that concern co-operation are discussed—such as the best method of voting in societies, the check system, education, store management, surplus capital, co-operative journalism, etc.

"Co-operation," it has been said, "considers profit to belong to the public, and not to any one section of it, whether they are employed in selling goods over the counter, keeping the accounts, buying the goods, or making them." The co-operative movement is thus an effort on the part of labour to emancipate itself from the bondage of capital. This effort is seen assuming organic shape in the early part of last century, when several co-operative stores were founded in England and Scotland. These, however, on a close inspection, can in no way be distinguished from joint stock companies, for the profits were divided according to the capital invested. Of such societies there were by 1830 upwards of 200 in existence, besides co-operative mills. In 1844 the Rochdale Pioneers introduced its distinctive feature into the co-operative movement, and divided profits on the amount

of *purchases*. The example set by this society, together with the beneficial legislation—such as the repeal of the Corn Laws, the Public Libraries Act, and the abolition of the Newspaper Duty—of the next dozen years, gave a new impetus to co-operation, and by 1862 we find 450 societies in existence, with a membership of 90,000, a capital of £450,000, annual sales £2,350,000, and profits £166,000. Two years afterwards the Co-operative Wholesale Society had sprung into existence, and became the mainstay of the whole system. In 1869 the National Co-operative Congresses began. It was at the first of these congresses that the Co-operative Union was formed, and its aim of reconciling the interests of the capitalist, the workers, and the purchaser, "through an equitable division among them of the fund, commonly known as profit, was soon after formulated."

[Great advances and many changes have occurred in the co-operative movement in the last quarter of a century. In the United Kingdom consumers' co-operation, as opposed to profit-sharing by producers, seems to have won the day. In 1923 the total membership of 1,314 retail distributing societies was 4,569,256. The sales reached a total of £165,000,000. The Co-operative Wholesale Society (springing from foundations laid in 1863), which is now one of the largest trading and manufacturing concerns in the world, is the biggest miller in the country, and in addition produces clothing, footwear, textiles, furniture, and a large number of domestic articles. To establish its position it has ventured to push its activities into the field of raw materials, and now owns thousands of acres of corn-land, tea-plantations, a cattle-market, and palm-kernel depots in West Africa. In 1923 it had 1,192 member societies and its wholesale distributive trade amounted to £66,000,000. The Co-operative Wholesale Society's Bank, which does business not only with the societies themselves, but also with trade unions and friendly societies, is run in the interests of its customers, who receive profits in the form of dividends on their balances. It has been compelled to proceed on conservative lines, and seems to have introduced no new principles. Producers' co-operation has had a less remarkable history. It has been very successful in the boot trade and in other industries where conditions have been exceptionally favourable. Large-scale organization seems to be difficult of achievement. Gild Socialists, who have taken the lessons to heart, have advocated producers' control of industry on a more complex basis, but so far little experimentation has been possible. An attempt to organize a producers' building organization on the Gild Socialist model in Birmingham failed to succeed through lack of working capital. Agricultural co-operation has made great advances in Ireland on the models provided by successful experiment in Denmark. This has largely been the result of the educational work undertaken by the Agricultural Organization Society (founded in 1894). Co-operative creameries manufacture butter and cheese from milk and cream supplied by their members, and market these and other products for them. Farmers' societies are organized for the purchase of agricultural requirements at wholesale prices. Farmers' co-operative societies in England have attempted the marketing of dairy products, but with little success, the wholesale trade being at present firmly controlled by combinations of retail suppliers.]

Holyoake, "History of Co-operation"; Fay, "Life and Labour in the Nineteenth Century"; "Co-operation at Home and Abroad"; Wolff, "Co-operation in Agriculture"; Woolf, "Co-operation and the Future of Industry"; Cole, "Robert Owen." [W. B. R.; A. V. J.]

Coorg. A province of India on the Malabar coast, between Mysore and the sea. At the close of the eighteenth century the Raja of Coorg was practically an independent prince. He had been imprisoned by Tippoo on the annexation of his country, but had contrived to escape, and to wage a successful guerrilla warfare in the hills of his own country. The assistance which he rendered to Lord Cornwallis in the second Mysore War procured the recognition of the freedom of his country at the Peace of Seringapatam. He died in 1809, and was succeeded by his brother, who bequeathed the crown to his son, in 1820. This prince ruled so badly and with such ferocity and cruelty, while exhibiting great hostility to the English, that when, in 1832, his sister and her husband fled for their lives, and revealed his barbarities to the British resident at Mysore, the latter, after in vain remonstrating with the raja, proclaimed him a public enemy. In 1834, after a gallant resistance, Coorg was subdued and annexed to the Madras presidency. It is now one of the most prosperous of the Indian coffee-growing provinces.

Coote, Sir Eyre (1726–83), first saw service against the Jacobite insurgents in 1745. On the outbreak of the Seven Years' War, the hostilities, which had died out after the recall of Dupleix, were renewed in the Carnatic. General Count Lally was sent to India with a powerful fleet and army. At first he was successful: he captured Fort St. David, besieged Madras, and retook Arcot in 1758. The arrival of Admiral Pocock and the British fleet prevented an assault on Madras, and the next year Colonel Coote took the command. He recaptured Wandewash, and compelled Lally to fight a battle in the neighbourhood of the town, in which the French were completely routed. Coote, in 1760, gradually deprived Lally of all his conquests, and finally blockaded and captured Pondicherry, which was razed to the ground. In 1769 he was made commander-in-chief of the company's army, and the following year returned to England. The disasters of the British in 1780,

during Warren Hastings's Mahratta War, rendered it necessary to send out General (now Sir) Eyre Coote, to take the command in Bengal. The news of Hyder Ali's invasion of the Carnatic induced Hastings to send Coote to Madras. In January 1781 he began his advance. Hyder had captured Arcot, and was besieging five other forts. Coote pushed on to Cuddalore and Porto Novo. Hyder resolved to risk an engagement, and took up a strong position, which he began to fortify. A long and arduous engagement ensued near Porto Novo (July 1, 1781), which lasted six hours, and at the end the British were completely victorious, with the loss of only 300 men, while Hyder, who had lost 10,000 men, was compelled to raise the siege of Trichinopoly. Seven weeks later Hyder was again completely routed at Parambakam, August 27, 1781. Another victory, on September 27, allowed Coote to retire unmolested into winter quarters. In 1782 the arrival of the French fleet under Suffrein brought Hyder again into the field, and Coote in vain endeavoured to bring on a general action. The French were victorious everywhere, and Hyder ravaged the Carnatic to the very gates of Madras. In October Sir Eyre Coote's shattered constitution obliged him to return to Bengal, and surrender his command to General Stuart. In 1783, April 26, two days after his return to Madras, once more to undertake the conduct of the Mysore War, the veteran died.

Biography by H. C. Wylly, 1922.

Copenhagen, The Battle of, or Battle of the Baltic (April 2, 1801), resulted in the breaking up of the northern coalition against Great Britain, which had been one of Napoleon's most cherished schemes. After safely passing Kronberg Castle, Nelson persuaded Parker to commence the attack without delay. Two days were spent by Nelson in sounding the King's Channel, which lies between Copenhagen and a large shoal, and is only three-quarters of a mile broad. Along the land side of this channel the Danes had ranged nineteen ships and floating batteries. Everything being in readiness, Nelson made the signal for action early in the morning of April 2. The pilots entirely lost their presence of mind, and the *Agamemnon*, the second ship, went aground, as did the *Bellona* and the *Russell*. Nelson, in the *Elephant*, came next, and profiting by their example, took a new course, and so guided the rest of the fleet. The action began at ten o'clock. Riou, with the frigates, at once attacked the Crown Batteries, and gallantly maintained the unequal contest until he was killed. The battle raged for three hours without any apparent advantage being gained, and Sir Hyde Parker made the signal for recall. Nelson, affecting not to see it, continued the action, and about two o'clock the greater part of the Danish fire ceased. It was impossible, however, to take possession of the ships that struck, because they were protected by the batteries on shore. Nelson, wishing to save further bloodshed, sent ashore a flag of truce, saying that he must be allowed to take possession of the prizes, if only for the sake of the wounded men on board of them; and during the next day, Good Friday, the work still went on. The following days were spent by Nelson in maturing the negotiations, and on April 9 he succeeded in concluding an armistice for fourteen weeks, his object being to gain time to attack the Russians. The opportune death of the Tsar Paul rendered any active hostility with that country unnecessary, and the armistice resulted in a treaty between Great Britain and the northern powers.

"Nelson Dispatches," 1845–6; Mahon, "Life of Nelson," 1897, and "Influence of Sea Power on the French Revolution and Empire," 1892.

Copenhagen, Bombardment of (September 2, 1807). The British government had learnt in the summer of 1807 of the existence of certain secret articles in the Treaty of Tilsit (of July 7, 1807), between the Tsar and the Emperor Napoleon, by which the Danes and the other Baltic powers were to be induced or compelled to lend their fleet to the French for service against Britain. The danger appeared so imminent that the government determined to seize the Danish fleet, though Great Britain and Denmark were nominally at peace. Accordingly, twenty-seven ships of the line, with 20,000 men on board, under the command of Lord Cathcart and Admiral Gambier, sailed for the Baltic, passed the Sound, and anchored off the island of Zealand. The British commanders demanded that the Danish fleet should be given up to them to be held as a deposit till the end of the war. This the Danes refused. On August 16 the British troops disembarked and invested the town, and under the command of Sir Arther Wellesley fought a sharp engagement with the Danish at Kioje, whom they completely defeated. On September 2 the bombardment began, and was continued for three days, till eighteen hundred houses were destroyed, and the city was on fire in several places. On the 5th the Danes surrendered, and agreed to give up their fleet, which, accordingly, to the number of eighteen ships of the line, besides smaller vessels, was conveyed to England. The triumph, great as it was, was received with doubtful feelings in Great Britain, as the imminence of the danger to the country was hardly understood, and the affair looked like an arbitrary and dangerous violation of the rights of neutrals. After an animated debate in parliament both Houses supported the government by a majority of more than two to one.

"Parliamentary Debates," x, 224; "Annual Register," 1807.

Copenhagen Fields, Meeting in (April 21, 1834). On the conviction of the Dorset labourers for administering illegal oaths, the labour unionists summoned a meeting

in Copenhagen Fields, London, on April 21, with the object of overawing the ministry. A plan was also formed for the violent seizure of Lord Melbourne, the prime minister, and for other illegal acts. Due warning being, however, given to the government, preparations were made. Melbourne did not meet the deputation of the union; troops were held in readiness, the public offices defended with artillery, and 5,000 householders sworn in as special constables. Melbourne's under-secretary received the deputation, and informed them that it was illegal for a petition to be presented by 60,000 men. The crowd, seeing the preparations made to receive them, withdrew quietly, and no disturbance followed.

"Annual Register," 1834.

Copley, John Singleton, Baron Lyndhurst (1772–1863), was the son of the eminent painter, John Singleton Copley. He was born at Boston in America, then an English town, and educated in England, at first by a private tutor, and afterwards at Trinity College, Cambridge. He was called to the bar at Lincoln's Inn, 1804; was made serjeant-at-law, 1813; and first became prominent from the ability he displayed as one of the counsel who defended Watson and Thistlewood on the charge of high treason, 1817. He entered parliament as member for Yarmouth, Isle of Wight, 1818, having in the same year become king's serjeant and chief justice of Chester. He afterwards sat for Ashburton and the University of Cambridge. He was soon looked on as the most rising lawyer of the Tory party, and, a convenient opportunity presenting itself by the removal of Sir Robert Gifford to the attorney-generalship, Copley was appointed solicitor-general (1819) and knighted. While holding this office he was engaged for the Crown in two memorable cases: the trial at the Old Bailey of the Cato Street conspirators and their ringleader, his former client Thistlewood, and the proceedings against Queen Caroline in the House of Lords (1820). In both affairs Sir John Copley displayed remarkable eloquence, judgment, and forbearance. He became attorney-general in 1824, and master of the rolls in 1826. He at first energetically opposed the Catholic claims, but afterwards sided with those who felt the absolute necessity of Catholic emancipation being carried. He took office in the cabinet formed by Canning in 1827. He was appointed lord chancellor for the first time (April 20, 1827), and created Baron Lyndhurst on the 25th of the same month. When his party went out of office in 1830 he retired with them, but was appointed lord chief baron of the exchequer early in 1831. In the House of Lords he opposed the Reform Bill with all his energies and eloquence, and was the virtual leader of the Tory opposition. He declared the measure to be detrimental to the rights of the peoples, and inconsistent with the prerogatives of the Crown. He again took office as lord chancellor, under Sir Robert Peel, in 1834, and retired in 1835. In 1841 Sir Robert Peel again returned to power, and Lord Lyndhurst held the chancellorship for the third time. He finally resigned in 1846. He continued none the less to take an active part in the debates of the House of Lords.

Sir Theodore Martin, "Life of Lord Lyndhurst," 1883; J. B. Atlay, "Victorian Chancellors," vol. 1, 1906.

Copyhold is a species of customary tenure which had its origin in villenage. [The early copyholder received his name because the terms of his tenancy were set down in a copy (which he held) of the court roll of his manor. He was originally a tenant at the will of his lord, a position which might be regarded as singularly precarious, but he was protected by the qualification that he held "by copy of court roll *according to the custom of the manor*." Even so, where local custom was against him (e.g., where it was not customary for copyhold to be for life or lives, or by inheritance) the tenant had no redress on eviction. The historical evolution of copyhold tenure has for long been an obscure subject, but modern investigations have traced its emergence from tenure by villenage. During the period of manorial transformation in the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries, of which commutation of labour services for money rents is one of the most interesting features, and the Black Death and the Statutes of Labourers the important events, the semi-servile labouring tenant was becoming a copyholder. With the progress of commutation, dues became more clearly defined in numerical terms. Confirmation could be obtained by reference to the manorial rolls instead of to tradition, and, according as local custom varied, the copyholder (the conditions of whose tenure still bore signs of its servile origin) held his land for a term of years or of lives or by inheritance in his family. As villeins, his ancestors could make no appeal against unfair treatment to the Common Law courts. Similarly the copyholder had no protection against the lord of the manor, such as one whose tenure was free could claim. But the courts of Chancery, of Star Chamber, and of Requests acted in the sixteenth century in defence of the persecuted customary tenant, if, on petition to them, he could prove that the lord was acting in defiance of manorial custom. In those localities where inheritance was an established custom the sixteenth-century tenant found himself in a favourable position, as prices rose while rents could not be raised against him. But his less fortunate neighbours, whose leases might be only for a limited number of years, were subject to the prevailing policy of rack-renting by which the landlords sought to compensate themselves for their increased charges. Even copyhold by inheritance was discovered to be vulnerable where no customary limit was placed upon the fine which was levied on the occasion of the

tenant's death or on alienation. Contemporary literature is full of references to the indignation caused by attempts made by landlords to recoup themselves for the lost unearned increment when such opportunities presented themselves, and Mr. Tawney's inquiries have shown that in certain groups of manors there is "a steady upward movement" in the fines levied "during the third and fourth decades of the century of a little over 100 per cent., a rather less rapid rise between 1549 and 1559, and another rise of 100 per cent. between 1559 and 1569. . . . The advantage of a fixed rent is in fact neutralized by the movable fine."

In the sixteenth century the copyholders not only comprised the preponderating section of customary tenants in England, but they formed the principal body of landholders in the country. No doubt the constant pressure on the part of landlords on many estates to convert their tenants' copyhold into socage or leasehold had a considerable effect in reducing the area under copyhold, but at the beginning of the seventeenth century Coke could still say that the third part of England was held under this species of tenure. Common law made certain advances in the regulation of copyhold tenure, and certain generalizations came to be made; but whilst with the passage of time the copyholder made a practical advance in the direction of free ownership, the fact that the fee simple remained with the lord of the manor left the tenant subject to various technical and often vexatious restrictions, and as long ago as the end of the seventeenth century Roger North proposed the abolition of copyhold.] [Though the copyholder is independent of the will of the lord, yet the freehold being in the lord subjects the former to some disadvantages. For the lord has a right to the minerals beneath and the timber upon the soil, though he cannot, unless the custom of the manor allow, come on the land to exercise these rights without the copyholder's leave. There are species of tenure, such as customary freeholds, which resemble copyhold. All questions as to the freehold in any such tenures should be decided by ascertaining "whether the well-known rights of freeholders, such as to cut timber and dig mines, are vested in the lord or in the tenant." It is in the power of copyholders freely to alienate their lands. In the process of alienation the old character of the tenure becomes apparent, for it is effected by first of all surrendering the property to the lord, or, instead of him, to his steward, and is completed by the admission of the new tenant. Other incidents may pertain to it, according to the custom of the manor. The heriot on the death of the tenant remained as an incident of the tenure, and there has been one famous instance of the lord's claim to heriot in the shape of a race-horse worth £2,000 to £3,000.] By the Copyhold Acts (15 and 16 Vict., c. 51, s. 7, and 21 and 22 Vict., c. 94, s. 21), the tenant or the lord, by making application to the Copyhold Commissioners, could secure a compulsory enfranchisement of copyhold upon equitable terms. [The Law of Property Act, 1922, made provision for the conversion of all remaining copyhold land into freehold on New Year's Day, 1926. Certain privileges of common, etc., and obligations attaching to the customary tenure were to be preserved. The lord lost his right to escheat.] [Land Tenure; Common Lands, Open Fields, and Enclosure; Commutation.]

Elton, "On Copyholds"; J. Williams, "Law of Real Property"; A. Savine in *Quarterly Journal of Economics*, vol. xix, 1904; R. H. Tawney, "Agrarian Problem in the Sixteenth Century."

[W. H.; A. V. J.]

Copyright Acts. The first of these was 8 Anne, c. 19, which gave an author the copyright of his works for fourteen years, with extension, if he or his representative were living, for a further term of fourteen years. By the decision of the House of Lords in 1774 (in case of Donaldson *v.* Beckett), this statute was held to have done away with any common-law right which the author might have in his work beyond the prescribed term of years. By the act 54 Geo. III, c. 146, the author was granted copyright for the term of twenty-eight years, and for the residue of his life should he live beyond that period. By the act of 1842 (5 and 6 Vict., c. 45), the copyright of a book was to endure for the life of the author, and for seven years afterwards. If this term expired within forty-two years of the first publication, the copyright of the author or his assignees was to be extended to that term of years. Copies of all books were to be deposited in the library of the British Museum, and, if required, in the Bodleian Library, in the libraries of Cambridge University, Trinity College, Dublin, and of the Faculty of Advocates, Edinburgh. Dramatic, artistic, and musical copyright has been protected by 3 and 4 Will. IV, c. 15, 8 Geo. II, c. 13, 38 Geo. III, c. 71, and 5 and 6 Vict., c. 45. Under the Musical Copyright Act, 1906, the printing or selling of pirated music was made punishable. Copyright law now depends mainly on the Copyright Act of 1911 (1 and 2 Geo. V, c. 46), which defines its subject as "the sole right to produce or reproduce the work or any substantial part thereof in any form whatsoever." Copyright lasts for fifty years after the death of the author.

W. A. Copinger, "Law of Copyright," 1915; R. R. Bowker, "Copyright," 1912.

Corbeil, William of, Archbishop of Canterbury (1123–36), was an Augustinian canon, who at the instance of the Bishop of London became prior of St. Osyth's (Chich) in Essex. On the death of Archbishop Ralph in 1122, a contest arose between the regulars and seculars as to whether his successor should be a monk or a clerk. In the end the parties compromised by electing Prior William, who, as a canon regular, might be regarded as occupying an intermediate position. The quarrel between the sees of Canterbury and York

continued during his primacy, and to establish his supremacy William got himself appointed papal legate. His appointment was the precedent for the later custom of making the Archbishop of Canterbury the "legatus natus" of the Roman see. He was zealous in enforcing the celibacy of the clergy, and after Henry's death supported the claims of Stephen to the throne. He appears to have been a weak and somewhat ineffective man, in whose character even his panegyrists could find little to commend.

Cork was built in the sixth century, and was in ancient times the principality of the McCarthys. In 1172 it received a garrison from Henry II, who also, in 1185, granted a charter to the town. In 1492 the citizens were conspicuous as supporters of Perkin Warbeck (q.v.). Later it was taken by Cromwell (1649) and Marlborough (1690). In 1849 one of the Queen's Colleges was established in the city.

M. F. Cusack, "History of Cork," 1875.

Cork, Richard Boyle, 1st Earl of (1566–1643). [Boyle.]

Corn Laws is the name generally given to the various acts of parliament regulating the exportation and importation of grain, and especially wheat. They have been passed with two objects, which have prevailed to a different extent at different times: to secure a plentiful supply of cheap corn at home, and to keep up the price of corn produced in England. There have also been laws to regulate the traffic in corn by the corn dealers, and to prevent the practices called *engrossing*, *forestalling*, and *regrating*.

[In the Middle Ages "the idea that British corn might be cheapened by bringing the granaries of Europe into competition with home supplies had either not suggested itself, or been rejected as impracticable." There was, in fact, no restriction on imports; and it was in the interests of the consumer, too, that export of corn was prohibited except under royal licence, although consideration of revenue may not have been without weight. During the fifteenth century it was lawful to export corn without licence when the prices were below a certain figure, and in 1463 importation of wheat was prohibited when the price did not exceed 6s. 8d. per quarter; other grain imports were regulated at proportionate rates. This was the beginning of a policy of moderate protection for producers which was employed side by side with a policy of consumer's protection until the Restoration, when the agricultural interest began to exert a stronger influence on legislation. The corn-law policy of the Tudors is difficult to follow by strict attention to statutory enactments. On the whole it may be said that the government was anxious to export corn, but that it took care that the statutory price, below which such exportation should be allowed, should be low enough to necessitate the application for a licence and the payment of a fee for exemption. The statutory limitations when compared with current prices suggest the conclusion that a great deal of the Tudor corn trade was undertaken with licensed exemption. Corn importation on a small scale proceeded with fair regularity, unhampered by restriction, for the rise in prices brought the average above the minimum established by the act of 1463 (repealed in 1624). From 1660 the national corn law policy became much more definite. Acts of 1660 and 1663 minutely regulated both export and import of wheat, rye, oats, barley, malt, peas, and beans. Under the second of these acts wheat might be sent abroad when the price was below 48s. It might also be imported, but a duty of 2s. per quarter was charged when the price was below 48s. An act of 1670 "for the Improvement of Tillage" added considerably to the import duties, when the price did not exceed 53s. 4d.]

An entirely new system was adopted on the accession of William III. In the supposed interests of agriculture and of the landowners, the exportation of corn was not only permitted, but encouraged by bounties. This legislation [which followed a tentative experiment on similar lines already tried in 1673] did not have the effect which was expected, and the price of corn continued to be very low. When, after the Peace of Paris, in 1763, the commerce and manufactures of the kingdom largely increased, and when the increase was coincident with a growth of population, the export of corn diminished, and the restrictions on imports were felt as a hardship. This led to Burke's act of 1773, by which foreign wheat was allowed to be imported at a nominal duty of 6d. whenever the home price was at or above 48s. a quarter, and the bounty and the exportation were together to cease when the price was at or above 44s. Corn might be imported, at any price, duty free, in order to be again exported. This act led to a large importation of corn, which did no injury to the agricultural interests, but only served to maintain the increasing manufacturing population. At this time, also, large quantities of waste land were taken into cultivation, without any fall of agricultural prices. In 1791, under the pressure of the landed interest, the law of 1773 was repealed, and there was substituted for it an arrangement by which a limit of 54s. for importation, at 6d. a quarter, was substituted for 46s.; between 54s. and 50s. there was a middle duty of 2s. 6d. a quarter, and below 50s. a prohibitive duty. [A modified and slightly preferential rating was adopted for Ireland and the colonies.] The bounty was continued as before, and exportation without bounty was allowed to 46s. [The effect of the Revolutionary Wars was to send up prices and produce a condition of scarcity which almost amounted at times to famine. At one moment

wheat reached the panic price of 155s. per quarter. The peculiar conditions of war compelled the government to suspend the operations of its corn-law policy, and for a time bounties were actually offered on imports. After the fall of Napoleon the laws were made frankly protective. In 1814 all restrictions on export disappeared; and by the act of 1815, although no duties were charged on incoming corn,] the limit of the price for importation was fixed at 80s. [for foreign wheat, 33s. for barley, and 22s. for oats]. It was hoped that this regulation would maintain the price of wheat at about the same standard; but still greater fluctuations followed. The effect of this legislation was to raise the price of corn very largely, and to force a wide extent of land into arable cultivation which was not suited for it. Another act was passed in 1822, intended to lessen the disastrous effects of the act of 1815; but it never came into operation. The attempt to regulate the price of corn by act of parliament was so disastrous that the council was authorized to issue orders to suspend the operation of the acts, and to permit the importation of foreign corn under circumstances of necessity. This fact, with others, gradually convinced agriculturists that the Corn Laws were based on a mistaken principle; and in 1827 Canning carried resolutions in the House of Commons pointing to a more liberal policy. A bill, founded on these resolutions, passed the Lower House; but, owing to the change of ministry and the opposition of the Duke of Wellington, the bill was given up. Charles Grant, in 1828, carried resolutions similar to those of Canning, and they eventually became law. The grievance of the Corn Laws was always found to vary with the prosperity of the seasons, and the bad seasons which followed each other from 1837 to 1842 gave rise to the agitation by which the Corn Laws were abolished altogether. In 1842 a measure was introduced by Sir Robert Peel which still maintained the vicious principle of a sliding-scale of duties, although the scale was less onerous than those which preceded it. This did not diminish the agitation for the repeal of the Corn Laws, and the argument of the repealers was strengthened by the fact that the alteration of the tariff in 1842 which allowed the importation of live cattle and fresh provisions, did not affect the price of these articles to the disastrous extent which had been anticipated by the agriculturists. In 1843 the principle of the Corn Laws was virtually abandoned, by allowing corn to be imported from Canada at a very small duty. It was now possible to import corn from America through Canada, and therefore there seemed to be no reason why direct importation from America should not be allowed. In his budget of 1845 Sir R. Peel abolished the duties on 430 articles out of 813 then taxed. This was a virtual abandonment of the principle of protection. In the same year the harvest was very bad, and the potato crop in Ireland failed entirely. It was then impossible to avoid the temporary suspension of the Corn Laws, and it was a question whether it was not better to abolish them altogether. The country was deluged with the free trade tracts of the Anti-Corn-Law League. Sir Robert Peel was convinced that protection was no longer tenable; but his cabinet would not follow him. Lord Stanley resigned, and the ministry broke up. Lord John Russell was unable to form a cabinet, and Peel was induced to take office again. It was known that he would meet parliament in 1846 pledged to support the cause of free trade. The agitation for the repeal of the Corn Laws had begun in Manchester towards the end of 1836. In a season of financial pressure, it appeared to some of the most influential manufacturers of that thriving town that the only remedy for the evil lay in free trade, and that by artificially keeping up the price of corn the manufacturing interests of the country were sacrificed to the supposed benefit of the agricultural interests. The year afterwards the Anti-Corn-Law League was formed. Among its most prominent members from the first were Cobden and Bright, who in a great measure sacrificed their worldly prosperity to the work of converting their countrymen to their principles. Large sums of money were collected for the purposes of the league. The Free Trade Hall was built in Manchester. In 1843 the Lords acknowledged that the league was a great fact; it was compared in debate to the wooden horse by which the Greeks were secretly brought into Troy. At the end of 1845 it was stronger than ever in men, money, and enthusiasm. When parliament assembled in 1846 the Queen's Speech and the address in reply to it gave indication of the coming change. Sir Robert Peel rose immediately afterwards, and avowed honestly the alteration in his opinion. He said that he had observed during the last three years (1) that wages do not vary with the price of food, and that with high prices we do not necessarily have high wages; (2) that employment, high wages, and abundance contribute directly to the diminution of crime; (3) that by the gradual removal of protection, industry had been promoted and morality improved. Disraeli took the opportunity of violently assailing the minister for his change of opinion. In February Peel announced a fixed duty on corn for three years, and after that its entire abolition. The free traders attempted to get rid of this delay; but they were beaten by a large majority, and the bill passed. There was a fear lest it might be rejected in the House of Lords, but the Duke of Wellington secured its passing. [From June 1846 to January 1849 the duties of imported wheat were very moderate. For the next twenty years a registration duty of 1s. only remained and then this too was abolished.] In 1902, owing to a heavy deficit on account of the South African War, a Registration Duty of 3d. per cwt. on imported corn was imposed, and of

5d. on imported flour, but the duty was abolished in the following year.

Sir R. Peel's "Memoirs and Speeches"; J. Morley, "Life of Cobden"; Nicholson, "History of the English Corn Laws"; S. Buxton, "Finance and Politics"; Gras, "Evolution of the English Corn Market"; A. Smith, "Wealth of Nations"; Trevelyan, "Life of John Bright"; Disraeli, "Life of Lord George Bentinck"; Ernle, "English Farming"; Fay, "Life and Labour in the Nineteenth Century," and in *Economic Journal*, Econ. Hist. Series, I.

[O. B.; A. V. J.]

Cornavii, or Cornubii, The, were an ancient British tribe, inhabiting, it has been conjectured, an area roughly corresponding to the modern counties of Warwick, Worcester, Stafford, Salop, and Chester. Rhŷs considered them to belong to the Brythonic, and not the Goidelic, stock. [Celts.]

Cornbury, Edward Hyde, Viscount (1661–1724). [Hyde.]

Cornelis, The Capture of (August 1811), was effected during the war of the French Revolution. Cornelis, in Java, was an entrenched camp between two rivers, one of which was not fordable, while the other was defended by extremely formidable redoubts and batteries. It was resolved to carry it by a *coup de main*, and Colonel Robert Gillespie was selected for that purpose. On August 26 his column reached the redoubt at dawn, and, feeling that delay would be dangerous, he did not wait for his rear division, but attacked at once, and carried the redoubt with the bayonet. Seizing the bridge, he attacked and captured a second redoubt, and with his full force vigorously assaulted the enemy's reserve, which was posted with powerful artillery in front of the barracks and lesser fort. They broke and fled, and the place fell into the hands of the British. [Auchmuty.]

W. F. Lord, "Lost Possessions of England," 1896.

Cornwallis, Charles, 1st Marquis (1738–1805), entered the army at an early age, and served under the Marquis of Granby in 1758. He entered parliament for Eye, and was appointed constable of the Tower in 1770. He served in the American War of Independence, and won much distinction at the battle of Brandywine and the siege of Charleston. He was appointed to the command of the British forces in South Carolina, and in 1780 won the victory of Camden over Gates, the following year defeating Greene at Guilford Court House. In 1781, blockaded at Yorktown by the American army and the French fleet, he was forced to surrender. A violent controversy took place on his return, between Cornwallis and Sir Henry Clinton, as to the party deserving of blame for the disaster. In 1786 he went to India as governor-general, and commander-in-chief of the Bengal army. His administration lasted from 1786 to 1793, and is remarkable for the Mysore War; the arrangements with Oudh, Arcot, and the Nizam; the negotiations with Sindhia and the Mahrattas; the Permanent Settlement; and a series of important judicial and revenue reforms. In 1790 Tippoo's attack on Travancore caused Lord Cornwallis to conclude the Triple Alliance with the Mahrattas and the Nizam, and the campaign began on the Malabar and Coromandel coasts. In 1791 Lord Cornwallis determined to take the command himself, and marched straight to Bangalore, which he captured March 21. Tippoo had hastened back to defend his capital. The Nizam's force and the Mahrattas were wasting their time in sieges in the north. On May 13, 1791, was fought the battle of Arikera, in which Tippoo was beaten. In March 1792 the Treaty of Seringapatam (q.v.) was signed, ending the war, and leaving Tippoo with reduced territory and prestige. As an administrator, Lord Cornwallis devoted himself to the correction of abuses. He increased the salaries of the public servants in order to give them the possibility of acquiring a competence by economy, and made war on all frauds and peculation. On his return to England he was employed in 1794 as a diplomatist in Flanders, and carried on fruitless negotiations with the emperor at Brussels. In 1795 he was appointed master-general of the ordnance. In 1798 he became lord-lieutenant of Ireland during the violence of the Irish rebellion. In 1801 he returned to England, and was selected as the British plenipotentiary to negotiate the Peace of Amiens. On July 29, 1805, he arrived in India as governor-general, pledged to reverse the policy of Lord Wellesley. His avowed policy was to end the war; to break up the system of subsidiary alliances; and to bribe the minor princes of Hindustan to give up their alliance with us by resigning to them *jagirs* out of the lands south and west of Delhi. In spite of the remonstrances of Lord Lake he proceeded up the Ganges with the intention of carrying this plan out, but his health failed rapidly. He resigned the government to the senior member of the council, Sir George Barlow, and died at Ghazipur, October 5, 1805.

Cornwallis, "Dispatches," 1859; W. S. Seton-Carr, "Cornwallis," 1890; Cornwallis Papers, ed. Sir G. W. Forrest, 2 vols., 1926.

Coromandel Coast. The popular name applied to the east coast of the Deccan. It is supposed to be a corruption of Cholamandalay, in the region of the ancient Chola dynasty. The Coromandel coast extends from Cape Calimere to the mouth of the Kistna, and is within the territory of the Madras presidency.

Coronation. This rite is of great antiquity. In England it seems to have been in general use, even before the union of the several kingdoms; and a coronation service of uncertain date, but as old at least as the eighth century, is still extant. The "Anglo-Saxon Chronicle" represents Offa's son, Egfirth, as having been "hallowed to king" in 785. In the same authority we find distinct records

of the consecration of Edgar, Ethelred II, Edward the Confessor, and Harold II, to the kingly office with the same rite. And the two essential parts of the ceremony, the placing of the crown on the king's head, and the anointing, had then been fully established; but to neither had any exceptional sacredness been yet assigned; at most they were but symbols of the divine approval of the choice the people had made. The ritual used at Ethelred II's coronation has survived, and contains both these and the form of oath taken by the king. By this he promised three things—to hold God's Church and the realm in peace, to forbid rapine and injustice, and to judge justly and mercifully. The place varied; though generally Kingston-on-Thames, in Edgar's case it was Bath, and in Edward's Winchester. Since the coronation of Harold, however, it has been the abbey church at Westminster.

With differences of detail the ceremonial has not materially changed since the Conquest. The form of asking the clergy and people present for their voices lasted till Henry VIII's time, but is now a mere presentation of the sovereign to the spectators. The chief variations have been in the oath. Till 1308 this pledged three things only—peace and reverence to God and Holy Church, justice to the people, and the removal of bad and upholding of good laws. But at Edward II's coronation it became more comprehensive and precise, and took the form of question and answer. Besides the three things above mentioned, the king promised to keep and defend "the laws and righteous customs which the community of the realm should have chosen." For centuries no vital alteration was made in the body of the oath, though liberties were taken in Tudor and Stuart days with its wording.

The existing form was settled at the Revolution of 1688. By it the sovereign undertakes (1) to govern "according to the statutes in parliament agreed on," (2) to cause "justice in mercy to be executed," and (3) to maintain "the Protestant reformed religion established by law." It follows the declaration against transubstantiation, deemed necessary to prove that the sovereign is not a Roman Catholic.

This ceremony has long lost its importance. Once it marked the beginning of the new reign. It afterwards came to be regarded as giving the king a sacred character, making him the Lord's anointed, against whose authority it was an impiety to raise one's hand. But it is now a mere pageant. [J. R.]

Coronel, The Battle of (November 1, 1914), was a naval engagement fought off Chile early in the Great War between five British vessels under Admiral Cradock and five German vessels under Admiral von Spee. The fight was primarily between the *Scharnhorst* and *Gneisenau* and the cruisers *Good Hope* and *Monmouth*. The loss of the latter vessels was avenged by Admiral Sturdee on December 8 at the battle of the Falkland Islands (q.v.).

J. Irving, "Coronel and the Falkland Islands," 1927.

Coroner, The, is first specifically mentioned in the articles of the eyre issued by Richard I in 1194, providing for the appointment in each county of three knights and one clerk to be "keepers of the pleas of the Crown"; but it is probable that the office was of much earlier origin. It was created as a check upon the powers of the sheriff and to safeguard the pecuniary interests of the Crown. The coroners, of whom there were usually four for each shire, were elected in the county court, and in the thirteenth century had to be resident within the county and of knightly status. They held office for life or during good behaviour. Their duties were originally wide. The Charter of 1215 expressly forbade them to hold the pleas of the Crown, but they exercised many functions in connexion with the administration of the criminal law. They received and entered appeals for felony, received the declarations of approvers, recorded outlawries, heard the confessions and abjurations of felons who had taken sanctuary, and were the principal agents in bringing criminals of all sorts to justice. If the sheriff were in default or were a party to a suit, the coroners executed the royal writs, and in the county court their activity was little inferior to his own. From their special obligation to safeguard the rights of the Crown arose their duty of holding inquests as to wrecks, royal fish, and treasure trove—to which the king was by his prerogative entitled; and as to unexplained deaths—which might bring the Crown revenue in the form of fines, deodands, or forfeitures. The juries empanelled for the purpose of these inquests consisted generally of representatives of four or more neighbouring townships, sometimes associated with representatives of the hundred. The coroners kept a roll of their transactions, which was surrendered to the justices at the opening of the eyre, and which enabled them to check the verdicts of the juries of the hundred and to discover defects in the local administration of justice. In modern times many of the former duties of the coroner have become obsolete. Since the Coroners Act of 1887, the chief functions of his court have been to hold inquests in cases of unexplained deaths, and of the concealment of treasure trove, and of these the former is by far the more important. Coroners are now appointed in the counties by the County Councils (Local Government Act, 1888, s. 5) and in the boroughs by the Borough Councils (Municipal Corporations Act, 1882, ss. 171–4).

Gross, "Select Coroners' Rolls" (Selden Society); "Office of Coroner," 1892; W. S. Holdsworth, "History of English Law," i, 1922.

Corporation Act, The (1661), was passed by the first parliament of Charles II with the intention of destroying the power of

the Dissenters in the towns. By this statute it was enacted that all officers of corporations should take the sacrament according to the rites of the Church of England, within twelve months of their election to office; and on their election should take the oaths of supremacy, allegiance, and non-resistance, and abjure the Solemn League and Covenant. The Corporation Act was repealed in 1828, though long before that date it had become a dead letter.

Corporations, or *bodies corporate*, formed for the continual maintenance and enjoyment of certain privileges, or the holding of certain property in perpetuity, are of two kinds:—(*a*) *Corporations sole*, which consist of one person, such as the king or a bishop, who in the eye of the law never die; and (*b*) *Corporations aggregate*, which consist of a number of persons so bound together as to be by law considered as one individual, and which by the constant introduction of fresh members have a continuous existence. Both sole and aggregate corporations are divided into ecclesiastical and lay. The former division comprises such corporations as a bishop, or the chaplain of a cathedral, and the latter being again sub-divided into (*a*) *civil corporations*, such as the universities of Oxford, Cambridge, and Durham; the municipal corporations, and private corporations of the nature of joint-stock companies; and (*b*) *eleemosynary corporations*, which are charged with the duty of administering the bounty of the founder, as in the case of the various colleges at the universities, and the hospitals.

W. S. Holdsworth, "History of English Law."

Corrichie, The Battle of (1562), was fought near Aberdeen between the forces of Mary, Queen of Scots, led by Moray, and some Highlanders, headed by the rebellious Earl of Huntly. Huntly was killed, and his son, Sir John Gordon, was captured and executed.

Corsned was a species of ordeal in which the accused had to swallow a large piece of bread or cheese. If this were performed freely and without hurt, the accused was pronounced innocent; but if it stuck in his throat, guilty. With the introduction of Christianity, the host was used for this purpose. [Ordeal.]

Corunna, The Battle of (January 16, 1809), between the British and French, was fought during the Peninsular War at the close of Sir John Moore's retreat from Madrid, pursued by Soult. After a march in which the severity of the elements and neglect of discipline were more disastrous to the troops than the pursuit of the French, Moore, on January 11, took up a position round the town of Corunna, and, having occupied the road to Santiago de Compostella with his best troops, awaited the arrival of the British transports from Vigo. On the 14th the ships anchored in the bay, and before daybreak on the 16th the cavalry (the ground being impracticable for cavalry operations), the sick and wounded, and all but nine pieces of artillery, had been embarked. Soult had 16,000 infantry and cavalry, including a strong force of artillery, while Moore had only 14,500 infantry. The battle was begun with a fierce attack by the French on the village of Elvina, which they carried, only, however, to be in turn driven out by General Baird's division. While the battle was still doubtful, Moore ordered up the reserve, under General Paget, to oppose a flank movement directed against the British right. This was most successfully effected; and almost simultaneously the whole of the British line began to gain ground, until at nightfall they had everywhere driven the French from their positions. During the following night a retreat was effected to the shore, and the embarkation of the troops was carried out with but little loss. The casualties on both sides were fairly equal—about 900 men.

Sir C. Oman, "Peninsular War," 1902–20; J. H. Anderson, "The Spanish Campaign of Sir John Moore," 1905.

Cosgrave, William Thomas (*b.* 1880), Irish politician, became a Sinn Fein member of the Dublin Corporation in 1913 and joined the Irish revolt of 1916 as an extremist, as a result of which activity he was imprisoned at Frongoch until July 1917. He became member for Kilkenny on his release, and was minister for local government in the first Irish Republican ministry. On the death of President Griffith in 1922 he became acting chairman of the provisional government under Michael Collins (q.v.). Ten days later he succeeded Collins as president, and represented Ireland at the Imperial Conferences of 1923 and 1926.

Coshery was an ancient Irish custom, by which the chief had the right of using the houses and taking the provisions of his tenantry for himself and following at his own discretion. The Norman barons, not unnaturally, adopted so advantageous a custom. After the final confiscation of Irish land by Cromwell, the descendants of the ancient chiefs long led a precarious existence by such means, and numerous statutes failed to put a stop to it.

O'Curry, "Ancient Irish Customs."

Cottenham, Charles Christopher Pepys, 1st Earl of (1781-1851). [Pepys.]

Cotter, James (1690–1719), the son of Sir James Cotter, a distinguished supporter of James II, was, in spite of the Irish Court of Chancery, brought up as a Catholic in England. In 1713 he headed an attack on the Protestant voters in Dublin. He was the idol of the Irish Jacobites; and his execution for rape in 1719 brought about a savage persecution of the Quakers, who had been instrumental in securing his punishment.

Cottington, Francis, Lord (1578–1652), of a Somersetshire family, was for many years one of the English diplomatic

agents at Madrid. He accompanied Prince Charles to Spain, took part in negotiating the marriage treaty, and lost the favour of his patron, Buckingham, by supporting it. In 1623 he was created a baronet, and in 1628 a privy councillor. In the following year he was appointed chancellor of the exchequer, and sent as ambassador to Spain, where he concluded a treaty which developed (January 2, 1631) into an agreement for the partition of Holland. On his return he was raised to the peerage, and became, in 1635, master of the Court of Wards. Clarendon describes him as Laud's chief opponent in the council. To avoid impeachment by the Long Parliament for his share in the fiscal oppressions of the previous ten years, he resigned both his offices. During the Civil War he sided with the king, and, in consequence, took refuge in France. In 1652 he was appointed, together with Clarendon, ambassador to Madrid, and died, in 1653, at Valladolid. During his first stay in Spain he turned Roman Catholic, reverted to Protestantism on his return to England, and became a Catholic again in 1652. Clarendon praises his self-control and power of dissimulation.

S. R. Gardiner, "History of England, 1603–42," edn. of 1900.

Cotton, Sir John Hinde (*d.* 1752), was one of the small band of Jacobite politicians who formed part of the opposition to Sir Robert Walpole's ministry in the reign of George II. In 1740, when the Jacobites were concocting a plot, we find him described as "doubtful of others, but answering clearly for himself"; and he arranged to remain in London as the channel of communication with James's friends. In 1742, after the fall of Walpole, his appointment to the admiralty board was pressed by the Duke of Argyll, but the king absolutely refused to raise him to that office. In 1744, however, in spite of the reluctance of George, he was taken into the administration. In 1745, the French minister, Cardinal Tencin, a friend of the Stuarts, demanded that as a pledge of his sincerity he should resign office, but this he declined to do. He was, however, soon afterwards dismissed, and continued to lead a small body of Jacobites in the Lower House.

Cotton, Sir Robert Bruce (1570–1631), was a distinguished antiquary and collector of manuscripts. He assisted Camden in his labours on the "Britannia." On the accession of James I he was knighted, and frequently consulted by the privy council on constitutional points. He was one of those who suggested to James I the idea of creating baronets, and was himself raised to this rank in 1611. Sir Robert wrote numerous antiquarian tracts and pamphlets. But his chief title to remembrance is due to the magnificent manuscript library he collected, which passed to his heir intact, and was acquired by the nation in 1706. After being partly destroyed by fire in 1731, it was placed in the British Museum in 1753.

Cotton, Stapleton, 1st Viscount Combermere (1773–1865), took part in the last Mysore War. He served with distinction through the Peninsular War, was commander of all the allied cavalry after 1810, and decided the fortune of the day at Salamanca by a grand cavalry charge. In 1814 he was created Baron Combermere. In 1817 he was made governor of Barbados. In 1825 he was appointed commander-in-chief in India, and accomplished the reduction of Bharatpur at the close of the Burmese War. He was created Viscount Combermere of Bharatpur, February 1827.

Cotton's "Correspondence," ed. Viscountess Combermere and W. W. Knollys, 2 vols., 1866.

Cotton, Sir Willoughby (1783–1860), was commander-in-chief in Jamaica during the slave rebellion of 1831–2. The insurrection was crushed owing to his promptness of action, whilst his leniency to the offenders was in marked contrast to the unwarrantable cruelty with which the negroes were usually treated. His clemency drew upon him the hatred of the planters.

W. J. Gardner, "History of Jamaica," edn. of 1909.

Cotton Famine, The, 1862. The outbreak of the American Civil War, which was followed by a total blockade of the Confederate coast, was productive of very disastrous results in England. The cotton supply, on the manufacture of which the greater part of the Lancashire operatives depended for a livelihood, failed, and in consequence the Lancashire millowners began to work short time, and finally to close the mills entirely. A certain amount of work was kept up and many large fortunes were made by running the blockade of the Confederate ports and bringing out cotton; but the general result was that two millions of people were to a great extent reduced to destitution. The Cotton District Relief Fund was inaugurated in July 1862 and nearly two millions were subscribed within a twelvemonth. By the Relief Act passed in August 1862, loans were granted to the guardians of the poor for the purpose of instituting relief works. The famine ended in the summer of 1865.

J. MacCarthy, "History of Our Own Times," 4 vols., 1882-97, and 1905.

Council of State was the name given to the assembly elected on February 14, 1649, immediately after Charles I's execution. It received a combination of military, diplomatic, police, and judicial powers that in the aggregate gave it a greater control over the state and a wider exercise of executive power than the kings had ever had. Appointed by the "Rump," the Council of State was dissolved by Cromwell after his *coup d'état* against the Parliament. A new Council of State was established in 1659, as the successor to the temporary "Committee of Safety" in the exercise of the executive power; but on the

second expulsion of the Rump by Lambert it gave way to the more famous "Committee of Safety," which acted as the mouthpiece of the army. The army scheme for the permanent government included a Council of State that never sat. Revived again when Monck restored the Rump, it naturally found no place when the Restoration brought back the old constitution.

C. H. Firth, "Cromwell," 1890.

Councils, Civil. (1) The National Council. (*a*) *In Anglo-Saxon Times. The Witenagemot.* In Anglo-Saxon England the king was advised by the witenagemot (council of the wise). Some attempt has been made to derive this gathering of magnates from an earlier assembly of the whole body of freemen; but of the existence of such a popular council (folk-moot) there is no reliable historical evidence. The witenagemot was consolidated in proportion as the kingdom was consolidated; and when the West-Saxon monarchs became kings of all the English they gathered together the "wise men" of the whole realm into one great council. For the details of the constitution, power, origin, and activity of the witenagemot the reader is referred to the article under that head. It is enough here to observe that it was an essentially aristocratic assembly, composed of the chief ecclesiastical and temporal magnates of the kingdom; and that its authority, which was theoretically great, depended in practice upon the strength of the king for the time being. It has been called "the parliament, senate, privy council, supreme court of justice, civil service, and cabinet in one," and historians have waxed eloquent over its possession and exercise of legislative, judicial, deliberative, taxative, and executive powers. Actually, however, the sphere of the central government in Anglo-Saxon England was so strictly circumscribed that the functions of the witan were far less important in fact than in appearance. Though sometimes described as a "national council" in the sense that it included the natural leaders of the people, the witan comprised no element of direct popular representation.

(*b*) *In Norman and Angevin Times. The Great Council.* The accession of William I produced no sudden revolution in the constitution of the national council. The Great Council of the Norman reigns was, at least in some important respects, a continuation of the witenagemot, whose powers and prerogatives it inherited. But feudal influences, the analogy of the council of Normandy, and the changed condition of the country, soon effected modifications both in theory and in practice. In the first place, the council was feudalized. True, the bishops and earls sat in it as they had sat before the Conquest, but they owed their presence now rather to their position as holders of great fiefs under the Crown than to their official status as magnates of the realm. Meanwhile the inherited powers and privileges of the assembly, though still theirs in theory, paled into insignificance with the rise of the Norman and Angevin despotisms, to which revolt in arms rather than opposition in council was the appropriate check. By the twelfth century the "Concilium magnum" had become a regularly organized feudal assembly. It is probable that the liability to attend was regarded in theory as incumbent upon all tenants-in-chief of the Crown. Actually, however, convenience dictated that only the greater royal vassals, or those whose presence was at any given moment desired by the king, should be summoned. Clause 14 of the Charter of 1215, which provides for the individual summons of the greater barons, and for the general summons through the sheriffs of the lesser, probably reflects the baronial ideal of a feudal assembly; but it is unlikely that the attendance of the latter class was more than nominal. While the council was thus becoming merely baronial in complexion, it was being superseded in many of its functions by the development of new and more efficient consultative bodies out of the administrative system which centred round the Curia Regis (q.v.). Its formal consent was still invariably given to the great legislative and executive measures of the Crown, and we even hear of resistance to the royal will—of which there is no record in Anglo-Saxon times; but even the small space left by Henry II for external checks could not be satisfactorily filled by a body out of relation with a people who rather reposed confidence in the Crown, and was representative mainly of the crushed baronial party which Henry had subdued. Yet the absence of a more adequate representation of the nation lent something of a national character even to this feudal council. Such an assembly gave us Magna Carta, and so well did the baronage fulfil their new part of national representation that throughout Henry III's reign an opposition at once popular and baronial found in it its appropriate mouthpiece. But the gradual growth of a directly representative parliament brought the old council into comparative disuse. Edward I's completion of the parliamentary system at once annihilated the political importance of feudalism and of the feudal Great Council. Superseded as a national assembly by parliament, and as a consultative and executive body by the Royal Council, the Great Council remained as a survival throughout the Middle Ages. Often it was hardly to be distinguished from a parliament, as, for example, the council which sanctioned so many of Edward I's laws. Often it was no more than an "afforced" assembly of the "Concilium ordinarium," strengthened for important business by the addition of spiritual and temporal magnates, and other "wise men," selected at discretion. Such an assembly was not uncommon in the fourteenth and early part of the fifteenth centuries (e.g., in 1379), and Richard II's evil councillors were accused of

inducing the king to summon councils composed of certain lords without the assent or presence of the "Lords of the Great Council." But these assemblies may largely be regarded as attempts to bridge over the distinction between the Royal Council and the council of the nation, and give to the former body that prestige which historical continuity and full baronial support could in a large measure afford. No such assembly was convoked in Tudor times, and Charles I's summons of a Great Council at York in 1640 was the last instance of its being called together.

(2) The Royal Council. Besides the Great Council, or the Common Council of the nation, there must have existed, as soon as organized government began, a smaller council of the royal ministers and confidants, by whose advice and co-operation the government was carried on. The small numbers generally attending the witenagemot before the Conquest, and the lack of definite centralized authority, make this assembly very hard to discern in Anglo-Saxon times: but with the reigns of the sons of William I, the Curia Regis (q.v.) comes into importance; and from this general court there gradually developed by a process of differentiation not only the courts of judicature, but also the organized Royal Council of the Middle Ages. The exact relation of the Curia Regis to the Great Council has been much disputed, but it is clear that they were not entirely separate organizations. The Royal Council was in a sense but a specialized form of the Great Council. The active despotism of the Norman and Angevin kings greatly stimulated the growth of the Royal Council: for when the king had so much on his hands he must have the help of clerks and ministers, who always tended to become his advisers. The existence of such a Royal Council is dimly foreshadowed by the act of Henry II in 1178, when that monarch reserved the decision of knotty judicial or financial cases to a small circle of "sapientes," or councillors. But under Henry II we have the merest reference to its action—none to its constitution or powers. The personal retinue of Richard I, the foreign councillors of John, may well have been organized in a similar body; but it is not until the minority of Henry III that the real history of the Royal Council begins. The regent, the legate, the great officers of state constituted that "supremum concilium," traces of whose activity are to be discerned in every department of government. In this body the hated foreign courtiers exercised their influence. Against it the Great Council of the realm fought with increasing success. Thrice oaths were imposed on this council and baronial nominees added to it; but it continued to maintain its existence through the crisis, and after acting as a practical Council of Regency during Edward I's absence in Palestine, received from that king definition and organization.

The special characteristic of the Royal Council was its permanence. It was always sitting, always occupied in the continuous business of the court. Its usual name was the "Concilium perpetuum," or "Concilium ordinarium," in opposition to the "Concilium commune," or "Concilium magnum," already discussed. Besides its constant sessions for executive business, it held terminal sittings to help the king in receiving petitions and hearing suits. Its functions were so wide as to be practically incapable of definition. Nothing was too great, nothing was too small, to escape its interference. It advised the king, executed his resolutions, shared in his judicial and appellate powers. The ordinary members of the council were—the chief ministers, the judges, some of the bishops and barons, and a few other royal confidants summoned by royal writ, and bound by a solemn oath of office. The power of the Royal Council was always growing; but it acquired a special prominence during the weak reign of Richard II; and it is from the history of the fifteenth century that we can first get a really clear and definite idea of the functions of a body whose whole previous history it is impossible to trace but obscurely. Under Richard II and the Lancastrians the Royal Council, the engine and mouthpiece of the prerogative, gradually begins to subserve constitutional ends. The strong and organized parties of the time are represented upon it. Parliament asserts control over it, and the recognition by the Lancastrian monarchs of the right of parliament to nominate its members is a remarkable anticipation of the cabinet government of modern times. In 1406 parliament protest their great regard for the "Lords of the continuous Council," in language almost anticipating a vote of confidence in a modern ministry. In turn caressed by king and parliament, the council acquired more and more authority. Under Henry VI it became a virtual Council of Regency, and its members practically held the royal authority in commission. This enhanced their authority, but broke their connexion with parliament. After 1437 the king resumed absolute power of nomination. Efforts to remedy this state of things led to no result: and under Edward IV and the Tudors, it assumed as the "Privy Council" the character of an "irresponsible committee of government," the agent of the prerogative, and the representative of the royal pleasure. It sent forth outshoots, such as its judicial committee, the Star Chamber; and many of the anomalous councils that in the sixteenth century withdrew half England from the cognizance of the common law were in close relation to it. The temporizing policy of a Henry VIII and an Elizabeth, which allowed some divergence of opinion amongst its supporters, kept up at least the semblance of government by discussion. Its elaborate organization into committees under Edward VI illustrates the width of its ramifications.

The Privy Council having attained the height

of its power, it will be convenient to summarize its functions. The great variety and extent of its activity has already been noticed. Its claim in 1427 "to have the execution of all the powers of the Crown during the king's minority needs only," says Stubbs, "to be slightly altered to make it applicable to their perpetual functions." The only limit to their usurpations was the common law; and this, while but partly confining their judicial activity, left the whole field of general politics open to their aggressions. They had a very large share in all executive business. Their power of passing *ordinances* (q.v.) gave them a practical share in legislation; and the confidence, indifference, or impotence of parliament allowed them taxative functions of the greatest importance. They lent money to the king on their own security, or used their influence over rich lords or merchants to negotiate loans. Sometimes they got direct authority from parliament to levy taxes, sometimes, especially during the sixteenth century, they did so of their own authority. Wherever no positive law checked them they pushed their way. Even in judicial matters, despite the common law and the jurisdiction of the Chancery, they were still, as in 1178, the advisers of the Crown on knotty points, and the arbiters of private disputes.

Rigorous under the Tudors, the powers of the council became oppressive under the Stuarts; but besides the ever-increasing parliamentary check, the tendency of the council to become unwieldy, by the inclusion of a very large number of nobles and officials, led to a habit of transacting great secrets of state in an unauthorized and informal cabal, or group of "cabin counsellors"; a system which was complained of early in the seventeenth century, and accepted unwillingly towards its end. The Cabal of 1667, though in profession a committee of the Privy Council for foreign affairs, was in some respects an anticipation of the modern cabinet. Sir William Temple's plan of reform in 1679 proved abortive, and the definite recognition of cabinet [CABINET] government by William III made the Privy Council again a constitutional check, that Conservatives desired to maintain in power as a safeguard against the new-fangled and illegal ministerial assembly. The Act of Settlement (q.v.) of 1701 contains several clauses which tried to effect the restoration of the Privy Council to its old constitutional position under the Plantagenets and Tudors; but they had little result. The council remained as it does to this day a body of great dignity and importance, into which all statesmen of position were formally admitted, and whose members were distinguished by the appellation of "right honourable." But the nature of its composition, and its unwieldy dimensions, prevented its being generally summoned as a whole for the transaction of general business. Councils in the presence of royalty are still frequently held, but they consist of a very few councillors, and transact formal business. The Privy Council office exercises the functions of a department of the executive. The president and vice-president of the council are ministers. An important function is still discharged by the Judicial Committee of the Privy Council, which acts as a court of appeal in ecclesiastical causes and for India and the colonies. But as a whole, and as a deliberative assembly, the privy council is practically obsolete.

(3) LOCAL COUNCILS. Besides the above, councils were appointed at various times in the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries to govern parts of the kingdom remote from the centre of authority, or imperfectly united to it. They were modelled generally on the Privy Council, both in constitution and functions, and often exercised a jurisdiction of certain oppressiveness and doubtful legality. Such were the *Council of Wales and the Marches*, established by Edward IV in 1478, at Ludlow, to govern the southern and border districts of Wales, which until then had uncontrolled enjoyment of Palatine privileges. This court, though losing its chief reason for existence when Henry VIII incorporated Wales with England, and, limited in its jurisdiction in 1640, was not abolished until the 5th of William and Mary. Similar was the *Council of the North*, finally established at York after the revolt of 1539, famous through Strafford's tenure of the presidency, and abolished with similar councils in the first session of the Long Parliament. The *Council of Calais* was of older foundation, and continued until the loss of that town under Queen Mary. The *Stannaries Court*, which extended its special function of governing the estate of the Duchy of Cornwall, and superintending the mines there, to general business, and had become one of the most oppressive engines of prerogative, was at the same time deprived of its capacity for aggression. The *Council of the Palatinates of Chester, Lancashire*, etc., were mere continuations of the old feudal courts of these franchises, continued after their incorporation with the Crown.

(4) COUNTY, DISTRICT, AND PARISH COUNCILS. Under the Local Government Act of 1888 most of the administrative work previously entrusted to justices of the peace in England and Wales was devolved upon elective County Councils. The magistrates, however, share with these authorities the control of the police. A supplementary act was passed in 1894 creating Parish and District Councils.

Palgrave, "Essay on the King's Council"; Dicey, "Essay on the Privy Council"; Nicolas, "Proceedings of the Privy Council"; J. F. Baldwin, "The King's Council," 1913; C. A. J. Skeel, "The Council of the Marches of Wales," 1904; R. R. Reid, "The King's Council in the North," 1921; A. F. Pollard, *Council, Privy Council and Star Chamber* (in the "English Historical Review" for 1922); D. M. Gladish, "The Privy Council," 1915; G. B. Adams, "Councils and Courts in Anglo-Norman England," 1926; Lord E. Percy, "Privy Council Under the Tudors," 1907.

Councils, Ecclesiastical, are of the following kinds :—

(1) General, or Ecumenical Councils,—i.e., assemblies of the Catholic Church from every nation. To these, bishops from Britain were sent from the time of the Council of Arles in the fourth century to the Councils of Constance and Basel in the fifteenth. Their decrees were accepted in England as a part of the law of the Church, though in later times, as the case of the Council of Basel shows, hardly without some ratification from the royal authority. The greatest interest was at various times shown by the English Church in these councils, and their acts often profoundly affected the course of English history. But their influence is too indirect to necessitate any detailed treatment of it in a work on English history.

(2) National Councils. Of the details of the history of the pre-English British Church we know little ; but when Archbishop Theodore completed the systematic organization of the English Church that the failure of Augustine's mission necessitated, one of his chief cares was to arrange for the assembling every August of a council of the whole Church over which he was metropolitan. The Councils of Hertford and Hatfield (q.v.), in which most of his reforms were arranged, were themselves precedents for the future action of the Church. These councils can only by anticipation be called national, for as yet the English nation was not in existence, but they exerted a most beneficial influence on the development of national unity by habituating subjects of hostile but neighbouring states to meet under the peace of the Church to discuss amicably matters of common interest. Their common place of meeting was some border town such as Clovesho, an unknown spot near London, where Mercia, Wessex, Kent, and Essex met together at a point. They were constituted mostly of bishops, though abbots often, and diocesan clergy once, figure among the members ; and, as the line between Church and State was as yet but slackly drawn, kings, ealdormen, and other temporal magnates frequently attended them. But the assertion of the independence of the archbishopric of York by Archbishop Ecgbert created a jealousy between that see and Canterbury that made these national councils, which had never met with the regularity prescribed by Theodore, very few in number. They practically ceased with the decline of all conciliar activity in the tenth century ; and though revived after the Conquest, when a papal legate could summon a national council with an authority which neither archbishop could gainsay, the vindication of the archiepiscopal powers of the see of York by Thurstan revived the old jealousy that made the union of both provinces in a common assembly ridiculous or abortive. The legatine councils of Otto in 1237, and Ottobon in 1268, are the chief later exceptions to this rule.

(3) Provincial Councils.—The rarity and practical cessation of national councils left room for the full development of the synods of the two provinces of Canterbury and York ; even if the comparative unimportance of the northern province did not often invest the councils of the southern with a practically national character. The thirteenth century saw the completion of the systematic representation of the provincial synods, to which the name *Convocation* (q.v.) became gradually applied. They play an important part in both the ecclesiastical and civil history of England.

(4) Diocesan Councils, which were exhaustive assemblies of the clergy of the individual sees, were occasionally summoned, and even—

(5) Archidiaconal Councils are occasionally heard of. But these later varieties were of inferior importance, and never originated business of any weight.

Stubbs and Haddan, "Councils and Ecclesiastical Documents" ; Stubbs, "Constitutional History" ; Wilkins, "Concilia" ; Hody, "History of Convocations" ; Stephens and Hunt, "Ecclesiastical History of England." [T. F. T.]

Counties, The English. The word "county" is due to the Norman invaders' identification of the old English "shire" with their own "comitatus," the district of a count. But the shire had had a very different history from the Frankish comitatus. In the first place, the forty counties of England differ considerably in their origins. The southern counties are, no doubt, much the older, and are still identical with the original shires of Wessex. Some have supposed that they represent the successive settlements established as a result of each advance of the West Saxons westwards. Wiltshire, for instance, has been imagined to have originated with some few hundred Saxon families who towards the end of the fifth century drove back the Britons from this district, attained to an independent individuality as the "folk" of the Wilsætas, and finally coalesced with neighbouring "folks" in Dorset, Hampshire, Berkshire, etc., to form the "shares" of divisions of the kingdom of the West Saxons. A more recent view is that the southern shires represent more or less exactly the realms of the various *sub-reguli* who divided the West-Saxon kingdom among them from time to time during the seventh century ; or that they were simply the districts administered from important royal vills such as Honiton and Wilton, Dorchester or Somerton. At any rate, the West-Saxon shire is characterized by a primitive independence, having its own "folk-moot," its own ealdorman, and its chief town, the name of which is cognate to the shire name (Wil-sætas, Wilton). This had been the history also of Sussex, Surrey, Essex, Middlesex, and even Jutish Kent, when these, with others, were amalgamated into the kingdom of Wessex. But the Midland shires, on the contrary, are obviously artificial areas, and do not corre-

spond to the original "folks" of the Mercians, South Angles, Mid-Angles, etc. They were probably marked out when the district was reconquered from the Danes by Alfred's successors in the tenth century. In the case of the East-Midland shires it is hardly possible to doubt that they represent simply the holdings of the Danish armies, which Edward the Elder subdued. Bedford, Northants, Cambridge, Huntingdon, Derby, Nottingham, and Leicester, for instance, were Danish units of organization. The origin of the West-Midland shires, on the other hand, was probably the result of the grouping of lands for administrative purposes around the "burhs" created by Ethelfleda in the course of her advance. Sometimes the older divisions which were submerged by the political reorganization of the tenth century seem to be preserved in the bishoprics; the diocese of Worcester, for example, corresponded to the old kingdom of the Hwiccas, and was far more extensive than the modern Worcestershire. The shire system then, which was indigenous to Wessex, spread thence to the midlands at a later date. In the north only Yorkshire and Durham appear as shires in Domesday Book; Northumberland, Cumberland, and Westmorland were not formed into shires till the reigns of William Rufus and Henry I. The origin of one shire, Rutland, still remains an unsolved problem. Furthermore, not till long after the Norman Conquest was it certain that there would not be other shires formed, for the district of Richmond was often called a shire, as also were Hallamshire and Norhamshire, etc. The number of shires which sent representatives to parliament was during the Middle Ages thirty-seven; for Cheshire and Durham were not incorporated till 1535 and 1673 respectively, and Monmouth added to the English shires also in 1535. The boundaries of shires—as, for example, in Essex and Norfolk—are usually the natural lines of rivers and hills; and probably in many cases would be explained if we could only trace the ancient forests and marshes, as on the western border of Notts; in other cases again—as in the sinuous northern boundary of Wilts, which seems to cross and recross the Thames with a sort of methodical irregularity—there must have been accidents of local formation, tribal relations, or personal circumstances, which we can hardly now hope to trace. The anomalous fragments belonging to one shire, but outlying in another, had often a great historical interest; such as the hundred of West Meon, in Sussex, but belonging to Hants, a striking survival from the settlement of Jutish Meonwaras soon absorbed by the West Saxons of Hants. These have in many cases been consolidated and rectified. When we come to compare the social characteristics of the several counties, we find that in wealth and population the southern and eastern parts of England preponderated during the Anglo-Saxon times, as in political superiority. With the rise of the woollen manufacture after the thirteenth century, the balance of population spread towards the eastern counties, and along the banks of Thames and Severn. At last, the application of steam-power to manufacture opened out the coal and iron fields of the north and west, and reversed the long predominance of the plains over the hill districts. As to the relative prevalence of feudal sentiments, it is to be noticed that the home counties after the Norman Conquest continued to be divided among smaller landlords than the great lordships of the midlands and the north; it is therefore the barons of the north and centre who are conspicuous in the series of revolts under the Norman kings, in the struggles of Henry II's and Henry III's reigns, in Magna Carta, and in the opposition led by the house of Lancaster against the Plantagenets; and during the Wars of the Roses one striking element in the array of the trading and popular forces against the feudal—the array, that is, of Kent, London, the eastern and "home counties," against the less advanced northern and western border lands. The same division is to be found during the next century in comparing the Protestant risings (such as Wyatt's) with the reactionary Pilgrimage of Grace supported by the gentry of Lincolnshire, Yorkshire, and the north. To take another instance: the socmen, whom Domesday shows so numerous in the eastern counties, and whose presence points to the revived spirit of freedom that the Danes brought in, bequeathed their bold traditions to the revolted peasantry of 1381, and to the Puritan yeomen of the Eastern Association two centuries later. But this tenacious individuality of the shire comes out in still minuter distinctions. Kent, Cheshire, Durham, in particular, had each its own legal customs or social traditions; each, in fact, its own inner history. Charles II in his flight was once detected by his horse's shoes having been made in four different counties. It is only the developed means of communication of our own day, and the operation of broad economic laws, that have begun to obliterate such distinctiveness.

"Victoria County History"; H. M. Chadwick, "Studies on Anglo-Saxon Institutions," 1905.

[A. L. S.]

Counties, The Irish. The history of the shiring of Ireland is involved in more obscurity than the history of the shiring of England, though not for the same reason in the two cases. In England the division into counties was the result of a slow process of growth, the history of which is hidden in the remote past. We can trace only some of its stages. But the shiring of Ireland was purely the result of the English conquest. The persons who undertook it were strangers, were aliens in the country, ignorant of its language and most of its local traditions. The Irish shires are therefore distinct, formal, and legal

divisions, not local and popular ones. This being the case, it might have been supposed that it would have been an easy matter to trace the stages by which these divisions came into existence. And perhaps this would not have been difficult if there had remained to us more of the State papers relating to Irish affairs. But it is well known that an immense number were destroyed, during the different periods of Irish rebellion. Especially was this the case with the papers which relate to the early period of Anglo-Norman rule. There were in reality two conquests of Ireland, one in the reign of Henry II and his immediate successors, another in that of Henry VIII and his successors. For during a long intermediate period (almost from the death of Henry III) the country lapsed into an independence almost as complete as if it had never known English rule. Now, although we cannot distinctly trace all the steps of the shiring of Ireland, we must unquestionably refer it to these two periods of English supremacy, and what was not done during the first we may feel sure was not accomplished in the interval between it and the second. Up to the end of the reign of Henry III English law was administered regularly to the English subjects throughout the greater part of Ireland. Justices in eyre travelled for jail delivery in the same way that they did in England. The country, therefore, must have been divided into districts, which in every way corresponded to the English shires. Of course this division of Ireland was a gradual process, beginning with the districts first conquered, and gradually extending. Nor, so far as concerns the present county divisions, does the process seem to have extended beyond Leinster and Munster. The other two provinces were treated as each one county. Thus very early we read of sheriffs of some of the counties of the Pale (q.v.)—a sheriff of Dublin, for example, is mentioned in a document of the year 1201, or not more than thirty years after the first landing of the Earl of Pembroke. This, however, does not prove the existence of the division now known as the county of Dublin, for the city of Dublin was constituted a county before the county was formed. But it proves the existence of so much of county government in this year as is implied by the existence of a sheriff. As a matter of fact, the "county of Dublin"—evidently here distinct from the city—is mentioned only six years after, in 1207. The county of Kildare is first mentioned in 1249; Wexford (Wesford) in 1251; Kilkenny in 1252, but more clearly in 1279; of Louth (also called Uriel), the sheriff is spoken of in 1290; but it is not distinctly called a county before the year 1301. Wicklow, though it is nowhere called a county in the early documents, cannot have been behind the other places of the Pale. Meath is the only exception to the general rule of a very early shiring of the counties round Dublin. It seems only to have been settled during the thirteenth century, and it is generally referred to in the papers of that age as de Lacy's country. In 1297 we read of the lands held in Meath, "without the boundary of any county," which implies that at this date only a part of it had been shired. Three counties of Leinster, by their English names, imply a late formation —Longford, King's County, and Queen's County. The last two did, of course, receive their names in the reign of Mary and Philip, as the names of their capitals—Philipstown and Maryborough—sufficiently indicate. But before this time they were known as Offaly (also called "O'Connor's country") and Leix ("O'Moore's country"), and there is no evidence that their boundaries were in any way changed with their names. Longford seems to have been a later division, as we might expect from the smallness of its size. We find incidental mention of it in a document of the year 1207; but there is no evidence to show that the county came into existence before the sixteenth century. Munster was divided into counties almost as early as was Leinster, for all its counties except one are distinctly mentioned as such in documents of the thirteenth century, viz., Cork first called a county in 1207 (shired in 1210 and again under James I), Limerick in 1245, Waterford in 1251, Tipperary in 1275 (created a county palatine in 1328), and Derry in 1281. Of Clare we do not happen to have any early record; but we need not suppose that it was much behind the others. It is the one county of Munster which has an English-derived name, as it was called after the de Clares, Earls of Gloucester, etc., who settled in the country, and was for a long time known as "de Clare's country." After the return of Ireland to practical independence, and the relapse of the northern families to the condition of native chieftains, the country may be said to have been practically unshired over its greatest part. Jail deliveries were restricted to the four counties constituting what was now known as the Pale, viz., Dublin, Kildare, Louth, and Meath. It seems that at the beginning of the reign of Henry VIII there were only parts of five counties which remained faithful to the English crown—Uriel (Louth), half of Dublin, half of Meath, half of Kildare, and half of Wexford. Of course the counties which had been already constituted continued to bear their old names, but the jurisdiction which made them really shires had ceased. In the document from which these particulars have been taken Ulster (Wolster) and Connaught are called counties. It is, however, the case that as early as 1260 we hear of the county of Down, and in 1283 of the sheriff of Antrim, and in 1290 of the sheriff of Roscommon. In 1296 Sligo is known in the State papers of Elizabeth as "O'Connor Sligo's country." This is in 1565. Five years later we find an order in council concerning the shiring of Ireland, but no details are given

as to what new counties were constituted. The completion of the work did not take place till 1607, after the famous rebellion and flight of Tyrone and Tyrconnel, which led to the Plantation of Ulster. In a State paper of this year we find a proposal, which was shortly carried into effect, for dividing the whole of Ulster into shires. In this paper there are three old counties mentioned—Louth, Down, and Antrim—and it is proposed to create six new, viz., Armagh, Tyrone, Coleraine (Londonderry), Monaghan, Fermanagh, and Donegal. The addition of London to the older name of Derry is the most evident remaining trace of the Plantation of Ulster, recalling as it does the settlement of that part by a colony from London. That settlement was begun in the year 1607. In the list of James I's parliament of 1611 the names of the counties of Ireland stand almost as at present, save that Carlow is still called by its earlier name of Cathelagh, and that Cavan is absent from the number. In short, it may be stated that from the time of John until the opening of the Tudor period the process of shiring was almost at a standstill; and that its completion by the end of the reign of James I was largely the work of the three Elizabethan viceroys, Sussex, Sydney, and Perrot.

C. L. Falkiner, *The Counties of Ireland*, 1903, in "Royal Irish Academy Proceedings," vol. 24.

[C. F. K.]

Counties, The Scottish. The history of the erection of the counties of Scotland as they now exist is involved in much obscurity. The boundaries in some cases were not definitively fixed till the beginning of the last century. It was part of the anglicizing policy of the sons of Malcolm and Margaret to divide their kingdom into sheriffdoms after the English model; therefore, in Scotland, the sheriff was not the gerefa of the already existing shire, but an officer appointed by the Crown, for whom a district had to be appropriated. The boundaries of these districts were for long vague and undetermined. They must be divided into two distinct classes—those of the Highlands and those of the Lowlands.

(1) *Lowland Counties.* At the time when sheriffs were introduced, Scotland south of the Firths consisted of three distinct provinces—Lothian, Galloway, and Strathclyde. Lothian formed part of the English kingdom of Northumbria, and was held in fief by the Scottish kings. It is represented by the counties of Berwick, Roxburgh, Peebles, and the Lothians—i.e., Edinburgh, Haddington, and Linlithgow. Each of these counties takes its name from the chief town within its bounds. From incidental mention in charters and other documents, we gather that each of them had a sheriff in the time of David I or his successors, but there is no certain evidence of their first institution. The extent of these counties would seem to have been determined by existing local divisions. Thus Peebles is known as Tweeddale before its erection into a county. Ettrick Forest becomes Selkirk, and Teviotdale and Liddesdale form Roxburgh.

Strathclyde has been divided into the present counties of Ayr, Lanark, Renfrew, and Dumbarton. Ayr was formed of the districts of Kyle, Cunningham, and Carrick, which was separated from Galloway by William the Lion. The first sheriff of Ayr was appointed in 1221, but the three districts were ruled severally by baillies, who in many points acted as sheriffs. Lanark, which was made a sheriffdom in the time of David I, was divided into two parts, the over ward and the nether ward of Clydesdale; Lanark being the seat of justice of the one, and Rutherglen of the other. Renfrew was erected by Robert III into a barony, with rights of regality, for his son James. It first appears as an independent sheriffdom in 1414. Dumbarton, formerly the Lennox, or Vale of Leven, first appears as a sheriffdom in the reign of William the Lion. Galloway was divided into the sheriffdoms of Dumfries and Wigton. The sheriffdom of Dumfries nominally included the districts of Nithsdale and Annandale, and that half of Galloway which forms the modern county of Kirkcudbright. A sheriff is mentioned in the time of William the Lion, and it is distinctly recognized as a shire at the time of the death of Alexander III. But as Annandale on the one hand, and Kirkcudbright on the other, were both stewardries, the jurisdiction of the sheriff must have been virtually limited to Nithsdale. Wigton, the remaining part of Galloway, was certainly a sheriffdom by the end of the thirteenth century, but powers of regality were joined to the earldom by David II. In every county there were regalities and baronial jurisdictions, and hereditary constables of royal fortresses, and baillies of the lands belonging to religious houses, whose powers clashed with those of the sheriff. The office almost invariably became hereditary in the family of the most powerful man of the district, and tended more to swell his consequence than to maintain law and order, till the act of 1747 abolished hereditary jurisdictions.

(2) *Highland Counties.* In the Celtic kingdom north of the Firths, where the clan system prevailed, the country was divided into vaguely defined districts, whose several mormaers or earls, while professing a nominal allegiance to the King of Scots, each claimed to represent the royal authority within his own territory. The introduction of sheriffs was therefore very gradual, and was not completed till the sixteenth century. In many cases the powers of the sheriff were conferred upon the local chief, who had thus the right of "pit and gallows," or power of life and death, within his own territory. These powers were only done away with by the abolition of hereditable jurisdictions in 1747. The boundaries of the

Highland shires were not definitely fixed till the beginning of the last century. Previously their limits were marked more by custom and tradition than by law, and Arrowsmith's map, published in 1805, is the first in which the counties are defined accurately.

Arrowsmith, "Memoir relative to the Map of Scotland." [M. M.]

Counties, The Welsh, are mainly administrative divisions of the Mercian rather than the West Saxon type. They are consequently of late origin, and in most cases receive their name from the shire town. In a country so well subdivided off by natural boundaries as Wales, their limits have, however, in certain cases, coincided so far with these that they represent real dialectic and physical distinctions. Moreover, some counties correspond, if roughly, with ancient tribal or local divisions, and still more to the ancient ecclesiastical divisions of the land. But despite these exceptions, the Welsh shires are in the main artificial "departments" rather than natural "provinces"; they are "shires" rather than "gauen."

The Welsh counties fall into three classes according to the period of their creation—viz., (1) ancient palatine counties, (2) the counties formed by Edward I, (3) the counties formed by Henry VIII, who also finally fixed the limits of the other two classes.

(1) *Ancient Palatine Counties*—i.e., Pembrokeshire and Glamorganshire. These represent the two greatest "Marches" which the conquering activity of the Norman barons of the twelfth century established all over western and southern Wales. In the west, the districts thus conquered were largely included in the indefinite limits of the English border counties, Cheshire, Shropshire, and Herefordshire, whose earls under William I acquired regalian privileges. Up to the thirteenth century, and even the sixteenth, large districts now in "Wales" were included locally within these counties, although their inclusion was but nominal, so long as the lesser lords retained palatine powers, even after the Crown had annexed the earldoms themselves. Another class of lordships marchers were never included within these counties, but although independent, were not of sufficient importance to be regarded as equivalent to counties. The lordships of Denbigh, the "honour" of Montgomery, the lordships of Brecon and Gower, were among others of this description. But Morganwg, the conquest of Fitz-Hamon, and the inheritance of Robert of Gloucester, and the great house of Clare, though never formally constituted an earldom or county palatine, was so virtually. Its lords were always earls, either of Gloucester or, as later, of Pembroke. They had fullest regalian rights and privileges, as much as the Palatine Lords of Cheshire and Durham had, and they were the greatest family of the realm. So early as 1146 we read of the "comitatus" (shire-moot) of Cardiff, and in 1148 Earl William speaks of his "vice comes" (sheriff). Pembroke was more definitely created an earldom in 1138, and became organized on the model of an English county. The boundaries of both were narrower than those of the modern shires; Gower, for example, was a separate lordship, although much of Gwent was within the lordship of Morganwg. Similarly Dewisland and Kemes were outside the Pembroke Palatinate. The modern boundaries were assigned by Henry VIII adding to the old nuclei the adjoining marcherships.

(2) *Edward I's Counties*—viz., Anglesey, Carnarvonshire, Merionethshire, Cardiganshire, Carmarthenshire. After the conquest of Llewelyn, Edward I divided the district which acknowledged his sway, and to which the title of the "Principality" is rightly confined, into districts called shires, but which rather bear to the regular shire the relation of a United States Territory to a State, than fully represent the self-governing district forming an integral factor of the body politic of England. In the districts more immediately subject to Llewelyn, the shires of Anglesey, Carnarvon, and Merioneth were erected. They so far regarded old lines that they consisted of an aggregation of cantreds and commots. A sheriff in each shire, with coroners and bailiffs in each commot, were appointed. A county court was to be held once a month, and the sheriff's tourn twice a year, at which all the inhabitants were to be present. Sheriffs, etc., were also appointed for more southern regions, where the power of the Welsh princes at least nominally extended, one to hold his court at Cardigan and Llanbadarn, another at Carmarthen, though the powers of the marchers must have limited the area of their jurisdiction to narrower bounds than modern Cardiganshire and Carmarthenshire. A sixth new county was formed in Flint, which consisted of the western and more exposed portion of the Chester Palatinate, but which remained in a sort of half dependence on Cheshire. The rest of Wales remained in the hands of the marchers.

(3) *Henry VIII's Counties*—viz., Denbighshire, Montgomeryshire, Radnorshire, Breconshire, and Monmouthshire. Henry VIII's incorporation of Wales with England involved the division of the whole country into shire-ground. Hence, by the 27 Hen. VIII, the local self-government, of which the shire was still the base, was introduced into the whole land. The lordships marchers lost their palatine rights, and were either (e.g., Gower, as above) incorporated into existing counties, or aggregated into new ones. Besides the new shires of western Wales, the boundaries of Cheshire, and still more of Shropshire and Herefordshire, were readjusted; and the old Welsh counties of Edward I, and the still older palatinates, were assimilated to English shires; and the power of returning to parliament one member for each county, and one for the amalgamated boroughs (except in

mountainous Merioneth) was conferred. Monmouthshire had two members given it, and was treated as a part of England, so far as the words England and Wales had now an antagonistic meaning. Its enclosure under Charles II in an English circuit completed its severance from Wales.

The chief statutes creating Welsh counties are 12 Ed. I, *Statutum Walliæ* or the *Statute of Rhuddlan*, and 27 Hen. VIII, c. 24, 26. See also 26 Hen. VIII, c. 4, and 27 Hen. VIII, c. 5, 7, 24, 26. A summary will be found in "Reeve's History of English Law," ii, 93–9, and iv, 195–205. For Pembrokeshire and Glamorganshire the "Description of Pembrokeshire" written in 1603 (MS. Harl., No. 6250), c. 24, fol. 240 seq., is valuable. For the Marches see Pennant's "Tour in Wales," Appendix ii. For Glamorganshire, Mr. Clark's papers on *The Land of Morgan*, in the "Archæological Journal," are useful. The Welsh county histories are not, as a rule, good. Jones's "Breconshire" is perhaps the best. See also T. F. Tout, "The Welsh Shires" (cf. Cymmrdol); J. G. Edwards, *Early History of Cardigan and Carmarthen*, in the "English Historical Review."

[T. F. T.]

Counties Palatine are so called from the fact that their lords exercised regalian rights, i.e., enjoyed franchises or jurisdictional rights of exceptionally large dimensions, comparable to those exercised by the king himself. The earl of a county palatine could pardon treasons, murders, and felonies; while all writs were in his name, and offences were said to be committed against his peace, and not against that of the king. Under William I four such franchises—Chester, Durham, Kent, and Shropshire—seem to have existed. These regions appear to have been selected for peculiar treatment (as exceptions to the Conqueror's general practice in avoiding the creation of powerful feudal lordships) as being especially liable to attack—Chester and Shropshire from the Welsh Marches, Kent from France, and Durham from Scotland. The disturbed state of the borders rendered it an easy task for an earl, who was as powerful as a sovereign in his own territory, to extend his frontiers at the expense of his enemies. Kent ceased to be a palatine earldom after the death of Odo of Bayeux, and the palatinate earldom of Shropshire disappeared after the collapse of the rebellion of Robert de Belesme under Henry I. In 1351 Lancaster was created a palatine earldom by Edward III. Chester also ranked as a palatinate, with its own courts, judges, and staff of officers, constable, steward, and the rest; it had its parliament, consisting of the barons of the county, and was not until 1541 represented in the parliament of the kingdom. The lords of the Welsh March were possessed of *jura regalia* of a most extensive nature, and enjoyed, in virtue of the "custom of the March" which grew up in the twelfth and thirteenth centuries, virtual independence from royal control. During the sixteenth century the various palatinate jurisdictions were, with the exception of Lancaster and Chester, which were held by the Crown, and of Durham, gradually assimilated to the rest of the country. The palatine jurisdiction of Durham remained, however, with the bishop until 1836, whilst the jurisdiction of the Palatine Courts at Lancaster, with the exception of the Chancery Court, were transferred to the High Court of Justice by the Judicature Act of 1873.

W. S. Holdsworth, "History of English Law," ii; G. Lapsley, "County Palatine of Durham."

County Court. "The Anglo-Saxon shire mote was in a very real sense the cornerstone of the English legal system. Both before and for a long time after the Norman Conquest it was the most important court of general jurisdiction, the great channel through which flowed the stream of folk-right descending from the past." Before the Conquest the shire-moot has the ealdorman and bishop at its head, "to declare the law, secular and spiritual," but gradually its newer aspect of dependence on a central power is embodied in the shire-reeve, or sheriff, who convenes the court and connects it with the king. This official supplanted the ealdorman and bishop, and after the Norman Conquest he becomes the chief minister in the county. Originally the county court dealt with both civil and criminal matters, but by the end of the twelfth century its independent action had been curbed, though it had gained ground in certain directions by its more direct connexion with the Crown. From Henry II's reign much of its jurisdiction was gradually transferred to the king's courts (i.e., the King's Bench and the Common Pleas, and to the itinerant justices). But it still dealt with civil cases not exceeding forty shillings in value, with cases of distraint and with outlawry. In some instances it could only act after the receipt of a royal writ, in others no writ was necessary. Inquests were taken there, sometimes "in the full county court." Both for presentment of criminals and for decision of civil cases (at least as to land) the Crown always used "recognitors," that is, called on the shire to co-operate, and to make record of its proceedings. Its help was called upon also for such matters as view of armour, choice of coroners (and at certain periods of sheriffs), for the publication of charters, statutes, and ordinances, for exacting oaths of allegiance, and later for the election of knights and burgesses to parliament. It had, in fact, by the middle of the thirteenth century become the chief medium of local administration, and there is evidence which suggests that it performed in the shire financial system functions not unlike those which the Exchequer exercised in the central administration. There were two great county courts each year, and the ordinary sessions took place once a month or once in six weeks. By this date attendance was a duty imposed on certain landholders who owed suit to the county court, or "the county" as it was more usually called: in addition the presence of the reeve and four men from each vill, of twelve burghers from each borough, and twelve men from each

hundred was required for certain purposes. The sheriff presided and under him was the coroner, who had more extensive functions than has the modern official. The proceedings were duly recorded on Plea Rolls of the county court, some of which have now been discovered.

In 1258, at Oxford, among the other grievances set forth, the barons complained that the attendance required of them at the county court was increasing. By the Statute of Merton they won their point—that their attendance might be by attorney; while the Statute of Marlborough, 1267, exempted all above the degree of knights unless specially summoned. Already individual exemptions had been so largely granted that by 1258 there was a scarcity of knights for the "inquests" of the court; and in 1293 a qualification of 40s. freehold was required for service as a juror. The county court also formed a group of local representatives from which a small body of knights could be chosen to act for the whole shire, and stand between the Crown and the county in the business of government. Thus, in 1194 four knights act for the whole shire to elect the grand jury of each hundred; under Henry III four knights of each shire come to Westminster to discuss the interpretation of articles in Magna Carta; and knights from time to time assess, or assess and collect, taxes. From this it is a short step to the election of knights to represent the shire in parliament. In later times the rapid growth of the justices of the peace stripped this court of most of its functions, except that of electing and instructing the representatives sent to parliament, perhaps after discussion of the grounds of its summons as stated in the king's writ. Under Edward III it was still dealing with a large number of cases at each court. It was particularly during the Tudor period that these justices—a non-elective body of landowners—completed the process by which they had stripped the old shire-court of its powers—judicial, police, military, and fiscal. The statutes of the early fifteenth century, which attempted further to regulate the relation between parliament and the shires in the interests of the gentry, were aimed to check the misdoing of the sheriffs (1406), and to ensure the election of knights or squires and the exclusion of maintainers; and in 1430 it was declared that the right of voting belonged only to freeholders of 40s. and upwards. One side of the old principle of local government—viz., co-operation with the Crown by unpaid local work—remained; but the other side of it—the principle that this work is shared by the freemen of the shire—was long lost to view; and the quarter and petty sessions, aided by a few permanent officials, and relieved by the central power's larger assumption to itself of local duties (as in the regulation of prisons), supplanted the county court.

The county court for general purposes now only exists for the election of coroners, and (in theory) for the proclamation of outlawry and publication of acts of parliament. But the shire retains its own officers, lord-lieutenant, and sheriffs, justices, coroners, and chief constable; through the justices it managed its own police, high roads, and bridges, and imposed rates until the Local Government Act of 1888 (51 and 52 Vict., c. 41) established county councils. These bodies have taken over the administrative duties of the magistrates, except that the latter retain a share in the control of the police, and are a court of appeal in licensing questions. The administrative counties, however, differ slightly from the historic areas. The county courts, under paid judges, set up in 1846 for better dispatch of the lesser judicial business, vary in number according to the needs of each county. Their institution has been a great success. But in size and functions they are more like hundred courts revived and centralized; and historically their name is a misnomer.

Bæda, "Ecclesiastical History"; Ellis, "Introduction to Domesday"; Palgrave, "English Commonwealth"; Freeman, "English Towns and Districts"; Gneist, "Verwaltungsrecht, Das Self-Government"; Guest, Papers in "Archæological Journal"; Green, "Making of England"; Commissioners' "Introduction to Census Report of 1851"; W. A. Morris, "The Early English County Court" (University of California Publications in History); Jenkinson and Mills, *Rolls from a Sheriff's Office of the Fourteenth Century* ("English Historical Review"), 1928. [M. M.]

Court-baron. [MANOR.]

Court Leet. [LEET.]

Courtenay, EDWARD, EARL OF DEVON (*d.* 1556), was the son of Henry Courtenay, Marquis of Exeter, who was the son of Sir William Courtenay and Catherine, daughter of Edward IV. After the execution of his father in 1538, for conspiring in favour of Reginald Pole, he was sent to the Tower, and confined there until his release by Mary, in 1553. Whilst still in prison he was spoken of as the probable future husband of the queen. On the announcement of Mary's determination to wed Philip of Spain, a strong party gathered round Courtenay, and urged him to marry the Princess Elizabeth and to declare her queen, whilst they undertook to rouse the country, and to gather together a sufficient number of men to ensure success. The chief of the conspirators were Sir Thomas Wyatt, Sir James Crofts, and the Duke of Suffolk. The plot was, however, betrayed to Gardiner by Courtenay, and the rebellion was easily crushed by the courage of the queen. Courtenay, mistrusted and despised for his weakness, was sent back to the Tower, and shortly afterwards exiled. He died at Padua in 1556.

Courtenay, WILLIAM (1342 ?–96), Archbishop of Canterbury, was the son of Hugh Courtenay, Earl of Devon. He studied at Oxford and was appointed chancellor of the university in 1367. Two years later he was elected Bishop of Hereford, and although under age, was consecrated by papal permission

in the following year. He became Bishop of London in 1375. He strongly opposed John of Gaunt and Wyclif, and it was before Courtenay that the latter appeared in 1377. In 1381 he was appointed Archbishop of Canterbury, and chancellor, but the latter office he held only for a few months. In 1382 he again attacked Wyclif, obtained a condemnation of his views by a specially-appointed council of learned ecclesiastics, obliged the university of Oxford to withdraw their support from him, and compelled several of his leading disciples to make a public recantation. Courtenay, though opposing Wyclif's views, was also a strong opponent of papal aggression and played a part in the passing of the Statute of Præmunire in 1393. He also resisted the attempt of parliament to tax the clergy without their consent, and the king was compelled to allow the money to be voted by convocation. The election of Courtenay marks an epoch in the history of the Church; he was the first of the aristocratic primates, and after his time the see of Canterbury and many other bishoprics were conferred upon members of noble houses, instead of being given as a reward to ministers or judges, or as a recognition of learning to some great scholar.

H. Wallon, "Richard II," 1864.

Courtenay, William, Earl of Devon (*d.* 1511), was brother-in-law of Henry VII's queen, by his marriage with Edward IV's daughter, Catherine. When Perkin Warbeck, in the latter part of the year 1497, followed up his landing in Cornwall by the active siege of the city of Exeter, the Earl of Devon was foremost among the English nobles in a show of loyalty to Henry VII, and made a special effort to relieve the city before the arrival of the succours sent for that purpose by the king himself. In 1504, however, being implicated in the proceedings of the fugitive Earl of Suffolk by the evidence of one of Henry VII's spies, Sir Robert Curson, Courtenay was attainted, and deprived of his estates by the parliament of that year, under the Speakership of Dudley, and was kept a close prisoner in the Tower during the remainder of the king's life.

Courts of Law. [See The Index.]

Coutances, Walter de (*d.* 1207), was one of Henry II's ministers, and became successively Bishop of Lincoln and Archbishop of Rouen. He accompanied Richard I on his crusade, but in 1191 was sent back to England by the king, for the purpose of superseding Longchamp. The archbishop held the justiciarship from 1191 to 1194, when he was summoned to join Richard in Germany. On the king's release he remained as a hostage for the payment of the ten thousand marks still owing for the king's ransom. In 1196, however, he quarrelled with Richard, and the king refusing to give way, he laid Normandy under an interdict, until a compromise was effected. He supported the claims of John in 1199, but on the loss of Normandy transferred his allegiance without scruple to Philip Augustus.

Covenant, The. It was the old Scottish custom for those who were united in any great cause to bind themselves together by a bond to stand by one another to the death in support of their cause. Such a bond was the Covenant which plays so large a part in the history of the Reformation in Scotland. It was originally a private bond, by which the barons who upheld the first preachers of reform bound themselves together for mutual support and the destruction of popery in 1557. In 1581, when there was a general dread of the revival of popery, a similar bond, entering more into detail concerning the superstitions and religious errors that were to be combated, was drawn up by the Protestant ministers. The king, James I, was the first to sign it, and his example was followed by the courtiers and then by the people. This is generally known as the *First Covenant*. In 1638, when Charles I tried to force the English liturgy on the Church of Scotland, the popular indignation found a vent in a revival of this Covenant, with a clause added to it directed against the bishops. The enthusiasm about it was universal. It was signed through the length and breadth of the land, by high and low alike, and from this time the "Covenant" became the watchword and war-cry of the Presbyterian party. In 1643, when the English parliament sought Scottish aid, the Scots demanded that the mutual engagements of the two nations should be confirmed by a pact to which both nations should be sworn. Accordingly the *Solemn League and Covenant* was drawn up by Henderson, amended by Vane, adopted by the Westminster Assembly (q.v.), passed by the parliament, and ordered to be subscribed and sworn to by the nation. But the Assembly of Divines at Westminster, in 1643, though they approved the Covenant, disappointed the Scots, who hoped to see it imposed on the whole English nation. When Charles II, on the invitation of the Estates, came to Scotland to claim the kingdom in 1650, he was compelled to sign the Covenant before he was allowed to land, and the signature was repeated at his coronation. Notwithstanding this, after the Restoration, by the king's order, the Covenant was burned by the common hangman in London, and an act abjuring and condemning it as an unlawful oath was passed by the privy council of Scotland in 1662. The extreme Presbyterian party were greatly disappointed that the act of 1690, approving the confession, did not enjoin the renewing of the Covenant. The Covenant was not merely a declaration of belief, but a solemn engagement binding its adherents to force their belief upon others.

The name of *Covenanters* was first taken by the popular party after the renewal of the Covenant in 1638, and borne by them throughout the Civil War. But it is more generally

associated with the insurgents of the reign of Charles II who took arms in defence of the Presbyterian form of church government. As the Covenant had by that time been denounced as a seditious oath, those who persisted in maintaining it were naturally looked upon as rebels against the government. They were, however, treated with unwarrantable severity. When, in 1662, the act was passed for the re-establishment of Episcopacy, the Presbyterian ministers who refused to acknowledge the bishops were ejected from their parishes. Round these "outed ministers," as they were called, the Covenanters rallied and gathered in crowds on the hill-sides or any lonely place, to attend their ministrations. These meetings, called "conventicles," were denounced as seditious, and to frequent them or to hold any "intercommuning" with any persons who frequented them, was forbidden on pain of death. These severe measures provoked the Covenanters to take up arms in defence of their religious opinions, and led to a rebellion so widespread that it almost amounted to a civil war. The first serious action between the king's troops and the Covenanters was in the hill-country on the borders of the counties of Ayr and Lanark. Here, at Drumclog (q.v.), a farm near Loudon Hill, a party of armed Covenanters who were gathered at a conventicle were attacked by a body of dragoons under John Graham, of Claverhouse, and gained a victory over their assailants (1679). After this success, the numbers of the insurgents increased so rapidly that the government became alarmed, and an army, 15,000 strong, was sent against them under the command of the Duke of Monmouth. He defeated them on the banks of the Clyde, at Bothwell Bridge (q.v.), where 1,200 were made prisoners, June 22, 1679. In consequence of a treasonable protest called the *Sanquhar Declaration* (q.v.), put forth by the Covenanters, all persons who wished to free themselves of suspicion of complicity with them were required to take what was called the *Abjuration Oath* (q.v.), and the soldiers who were sent to scour the country in search of rebels were empowered to kill anyone who refused to take the oath. The sufferings of the Covenanters were extreme. Numbers of them were put to death with great cruelty, but suffering only strengthened their resolute spirit, and it was not until after the accession of William, when the "outed ministers" were restored to their pulpits, and adherence to the Covenant ceased to be a crime, that the Covenanters abandoned their attitude of defiance. But some extreme Covenanters refused to acknowledge a king whose acceptance of Episcopacy in England was, they thought, treason against the divine right of presbyters. They formed the earliest dissenting Presbyterian sects in Scotland. [CAMERONIANS.]

D. Hay Fleming, "Story of the Scottish Covenanters," 1904; J. P. Thomson (ed.), "The Scottish Covenanters," 1914. [M. M.]

Coventry (Warwick) seems to have owed its importance to the magnificent Benedictine abbey founded by Leofric and his wife, Godgifu, in 1043. The town became a prosperous trading centre. In 1345 Edward III gave Coventry a corporation, mayor, and bailiffs, empowered to hold pleas and keep the town prison. In 1452 it was created with the surrounding hamlets a county of itself. The beautiful abbey church was almost destroyed by Henry VIII; but several fine specimens of mediæval ecclesiastical architecture remain. It was at Coventry that the "Unlearned Parliament" met in 1404. In the fifteenth, sixteenth, and seventeenth centuries Coventry was an important centre of the cloth and woollen trade. Its citizens were strongly Parliamentarian in the Civil War; and to punish them their walls were levelled after the Restoration. The town returned two members to parliament from the reign of Edward I until 1885, when the number was reduced to one.

M. D. Harris, "Story of Coventry," 1911.

Coventry, SIR JOHN (*d.* 1682), was the grandson of Lord Keeper Coventry and nephew of Sir William Coventry (q.v. below). He became a member of parliament in 1667. Three years later, when, having somewhat freely expressed his opinion about the royal mistresses, he incurred the displeasure of the court, he was set upon by a band of ruffians sent by Monmouth, half-murdered, and his nose slit with a penknife. This outrage led to the passing of an act against unlawful maiming and wounding, which was known as the Coventry Act (1670).

Coventry, THOMAS, 1ST LORD (1578–1640), son of Sir T. Coventry, judge of the Common Pleas, in 1616 was chosen recorder of London, and in 1617 was made solicitor-general, being advanced four years later to the attorney-generalship. In 1625, chiefly through Buckingham's interest, he was made lord keeper, and in 1628 was created Lord Coventry. He has been accused of advising some of Charles's most arbitrary acts, among them the refusal of the summons to Lord Bristol, and the imprisonment of the Earl of Arundel, though it has been objected to this that he was only "the messenger of the king and the organ of the House." In 1635 and 1636 he enjoined the judges in their charge to the grand juries to urge the people to pay the ship-money with cheerfulness, but he took no part in the trial of Hampden for refusing to pay his share. One of his last acts was to advise the king to summon parliament, but he died before the assembling of the Short Parliament.

Clarendon, "History of the Rebellion," 1702–4.

Coventry, SIR WILLIAM (1626–86), was the youngest son of Lord Keeper Coventry. In 1662 he was appointed commissioner of the admiralty; in 1665 he was knighted and made a privy councillor; and in 1667 he became a

commissioner of the treasury. Having quarrelled with the Duke of Buckingham, he challenged him to fight a duel, for which he was banished from the court, and retired into private life. He was the author of several political tracts, the most interesting of which is "The Character of a Trimmer," published in 1688.

Coverdale, Miles (1488–1568), was one of the earliest English reformers. He is said by Foxe to have assisted Tyndale in his translation of the Pentateuch, and in 1535 he issued a translation of the Bible in his own name. He was on close terms of friendship with Cromwell, and in 1538 was sent by that minister to Paris to bring out the translation known as the Lord Cromwell's Bible, or the Great Bible. Before the work was finished an edict was issued forbidding its prosecution; and Coverdale was obliged to return to England to complete his undertaking. In 1540 he edited the second "Great Bible," or Cranmer's Bible, of which a reprint was issued in 1562. On Cromwell's fall Coverdale went to Tübingen, and travelled in Denmark and other continental countries. He returned to England in 1548 and was appointed chaplain to Edward VI. In 1551 he was made Bishop of Exeter, but was removed from his see and imprisoned by order of Queen Mary. He was subsequently released at the instance of Christian of Denmark, to whose territories he repaired. After several years spent among the continental reformers of Germany and Switzerland he returned to England on the accession of Elizabeth, and assisted at the consecration of Archbishop Parker, though, owing to his Calvinistic views, he did not again obtain his see. In 1563 he was collated by Grindal to the living of St. Magnus, London; but when, three years later, the government decided to enforce a stricter observance of the liturgy he resigned the benefice although he continued his preaching in secret. He died in 1568 at the ripe age of eighty.

"Selections from Coverdale's Works" (2 vols., Parker Society), 1844–6.

Cowell, John (1554–1611), was a Cambridge civilian who became master of Trinity Hall and reader in Civil Law. In 1607 he published a work called "The Interpreter," which was an explanation of legal terms and theories. The book gave great offence to the common-lawyers. At the instigation probably of Coke, a great enemy of Cowell, an inquiry into the character of the book was ordered by the House of Commons in 1610, and the king was advised to suppress it, because of the unconstitutional doctrines it contained on the subject of the royal prerogative and the rights of the people. The book was burnt by the common hangman.

Cowper, William, 1st Earl (*d.* 1723), was born at Hertford. After studying at the Temple, he was called to the bar in 1688, and from this time rose rapidly in his profession. On the landing of the Prince of Orange, he raised a troop of horse in his support. His abilities as a Chancery barrister soon attracted Somers's notice, and in 1695 he was returned to parliament for Hertford. In 1696 he supported the bill for the attainder of Sir John Fenwick. In 1702 William Cowper lost his seat for Hertford, owing to the unpopularity caused in the borough by the trial of his brother Spencer for murder. In 1705, on the dismissal of Sir Nathan Wright, he became lord keeper and commissioner of the Scottish Union. In 1706 he was raised to the Upper House, and became the first lord chancellor of Great Britain; but the sentence pronounced by him in this capacity on Sacheverell was influenced by party spirit, and unworthy of his reputation. In opposition to the rest of the ministry, he was in favour of making peace with France during the last years of the Succession War; and he vigorously opposed Marlborough's request to be made captain-general for life. On the fall of the Whigs, Cowper resigned, in spite of the solicitations of Harley, who wished for a composite ministry. On the accession of George I, he received the great seal, and was favoured with the king's entire confidence. His sentences on the rebels of 1715 have been censured as too severe. He was one of the chief advocates of the Septennial Act (q.v.). In 1718 he resigned office, probably because George accused him of espousing the Prince of Wales's side in his quarrel with the court. He promptly became leader of the opposition, and withstood almost alone the Peerage Bill, and the bill of pains and penalties against Atterbury. In his later years he was accused, probably without reason, of tampering with the Jacobites.

Cox, Richard (1500–81), Bishop of Ely, made dean of Christ Church and of Westminster by Henry VIII, was one of the tutors of Edward VI, the others being Sir John Cheke and Sir Anthony Cooke. During the reign of Mary he was compelled with the Protestants to take refuge at Frankfort; but returned to England on the accession of Elizabeth, by whom he was made Bishop of Ely (1559). It was a remonstrance from Bishop Cox against the injustice done him by the bestowal of his land on Sir Christopher Hatton that drew forth the celebrated letter from Queen Elizabeth: "Proud prelate, you know what you were before I made you what you are. If you do not immediately comply with my request, by God I will unfrock you." Cox is described as "an honest but narrow-spirited and peevish man."

Coyne and Livery was an ancient right or custom in Ireland which enabled the lord or chief to quarter his soldiery on his tenants, and to exact pay and provender for horse and man. It was adopted by the Anglo-Norman settlers, who sought to add to their feudal rights the prerogatives of Gaelic chiefs; and became so general that even the loyal

Butlers enforced it. The custom was intensely unpopular with the English tenantry and was the subject of constant complaints by the Irish parliament. It was forbidden by the Statute of Kilkenny, 1366 (q.v.), and again in 1409–10, but the difficulty of providing for the defence of the Pale inclined the government to connive at the system and it was not finally abolished until 1603. Spenser complains of its abolition as a wrong done to the Irish landlord.

E. Curtis, "History of Mediæval Ireland," 1923.

Craggs, James, The Elder (*d.* 1721), was postmaster-general during the earlier years of George I's reign. He was accused with his son of frauds in connexion with the South Sea Company, and died while the accusation was still pending. He is said to have committed suicide.

L. Melville, "South Sea Bubble," 1921.

Craggs, James, The Younger (*d.* 1721), second son of James Craggs the elder, was a Whig politician. During the reign of Anne he was employed in minor diplomatic business. He was consulted by Marlborough on the question of the duke's obtaining the appointment of captain-general for life. In 1714, as the queen lay dying, he was dispatched to Hanover, with instructions to bid Lord Stafford to request the States General of Holland to guarantee the Protestant succession. In 1717 he became secretary at war, and, on the retirement of Addison, secretary of state (1718). He was accused of fraud in connexion with the South Sea Company, but died of small-pox on the day that the report was presented to the Commons.

L. Melville, "South Sea Bubble," 1921.

Craig, General Sir James (1748–1812), after greatly distinguishing himself in the American War of Independence, especially at the battle of Bunker Hill (q.v.), was appointed governor of Jersey in 1793. In 1795 he went out to the Cape, and held the post of governor for two years, when he was sent to India, where his military experience was much needed. In 1807 he became governor-general of Canada, and in that capacity rendered himself extremely unpopular. His measures were arbitrary in the extreme, and it is to his treatment of the assembly, and his refusal to grant any concessions or to consider the question of any redress of grievances, that the discontent which was so prevalent in Canada at this time was due.

Craig, James, Viscount Craigavon (*b.* 1871) Irish politician, served in the Boer War, and became a member of parliament for County Down in 1906. He was treasurer of the household in the coalition government of 1916, parliamentary secretary to the ministry of pensions in 1919, financial secretary to the admiralty in 1920, and prime minister of Northern Ireland after the Government of Ireland Act in 1921. In the latter year he became also a privy councillor. He repudiated the treaty between Northern and Southern Ireland negotiated at the Downing Street Conference of 1922, but succeeded in restoring order in Ireland after a fresh period of bloodshed, and settled all outstanding points of difference by the agreement of December 3, 1925. He was created a viscount in 1927.

Craig, John (*d.* 1600), was the friend and coadjutor of John Knox, on whose death he became for a time the acknowledged leader of the Kirk party, for whom he drew up the National Covenant in 1580. In 1584, however, on the Scottish Estates taking action to restrain the power of the clergy, Craig went over to the opposite side.

P. Hume Brown, "History of Scotland," 1911.

Craigmillar Castle, three miles from Edinburgh, was the scene of the supposed murder of the Earl of Mar, brother of James III, in 1479. It was burnt by Hertford, 1544, but afterwards rebuilt for Queen Mary, who spent a good deal of time there. It is said to have been at Craigmillar that Bothwell, Moray, Morton, and Maitland of Lethington formed their agreement to kill Darnley (1566).

Crampton Question, The (1856), arose out of the Crimean War. British policy during the war included the raising of foreign corps in British pay, and John Crampton, the British minister at Washington, carried out Palmerston's instructions in this direction so thoroughly (even recruiting soldiers in the United States) that he was dismissed by President Franklin Pierce. A period of high tension ensued between the British and United States governments. Crampton became a K.C.B. for his services, though he was not sent back to Washington.

"Annual Register," 1856.

Cranbrook, Earl (1814–1906). [Gathorne-Hardy.]

Cranmer, Thomas (1489–1556), Archbishop of Canterbury, the son of a Nottinghamshire gentleman, at the age of fourteen entered Jesus College, Cambridge, where he was, in 1510, elected to a fellowship. In 1523 he was ordained, and continued at the university, lecturing and teaching. Forced to leave the town to avoid infection in the sweating sickness of 1528, he was accidentally thrown into the company of Foxe and Gardiner, the commissioners engaged on the question of the royal divorce, and in course of conversation mentioned his own conclusion, that the marriage was not merely voidable, but void, being contrary to the law of God, and that its dissolution could therefore be pronounced by the English ecclesiastical courts without reference to Rome. The commissioners were greatly struck, and reported the matter to Henry, who lost no time in sending for Cranmer and ordering him to write a treatise in support of his thesis. Soon after we find him employed as legal adviser to two important

embassies to the pope and the emperor respectively, which, though unsuccessful, were not fruitless. The papal mission discovered a singular consensus among Italian jurists in Henry's favour, while in Germany Cranmer's visits to the theologians proved more favourable to his own than to his master's suit, and before his return he was secretly married to Margaret Anne, a niece of Osiander, a prominent reformer. The marriage being uncanonical, though not illegal, put him entirely at the king's mercy when he became primate. Henry's plans had meanwhile been maturing; further delay would have ruined the legitimacy of Anne Boleyn's offspring, and on the death of Warham the archbishopric of Canterbury was offered to Cranmer. No sooner was the ceremony of installation over (March 30, 1533), than the new archbishop wrote the king a collusive letter, demanding, in the name of the nation, that the scandal should be terminated; and, the case being fairly brought before his court, gave judgment that the marriage was void *ab initio*, May 23, 1533. He had now performed his task, and withdrew into a literary retirement, which, broken only in 1536 and 1540 by the pronouncement of two more iniquitous sentences of divorce, lasted till the fall of Cromwell, a minister as little inclined to endure a rival as Cranmer to become one. From that date his greater prominence is attested by two plots formed by the reactionary party for his destruction, from which he was preserved only by the unswerving confidence of the king. Yet at no time can he be called a politician: his influence was wholly personal, and confined to Henry, on whose death he again sank into the background. But in this retirement Cranmer was laying the foundations of the new order of things. On his elevation to the primacy he had but two points of sympathy with the continental Protestants—repudiation of the papal supremacy and the translation of the Scriptures. But the patristic studies with which he maintained the attack on the papacy gradually unveiled to him the features of a more apostolic and spiritual Christianity, whose truths he accepted, one by one, as conviction was forced upon his mind, till, in 1550, he published his book against Transubstantiation, wherein is maintained the Anglican doctrine of the Real, as against the Corporeal, Presence. Cranmer's reconstitution of the church services remains his real title to greatness. His was a formative, not a creative, intellect, and, while his revision of the old Uses may be ranked for beauty and dignity with the Authorized Version of the Bible, his attempt to replace the Roman Canon Law is a monument of mistaken energy. Throughout all these reforms, his appeal is not from superstition to reason, but from the Church corrupt to the Church pure; nothing illustrates his catholic position better than his own words before the commission at Oxford:—"If it can be proved by any doctor above 1,000 years after Christ, that Christ's body is there in the eucharist really present, I will give all over."

During Edward's reign Cranmer was concerned in two political acts of great importance. At the coronation the archbishop, on his own responsibility, altered the position of the coronation oath, putting it after the expression of the popular assent. This innovation, by destroying the conditional character of that assent, amounted to the assertion of absolute hereditary right. The second act was the signing of Edward's illegal device for the succession, which was, however, performed with the greatest reluctance, and on the assurance of the judges. It sufficed to secure his condemnation for high treason on Mary's accession. The new government seems at first to have had no desire to shed blood; but Cranmer, the pilot of the Reformation, could not seize the numerous opportunities of escape which were offered; he remained, either overrating his own strength or underrating the impending danger. With his two bosom friends, Latimer and Ridley, he was taken to Oxford (March 1554) to hold an academical disputation, having spent the preceding three months in the Tower. After a parody of controversy, all three were summoned before a synod of presbyters and condemned as heretics. His friends suffered before him: the archbishop's case was delayed by the necessity of application to the papal court, and by the desire of Cardinal Pole to ruin the cause of heresy by the recantation of the heresiarch. In the latter aim he succeeded. Cranmer was at first induced to accept the papal supremacy, not as a doctrine, but as a fact, and his defence once broken down, and honour lost, he was led on to sign a detailed abjuration of all his anti-papal convictions. Fortunately for the Reformation, the queen had resolved on his destruction, and to the public eye Cranmer died a martyr (March 21, 1556). How far repentance preceded the knowledge of his fate must be left to conjecture. At the worst, he should be judged by his life, not by one failure under an overwhelming temptation. He was a man of deep piety and honesty of purpose, and in private life his sweet temper exercised a peculiar fascination; but a certain moral weakness taints his whole career, and leaves his character one of the most difficult to estimate in history.

Cranmer's "Miscellaneous Writings and Letters" (Parker Society), 1846; biographies by A. D. Innes, 1900, A. F. Pollard, 1904, and C. H. Smyth, 1926.

[H. R. R.]

Crayford, in Kent, about thirteen miles from London, is usually identified with Creccanford, where, in 457 (?), the Britons were entirely routed by Hengest and Æsc.

Crécy, The Battle of (August 26, 1346), was fought between the English, under King Edward III, and the French, commanded by Philip VI. The English army had landed on the

coast of Normandy, near La Hogue, on July 12, and Edward had then intended to cross the Seine, march through Picardy into Artois, and there join his Flemish auxiliaries, who had already crossed the French frontier. But when he arrived at Rouen he found the bridges over the Seine broken, and the French army on the opposite shore. Edward marched along the river almost to the suburbs of Paris, and burnt St. Germain and Neuilly, and at length (August 17) by a stratagem succeeded in crossing the river at Poissy, advanced towards the Somme, and crossed at Blanchetaque, near Abbeville. Not far from this town, at Crécy, he halted, and allowed the French to come up (August 26). The army was drawn up the following morning in three divisions or battles on the western slopes of the Maye valley. The first, under the command of the Black Prince, occupied the right, near the village of Crécy. The second division, under the Earls of Northampton and Arundel, held the slopes of the upper portion of the Vallée aux Clercs—a lateral depression running down into the Maye valley in a north and south direction —and had the village of Wadicourt on its left. The third division was held in reserve under the king, on some slightly rising ground in the rear, on which was situated a windmill whence Edward was able to watch the progress of the battle. The English men-at-arms left their horses in the rear; while the archers of the two forward battles were drawn up on the flanks at such an angle as to enable them to harass the advancing enemy by the discharge of converging volleys of arrows. According to Froissart, the whole army did not amount to more than 8,000 men; but this estimate is probably too low. The French forces are computed at the no less improbably high total of from 60,000 to 120,000. The French army marched from Abbeville at sunrise, and arrived at Crécy in considerable confusion. The battle was begun by the advance of a large body of Genoese, armed with crossbows. But the Genoese, whose bowstrings had been wetted in a recent storm, fell into disorder before the shooting of the English archers. The French cavalry, under the Duke of Alençon, then fell impetuously upon the English first and second divisions. After a desperate conflict, during which the king was more than once requested to bring up the reserves, the French cavalry retired in the greatest disorder, and Philip himself fled from the field. The French fought on in a desultory manner till night, and not till the following morning was it discovered that the French army was completely scattered and routed. The English losses were insignificant, but on the French side the flower of the French nobility had fallen. Among the dead were the blind king, John of Bohemia, and Louis of Nevers, Count of Flanders.

Detailed account of the battle is in Froissart, c.126; and G. Wrottesley, "Creçy and Calais," 1898.

[S. L.]

Creones, The, were an ancient Celtic tribe, said to have dwelt on the west coast of Ross.

Cressingham, Hugh (*d.* 1297), was appointed treasurer of Scotland by Edward I in 1296, on Baliol's surrender of the crown of Scotland, at the same time that the Earl of Surrey was appointed guardian. His endeavours to execute the command of the English king that Scotland was to be reduced to a state of order incurred the hatred of the Scots, and the national party under Wallace made rapid strides. Cressingham was slain at the battle of Stirling, in which, although a clerk, he took an active part, and which was lost by the English in a great measure owing to his precipitancy.

P. Hume Brown, "History of Scotland," 1911.

Crevant, The Battle of (July 31, 1423), was won by the English and Burgundian troops, under the Earl of Salisbury and others, against a mixed force consisting primarily of French and Scots, with levies from Spain and Lombardy. The English were completely victorious. Sir John Stewart of Darnley, the leader of the Scottish contingent, was slain, and many nobles were either killed or taken prisoner. This victory, which was fought on the banks of the Yonne, near Auxerre, saved Burgundy from invasion, and greatly crippled the power of the French.

Sir C. Oman, "England and the Hundred Years' War," 1898.

Crichton, Sir William, chancellor of Scotland, was governor of Edinburgh Castle at the death of James I (1437). In his endeavours to get possession of the young king's person, he was brought into rivalry with Sir Alexander Livingston, from whom he carried off James II, only, however, to surrender him again on consideration of receiving certain lands as a reward. In conjunction with Livingston, he planned and carried out the murder of William, Earl of Douglas, and his brother. He was for some time at war with the Douglas family, who formed an alliance with Livingston, and was besieged by them in Edinburgh Castle, in 1445. In 1450, however, his old rival was attainted, and Crichton reigned supreme in the king's favour. He died in 1454, two years after James's assassination of James Douglas.

P. Hume Brown, "History of Scotland," 1911.

Crimean War, fought between Russia on the one hand, and Great Britain, France, Turkey, and Sardinia on the other, began in 1854, and lasted till 1856. It is called the Crimean War because the main operation of it consisted in the attack made by the allied forces on the peninsula of the Crimea in the south of Russia. The dispute between Russia and Turkey had arisen ostensibly about the guardianship of the Holy Places,

especially the Holy Sepulchre, in Jerusalem; but the root cause of it lay much deeper. Turkey, the old enemy of Russia, had gradually retired from the Balkan countries she had originally conquered, and, as her power decayed, had become more and more unfit to rule over Christian populations. Russia, who had emancipated herself from Tartar thraldom, was deeply interested in protecting the Slavonic races still under Turkish rule, which were of the same blood and origin as herself. She also had a natural desire to extend her power to the Dardanelles, and to open a way for her commerce into the Mediterranean. [Vienna Conference.] The Emperor Nicholas I wrote of Turkey as "a sick man dying," and his plan for dividing his possessions included the formation of the Danubian principalities, Serbia and Bulgaria, into principalities under the suzerainty of Russia, and the occupation of Egypt and Candia by Great Britain. Constantinople was to be held neither by Russia, France, Great Britain, nor Greece. Sir Stratford Canning, the British ambassador at Constantinople, was an enemy of Russia. The Emperor of the French was desirous of a European war for the consolidation of his throne. On July 2, 1853, the Russian troops crossed the River Pruth, and occupied the principalities of Moldavia and Wallachia. On October 23 war was declared, and on November 30 the Turkish fleet was destroyed in the harbour of Sinope. Lord Aberdeen, the British prime minister, strained every nerve to preserve peace, but Lord Palmerston, foreign secretary, declared that he would resign unless a strong course against Russia were adopted. The country gradually "drifted into war." On February 27, 1854, an ultimatum was sent by the government, which declared that unless the Russian troops retired behind the River Pruth before the end of April, their advance would be considered as a declaration of war. No reply was made, and after the abortive attempt at mediation by the powers, enshrined in the Vienna Note of July 31, the war took its course.

Austria and Prussia contracted an offensive and defensive alliance, by which they guaranteed each other's possessions in case of attack. They also prepared their forces in readiness for war. The alliance between Great Britain and France was signed on April 10. The plan of operations was very simple. As Russia could be attacked only in her extremities, and Great Britain could act only upon a sea base, there were not many places into which the two combatants could come into conflict. A fleet sailed into the Baltic, under Admiral Napier, with great expectations of success, which were not realized. On September 14 the allied forces landed in the Crimea. They consisted of 24,000 British, 22,000 French, and 8,000 Turkish troops. Their object was to capture Sebastopol, a powerful fortress, which the Russians had recently constructed at great expense. On September 20 the Russians were defeated by the allied armies at the passage of the Alma (q.v.). It might have been possible to take Sebastopol by a *coup de main*, but it was thought more prudent to besiege it from the south. A brilliant flank march was executed, and the harbour of Balaclava was occupied by the British as a base of operations. On October 25 was fought the battle of Balaclava, signalized by the famous charge of the six hundred light cavalry upon the Russian guns [Balaclava, The Battle of], and the far more effective charge of the heavy cavalry, under General Scarlett. On November 5 the British troops were attacked in the early morning by large masses of Russians, and held their ground with great steadiness until the afternoon. This was the battle of Inkerman (q.v.), in which the defenders lost 2,612 killed and wounded, and the Russians, it is said, 12,000. The winter tried the British troops severely. Notwithstanding the devotion of Florence Nightingale in nursing the sick, the supply of hospital accommodation was insufficient, and the commissariat broke down. This caused great indignation in England, and Lord Aberdeen was succeeded as prime minister by Lord Palmerston. In December the allied fleet in the Baltic was broken up, and returned home; and on March 2 the Emperor of Russia died. This caused but a slight hope of peace; the fleet returned to the Baltic on April 4, and the bombardment of Sebastopol began five days later. On June 7 the French succeeded in carrying the Mamelon, one of the Sebastopol forts, but an attack made by the allied forces on the Redan and the Malakhoff forts, on June 18, was unsuccessful; and on June 28 Lord Raglan, the British commander-in-chief, died. On August 16 the French distinguished themselves greatly in the battle of the Tchernaya. After a month's incessant bombardment, a final attack was made on the works of Sebastopol on September 8, the result of which was that the Russians evacuated the town and retreated to the north side of the harbour. They blew up their forts as far as they could, and left their wounded behind them. The news reached England on September 10. This practically put an end to the war in the Crimea. Before the end of the year negotiations for peace were begun by the friendly intervention of Austria. The French government were even more anxious for a settlement than the British. The points on which Russia found it most difficult to make concessions were the limitation of her power in the Black Sea, and the cession of a part of Bessarabia to Rumania. The provisions on these points were cancelled in 1871 and 1878 respectively. [Black Sea Conference; Berlin Treaty.] The Peace of Paris (q.v.), which terminated the war, was signed on Sunday, March 30, 1856. The last British forces left the Crimea on July 12. The British lost 24,000 soldiers during the war, the French 63,500, and the Russians, it is

said, 500,000. The war added £41,000,000 to the National Debt.

A. W. Kinglake, "Invasion of the Crimea," 1863–87; Sir E. Hamley, "War in the Crimea," 1891; Sir J. A. R. Marriott, "Eastern Question," 1917.

[O. B.]

Crinan (Cronan, *d.* 1045), lay abbot of Dunkeld, was a powerful and warlike chieftain, who married a daughter of Malcolm I, by whom he had a son, Duncan, King of Scotland 1034–40. Crinan was slain in battle (1045) whilst fighting against Macbeth.

Crofts (or Croft), Sir James (*d.* 1590), was made deputy of Ireland in 1551, his tenure of office being marked by the distress suffered by the country owing to the debasement of coinage. In 1554 he took arms against Queen Mary in Sir Thomas Wyatt's rebellion, and was sent to the Tower in consequence. Under Elizabeth, Crofts became commander on the Scottish border, and in 1560 crossed the border with the English expedition under Lord Grey. His mismanagement at the assault on Leith in 1560 caused the repulse of the English, and in consequence Crofts was deprived of his command and sent to London. He subsequently played a prominent part in parliamentary life. He was a commissioner at the trial of Mary Queen of Scots in 1586.

Cromer, Evelyn Baring, 1st Earl (1841–1917). [Baring.]

Cromwell, Bridget (1624–81), was the eldest daughter of Oliver Cromwell. She is described as being "a gloomy enthusiast, and so bigoted a republican that she even grudged her father the title of Protector." She married Henry Ireton (q.v.), and subsequently Charles Fleetwood (q.v.).

Cromwell, Elizabeth (1629–58), was the second and favourite daughter of the Protector. She is said to have been firmly attached to the royal cause, and it is certain that she frequently interceded on behalf of Royalist prisoners.

Cromwell, Frances, Lady Russell (1638–1721), the youngest child of Oliver Cromwell. According to Burnet, Charles II thought of asking for her hand to secure his own restoration, but this is scarcely probable. In 1657 she became the wife of Robert Rich, grandson of Lord Warwick, who, however, died in three months. She subsequently married Sir John Russell, by whom she had a large family.

Cromwell, Henry (1628–74), was the youngest son of Oliver Cromwell. He entered the Parliamentary army in 1642, and before he was twenty obtained a troop in Fairfax's life-guards. In 1650 he attained the rank of a colonel, and accompanied his father to Ireland. He was a member of the "Barebones'" Parliament of 1653, and in 1655, after being sent over to Ireland to observe the condition of affairs in that country, was made lord deputy. His government of Ireland was exceedingly popular, and the moderation and justice of his measures pleased all except the extremists of either side. On the triumph of the parliamentary party over the Protector he was superseded, and retired into private life.

Cromwell, Oliver (*b.* April 25, 1599, *d.* September 3, 1658), was a native of Huntingdon, the son of Robert Cromwell and Elizabeth Steward, and connected by blood with the family of Thomas Cromwell, Earl of Essex. He was educated at Huntingdon School, and at Sidney Sussex College, Cambridge, where he entered as a fellow-commoner on April 23, 1616. On his father's death in the following year he returned home, married Elizabeth Bourchier (August 1620), and settled down to farm his own lands. He was elected member for Huntingdon in 1628, and complained against the Bishop of Winchester for silencing controversial preaching. In the Short Parliament and the Long Parliament he represented Cambridge, and soon attained considerable influence. It has been ascertained that within the first ten months of the Long Parliament Cromwell was specially appointed to eighteen committees, exclusive of various positions which he shared with the knights and burgesses generally of the eastern counties. He moved the second reading of the Annual Parliament Bill (December 30, 1640), and was one of those who drew up the Root and Branch Bill (q.v.). On religious questions he was specially active, and he had decided to emigrate if the Grand Remonstrance had not passed. He was also one of the foremost in laying hands on the executive power, and moved (November 6, 1641) to entrust the Earl of Essex with power over the trained bands till parliament should take further order. In the summer of 1642 he began arming and drilling the Cambridge Trained Bands, and seized the plate of that university to prevent it from being carried to the king. He served at Edgehill at the head of the troop of horse which he had raised, and is mentioned by Fiennes as doing good service. In January 1643 he secured the town of Cambridge, and arrested the Royalist sheriff of Hertfordshire. In March he suppressed a rising at Lowestoft; in April he raised the siege of Crowland; on May 13 defeated the Royalists of Newark at Grantham; in July he retook Stamford, captured Burghley House, and relieved Gainsborough. His services were recognized by his appointment as governor of the Isle of Ely, and second in command of the army of the Eastern Association, which his activity had made it possible to form (August 1643). Next month he joined the cavalry of Sir Thomas Fairfax, in Lincolnshire, and helped to gain the victory of Winceby, where he commanded the van (October 11, 1643). In the following year he led the left wing at Marston Moor, which,

after driving Prince Rupert's division from the field, fell on Newcastle's foot in the centre and decided the victory. He was also present at the second battle of Newbury (October 27, 1644), and a month later charged his commander, the Earl of Manchester, with slackness in making use of the advantages then gained. Lest the war should be protracted by the self-interest or incapacity of members of parliament, he supported the Self-denying Ordinance (q.v.), and the formation of a regular army officered by professional soldiers. In spite of that law, his services were too valuable to be dispensed with. In February 1645 he was sent on an expedition into the west under Waller. When he returned to resign his command he was ordered into Oxfordshire to intercept a convoy going to Oxford, which he performed at Islip (April 24). On May 10 he was continued in his command for forty days longer, and Fairfax was authorized to appoint him to command the horse, and this appointment was confirmed and extended from time to time. At Naseby (July 14, 1645) he commanded the right wing, totally routed the forces opposed to him, and, keeping his troopers well in hand, led them against the king's centre with equal success. With Fairfax he then went into the west, was present at the storming of Bristol, and at the battle of Langport. Winchester, Basing House, and other fortresses were taken by him, and he took part in the siege of Oxford. During these three years Cromwell had also become the head of a political party. From the moment he took up arms he had sought to enlist men with a religious spirit in them, thinking them the only men able to oppose gentlemen of honour and courage. What their particular form of creed was he cared little. "The state," he declared, "in choosing men to serve it, takes no notice of their opinions; if they be willing to serve it faithfully, that suffices." His enemies termed him "the great Independent," and saw in him the champion of the opposition to the imposition of Presbyterian orthodoxy on England. This question of toleration, with two other questions then at issue between the army and the parliament—the right of the soldiers to be fairly paid for their services, and their claim to have a voice in making a safe and proper settlement with the king—brought him into opposition with the parliament. Matters came to a crisis when, in the spring of 1647, parliament voted the disbanding of the army. Cromwell did his best to prevent a rupture, attempted to mediate and reconcile, and when these attempts failed and he found himself in danger of arrest, cast in his lot with Fairfax and the army (June 3, 1647). After the exclusion of the eleven members he took an active part in the debates of the Commons and the negotiations with the king. There he endeavoured to fix a limit to the establishment of Presbyterianism (October 13), and supported the continuance of the negotiations with the king in spite of his rejection of the nineteen propositions. He hoped to come to an agreement with Charles on the basis of the new propositions, which were a compromise between the demands of the army and the parliament. Even after the king's flight (November 3) he still continued this policy, until the rejection of the four bills (December 28, 1647), and the outbreak of the second Civil War, May 1648, taught him the impossibility of trusting Charles. Probably in March or April 1648, at a prayer meeting of the officers at Windsor, where Cromwell was present, it was decided to call the king to account as soon as peace was restored. Then he marched against the Welsh insurgents (May), took Pembroke (July), hurried north to meet the Scots, and totally defeated them at Preston and Warrington (August 17–19, 1648). He was still in the north when the army again seized the king, and put an end to the Newport Treaty; nor had he any part in Pride's Purge (q.v.), though he approved of both these acts. He was present every day during the king's trial, and his name stands third amongst the fifty-nine attached to the warrant for his execution. Naturally he was nominated one of the council of state, but as he was appointed commander of the army destined for Ireland (March 15), he could not long take part in their sittings. He landed at Dublin August 15, 1649. The storming of Drogheda (September 10) was followed by the massacre of the garrison, which Cromwell justified, first, as a righteous judgment of God, and secondly, as tending to prevent the effusion of blood for the future. Trim, Dundalk, and other towns were at once abandoned; Arklow and Enniscorthy terrified into surrender; Wexford held out, and shared the fate of Drogheda; and the campaign closed with the unsuccessful siege of Waterford. In seven months Leinster had been regained. In the following spring, Kilkenny (March 27, 1650) and Clonmel (May 18) were taken. At the end of May Cromwell returned to England, to command—as Fairfax refused to do so—the army ordered to invade Scotland. For about a month the forces of Cromwell and Leslie manœuvred round Edinburgh, the Scots refusing to give battle, the English declining to attack positions too strong for them. At the end of August Cromwell was forced to retreat to Dunbar, where Leslie attacked him, and was routed with the loss of 3,000 men killed, and 10,000 prisoners (September 3, 1650). Edinburgh and Leith fell into Cromwell's hands; the west of Scotland followed, and before Christmas all the country south of the Forth was in his possession. From February to June 1651 he was ill, and his army inactive. On June 25 he marched against Leslie, who was posted at Stirling, and failing to dislodge him, crossed into Fifeshire, subsequently capturing Perth (August 2). The king's army marched straight into England, and established itself at Worcester, where Cromwell

attacked and destroyed it (September 3, 1652). The great influence these services gave him, Cromwell used to secure as speedily as possible the settlement the country so much needed. In less than a fortnight after his victory he raised the question of a new parliament (September 16), and succeeded in inducing the House to fix a limit for its own power. He became an active member of the commission for law reform, a very zealous supporter of the "Bill for General Pardon and Oblivion," and the champion of freedom of conscience in the committee for the propagation of the gospel. His great object was to use his influence and his position to secure the speedy meeting of the new reformed parliament, which, according to the decision of the Rump, was not to meet till November 1654. The impatience of the army urged him on, and a petition from the council of officers (August 12, 1652) demanded more alacrity in the necessary reforms. The bill which was to settle the constitution of the new assembly seemed to Cromwell and the officers to be meant rather to perpetuate and recruit the Rump than to secure these reforms. He therefore endeavoured to stop this bill by agreement, or to persuade the parliament to delegate their powers; and when he found them still hurrying through the objectionable bill, he put an end to their sitting (April 20, 1653). The result of this action was the separation of the civil and military elements of the republican party, and the continued refusal of the former (with some considerable exceptions) to recognize the authority of the other as legitimate. Cromwell and the council of officers began by appointing a council of state of thirteen persons (April 29—July 4, 1653). Then a representative assembly of Puritan notables was summoned by the council of officers, to effect the necessary reforms. But its reforming zeal seemed to threaten the foundations of law and religion, so the more conservative members resigned their authority into the hands which had entrusted it to them (July 4—December 12, 1653). The council of officers renewed their deliberations under Oliver Cromwell's presidency, and decided to make a single person head of the government. Cromwell was accordingly installed Lord Protector (December 16, 1653), to govern with the aid of a permanent council and a parliament, to be summoned every three years. [Instrument of Government.] For nine months protector and council governed, raised money, and legislated without a parliament. His first parliament met on September 3, 1654, and immediately called in question the "Instrument" of government, and claimed to revise the constitution and limit the protector's powers. In spite of the exclusion of a hundred members, it persisted in this claim, and Cromwell dissolved it (January 22, 1655). He had to struggle not only against discontented republicans, but against fresh outbreaks of the Royalists. He replied by a further development of military rule, and by partially abandoning his policy of toleration. England was divided (August 1655) into twelve military districts, governed by major-generals, the expenses of whose administration were supplied by an income tax on Royalists, and the public services of the Church of England were suppressed (November 1655). Abroad, however, the prospect was more favourable. Cromwell had signalized the first months of his rule by the conclusion of advantageous treaties with Holland (April 5, 1654), Sweden (April 28), Portugal (March 10); and Denmark. Spain and France contended for his alliance. His influence forced Savoy to restore the privileges of the Vaudois (August 18, 1655); the conquest of Jamaica announced his rupture with Spain, and a treaty of commerce sealed his friendship with France (October 24, 1655). These successes, and the desire to obtain some constitutional sanction for his government, led Cromwell to call a second parliament (September 17, 1656). The preliminary exclusion of about a hundred refractory members secured a more docile assembly, in deference to whose vote Cromwell gave up his institution of the major-generals. They went on to revise the constitution, to establish a new House of Lords, and to offer Cromwell the title of king. His refusal of the title, mainly dictated by the opposition of the army, did not prevent him from accepting their constitutional amendments, and he was again, with legally defined powers, installed as protector (June 26, 1657). [Humble Petition and Advice.] But the House of Commons, whose composition was materially altered by the admission of the excluded members and the absence of the new lords, rejected the authority of the other House, and Cromwell indignantly dissolved it (February 4, 1658). This confusion at home was perhaps compensated by brighter prospects abroad. If his plan for the union of the Protestant powers failed, the alliance with France ripened into an offensive and defensive league against Spain, and the battle of Dunkirk (June 4, 1658) made his arms renowned through Europe. Cromwell's vigour was now beginning to decay, and being attacked by a fever, he died September 3, 1658. Cromwell's person and character are thus described by a gentleman of his household:—"His body was well compact and strong; his stature under six foot (I believe about two inches); his head so shaped as you might see it a storehouse and shop both of a vast treasury of natural parts. His temper exceeding fiery, as I have known, but the flame of it kept down for the most part, or soon allayed with those moral endowments he had. He was naturally compassionate towards objects in distress, even to an effeminate measure; though God had made him a heart wherein was left little room for any fear, but what was due to himself, of which there was a large proportion, yet did he exceed in tenderness towards sufferers. A

larger soul, I think, hath seldom dwelt in a house of clay than his was." "He was a strong man," adds another observer; "in the dark perils of war, in the high places of the field, hope shone in him like a pillar of fire when it had gone out in all the others." [COMMONWEALTH.]

Carlyle, "Cromwell's Letters and Speeches," 1845; Sanford, "Studies and Illustrations of the Great Rebellion"; "Thurloe Papers"; Clarendon, "History of the Rebellion," 1702–4; Whitelocke, "Memorials," 1682; Oxford edn., 4 vols., 1853; C. H. Firth, "Cromwell," 1890, and "Cromwell's Army," 3rd edn., 1921, and "Last Years of the Protectorate, 1656–8," 1909; W. Michael, "Cromwell," 1907; J. R. Seeley, "Growth of British Policy," 2 vols., 1910.

Cromwell, RALPH, LORD (*d.* 1455), was one of the council of regency during Henry VI's minority. He sided with Beaufort against Gloucester; in the year 1443 he was appointed treasurer, and held this important office for ten years, during which time he showed considerable financial ability. In 1449 an attempt was made to assassinate him, which he attributed to Suffolk. He supported the Lancastrian party, but died shortly after the first battle of St. Albans.

Cromwell, RICHARD (1626–1712), third son of the protector, was educated at Felstead School, entered at Lincoln's Inn 1647, and married Dorothy Mayor 1649. During his father's life he lived as a private gentleman in the country. In July 1657 he was elected, after his father's resignation, chancellor of the University of Oxford, and about the same time he was admitted into the council of state. His father on his death-bed nominated him as his successor, and he was accepted as such in England and by the European powers. In his new position he is said to have carried himself discreetly, and better than was expected. A parliament was assembled in January 1659, which recognized him as protector, but the republican minority, headed by Vane and Haselrig, united with the officers of the army, headed by Lambert, Fleetwood, and Desborough, to force him to dissolve parliament (April 1659). His supporters urged him to meet force by force, but he replied, "I will not have a drop of blood spilt for the preservation of my greatness, which is a burden to me." He signed a formal abdication (May 1659), in return for which the restored Rump undertook the discharge of his debts. After the Restoration he fled to the continent, where he remained for twenty years, returning in 1680.

Sir R. Tangye, "The Two Protectors," 1899.

Cromwell, THOMAS, EARL OF ESSEX (*d.* 1540). The early life of Thomas Cromwell is obscure, and the various stories told concerning it are scarcely consistent. He is said to have been the son of a blacksmith at Putney. In early youth he served as a common soldier in the wars of Italy. He began a commercial career with a Venetian trader; next he was a clerk at Antwerp, and then a wool merchant at Middelburg, in Zealand. He returned to England, and did business as a scrivener, being half lawyer, half money-lender. He lent money to the poor nobles, who at the extravagant court of Henry VIII were often reduced to sore straits. While engaged in these pursuits he showed great aptitude for business, and became widely known. In 1524 he was employed by Cardinal Wolsey to manage the details of business connected with the suppression of the smaller monasteries and the foundation of Wolsey's colleges at Ipswich and Oxford. In this occupation Cromwell showed himself unscrupulous, and became very unpopular. On Wolsey's fall, in 1529, he showed his extreme cleverness by using his fidelity to a fallen master as a means of promoting his own interests. He advised Wolsey to buy off the malice of his enemies by judicious grants of pensions out of the revenues of his bishopric. In carrying out these arrangements he commended himself to many powerful friends, and prepared the way for passing over to the service of the king. He suggested to Henry VIII that he should settle the divorce question by declaring himself Supreme Head of the Church of England, and prosecuting the matter in his own ecclesiastical courts. The advice struck Henry. He made Cromwell a member of the privy council, and soon afterwards a secretary of state. Cromwell devoted his energies to raising the royal power above all other authority, and establishing by its means a new order of things. His political text-book, according to Cardinal Pole, was Machiavelli's "Principe." He looked to the strong hand of absolutism to work reforms. By his advice the royal supremacy was declared, appeals to Rome were forbidden, and the king's divorce was pronounced by the Archbishop of Canterbury. In 1534 the Act of Supremacy vested authority in matters ecclesiastical solely in the Crown, and in the next year Cromwell was appointed "vicar-general," or the king's vicegerent in matters ecclesiastical. He was already chancellor, so that he now held in his own hands the chief authority in things secular and spiritual. Cromwell set himself to reduce the Church into obedience to the Crown. He humbled the bishops by treating them as royal officials. He struck at the wealth of the Church by ordering a general visitation of the religious houses. In consequence of the report of the visitors, the lesser monasteries, to the number of 400, were suppressed, and their revenues granted to the Crown (1536). Cromwell's hand was felt everywhere. He directed the clergy what they were to preach about, and revoked the licences of those who would not obey. His spies filled the land, and words of discontent were wrested into proofs of conspiracy, and met with condign punishment. The execution of More and Fisher taught men

that they were to expect no mercy unless they obeyed. The northern rebellion was crushed, and led to the suppression of the remaining monasteries (1539). But when Cromwell's success seemed certain, there came a reaction. The violence of the advanced Protestant party awakened general discontent. Henry VIII found that in following Cromwell he had become allied with doctrines which he was not prepared to accept. The Act of Six Articles (1539) marked a Catholic reaction, which seriously affected Cromwell's position. But it was the progress of foreign affairs which brought about his fall. The changes which had been made in England were viewed with anger by the Emperor Charles V, who was hindered from interfering in England only by his war with France. Henry VIII trusted to his French alliance; but as France also looked suspiciously on the new English policy, Cromwell sought a new alliance with the Lutheran princes of Germany. He hoped to make a strong coalition, by which France, England, and the German Lutherans should unite to crush the power of the house of Austria. As an earnest of this policy, he laboured for the marriage of Henry VIII with Anne, daughter of the Duke of Cleves, and niece of John Frederick, Elector of Saxony, who was the head of the Smalcaldic League. He carried his point, and received a new sign of the royal favour by being created Earl of Essex. But the marriage with Anne of Cleves was unsuccessful on both personal and political grounds. Henry VIII was disappointed in his new wife, and conceived an aversion for her. The political schemes of Cromwell did not prosper. France drew nearer to the emperor; the Lutheran princes still held by their principle of passive resistance, and showed no signs of taking active measures. Henry VIII was willing to allow his minister full power so long as he succeeded; at the first sign of failure, at the first appearance of difficulty to himself, he remorselessly sacrificed his favourite. Cromwell had few friends, and his disgrace was a sure means of bringing back the king's popularity. On June 10, 1540, Cromwell was arrested in the council chamber on the charge of high treason. A bill of attainder was rapidly passed through parliament. Cromwell was not allowed to speak in his own defence, and was executed on July 28, 1540. Cromwell lived simply, and devoted himself entirely to his political occupations. His influence over the king was supreme while he was in power, and the separation of the English Church from the papacy was due entirely to his skilfully devised measures. He was resolute and unscrupulous, with a clearly-defined policy. But he advanced too fast, till he stood absolutely alone, and when he lost the royal favour he had nothing on which to fall back. He risked everything on the marriage of Henry VIII with Anne of Cleves. Had Anne been personally attractive to the king, Cromwell's policy might have developed results of more permanent influence.

J. S. Brewer, "History of the Reign of Henry VIII"; A. F. Pollard, "Henry VIII," 1902; A. Galton, "Cromwell," 1887; R. B. Merriman, "Life and Times of Thomas Cromwell," 1902. [M. C.]

Cropredy Bridge, The Battle of (June 29, 1644), was fought near Banbury, between the Royalists, led by Charles I in person, and a part of the Parliamentary forces, commanded by Sir William Waller, whose attempt to cross the Cherwell and attack the king's troops in the rear proved unsuccessful.

Crotoye, The Battle of (1347), between the English and French fleets, was occasioned by the attempt of the latter to relieve Calais during the siege of the town by Edward III. The French fleet was entirely defeated, all attempts to relieve Calais by sea were abandoned, and English supremacy in the Channel was established.

G. Wrottesley, "Creçy and Calais," 1898.

Crowland, or Croyland, a town of Lincolnshire, about eight miles north-east of Peterborough, is the site of a great abbey, the origin and foundation of which are obscure. It is said to have been founded in 714 by Ethelbald of Mercia; to have been burnt by the Danes in 870, and restored under Edred in the middle of the tenth century. The buildings were again destroyed by fire in 1091. Under Abbot Geoffrey, who was appointed in 1110, the church was again restored on a scale of considerable splendour. The abbot sat in the parliaments of the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries, but the town was never a parliamentary borough. After the dissolution of the abbey in 1539, the prosperity of Crowland rapidly diminished.

T. H. Le Bœuf, "Notes on Crowland Abbey," 1905.

Crown, The. In England monarchy is generally held to have been a direct product of the Anglo-Saxon conquest in the fifth and sixth centuries. The commonly accepted view is that in their German home the Saxons were ruled by elected magistrates (*ealdormen*) in time of peace, and led to battle by elected generals (*heretoga*), whose authority expired with the war. Unlike their old tribal forays, the expedition to Britain entailed a chronic struggle between natives and invaders, which lasted several generations; and as the duration of the heretoga's exceptional powers were defined by the duration of the war, the mere force of circumstances now rendered those powers permanent. This change, amounting to the creation of a new office, was recognized, and sanctioned by the adoption of a title already in use amongst other Teutonic tribes, the title *King*, or *Cyn*-ing (head of the *kin*). Actually, however, recent investigations have proved the fallacy of the theory that kingship was unknown among the Anglo-Saxon peoples before the conquest. There is direct evidence of the existence of monarchical

institutions prior to the fifth century, although kingship may not have been universal. The primitive king was ealdorman and heretoga in one; he was elected, but the danger of interregnum in the presence of an endless war leading to the practice of electing his successor in his lifetime, the influence of the victorious general was usually sufficient to secure his son's nomination. The prescription thus established gradually confined the national choice to descendants of the first king, and myth soon explained and hallowed the preference by investing them with the halo of a divine pedigree. Christianity swept away the claim to descent from Woden, but more than compensated by the introduction of Old Testament ideas and the example of the Empire. The king, who had hitherto differed from his subjects only in degree, began to assume the style and arrogate the pretensions of the Byzantine court. The oath of homage taken by his thegns was assimilated to the sacramentum (or Roman oath of military obedience, originally taken by the army alone, but extended later to the holders of civil office, and finally to all subjects), and by the time of the reign of Edmund had become the oath of allegiance exacted from every freeman of full age. The king was now lord of the race (*cynehlaford*); plots against his life were punishable, like treason against any *hlaford* (lord), with death and forfeiture; and finally, the Statute of Treasons, 25 Ed. III, left the king on a constitutional pinnacle, no longer the first among equals.

It is from this fusion of Imperial and Teutonic ideas that the theory prevalent in most European systems of law has sprung. The lawyers distinguish carefully between two kings—the ideal and the real. The former is the state: the fountain of legislation, of justice, of honour; i.e., the despot of Imperial law. This ideal person resides from time to time in the real king, who is subject to all the imperfections of human nature, and represents the Teutonic head of the kin, limited by the caprice and free instincts of his subjects. The relation of these two persons forms the main subject of constitutional history, their identification leading to despotism, their separation to limited monarchy. In England that separation is enshrined in the famous resolution of 1642, in which the Lords and Commons declare themselves a "council . . . to provide for the necessities . . . of the kingdom, and to declare the king's pleasure in those things that are requisite thereunto, and that what they do therein hath the stamp of royal authority, although his Majesty, seduced by evil counsel, do in his own person oppose or interrupt." This victory was mainly the result of financial struggles.

The Revenues of the Crown were of two main kinds, ordinary and extraordinary: i.e., those which belonged to the Crown in its own right, and those which came as a theoretically free gift from its subjects; and their history is the history of the absorption of the ordinary by the extraordinary. The former included (1) *the profits of the Crown lands*; (2) *purveyance* (the right exercised on royal progresses of buying at the lowest prices, and using forced labour); (3) *feudal incidents* (the three regular aids, escheat, forfeiture, relief, marriage, wardship); (4) *customs duties* (the price paid by merchants for the protection of the royal peace). The latter consisted primarily of the *aids* (q.v.) granted from time to time by the free tenants and clergy, in accordance with the recognized feudal principle that it was the duty of the tenant to come to his lord's assistance at times of financial crisis. The crusade of Richard I, the wickedness of John, and the weakness of Henry III impaired the ordinary revenue at a time when difficulties with France were yearly augmenting the expenditure. Edward I met the deficiency of the one by an expansion of the other. To this end he remodelled parliament, introducing representatives of the tax-paying classes, the country gentry, and the city merchants; and so rapidly did the power of the new assembly grow, that in 1275 it confirmed to the king the old customs on wool and leather, known thenceforth as *magna et antiqua custuma*: a grant which in effect transferred customs from the hereditary to the parliamentary revenue. In 1660 the abolition of feudal tenures and of purveyance narrowed the former down to the proceeds of the Crown estates; and these have in their turn been resigned in consideration of a fixed pension. At first the powers of parliament were limited to the making of the grant, the expending of which lay wholly with the Crown; but in 1378, during Richard II's minority, that principle of *appropriation* was introduced (by the provision that the tax granted for the French war should be paid over to two parliamentary treasurers, Philpot and Walworth) which, after a temporary collapse in the period of Tudor and Yorkist despotism, revived under James I, was confirmed by the Commonwealth, adopted as a momentary expedient by the Royalist parliament (1665), and finally, by the insertion of *Lord Somers's Clause* (March 1690), acquired a permanent position as an essential element of the original grant.

The Crown was the Fount of Law. "Lex fit consensu populi, constitutione regis," the maxim of the Teutonic empire, was also the theory of the English constitution, and endured in its original freshness till in Henry VI's reign the Commons adopted the form of bill instead of the older petition. Yet though this change practically reversed the legislative position of king and Commons, the old maxim still represents the legal theory. The Crown was also the Fount of Justice. This principle is of somewhat later origin, the shire and hundred courts in their earliest form deriving authority, not from the king, but from the nation. Even so late as the reign of Henry III,

the king might be sued in his own courts by a writ of the form *Præcipe Henrico Regi Angliæ*; nor was it till the last century that the abolition of private appeals in criminal cases left the Crown sole prosecutor, and removed the last limitation on the royal right of pardon. The process by which the national courts became the king's courts, and the national peace the king's peace, was the work of Norman centralization operating through the *Curia Regis* (q.v.). To strengthen the local courts against feudal encroachment, Henry I occasionally sent justices of the *Curia Regis* to preside in them. This practice, brought to a system by Henry II, superinduced, to the mutual satisfaction of king and people, the royal upon the national peace, till in the end the second was entirely overgrown and choked by the first. The Crown was further the Fount of Honour. In the days of chivalry any knight could confer the honour of knighthood. But with the decay of feudal service the political nobility of the peerage threw the social nobility of the knights completely into the shade. The class which owed title and privilege to the special writ of the Crown became far the most prominent in the state; the legal mind soon concluded that the monopoly enjoyed by the Crown of conferring the highest dignity must extend *à fortiori* to all inferior titles of honour.

Crown Supreme Landowner. Although the feudalization of society was proceeding rapidly before 1066, it was not until the Norman Conquest that the mediæval doctrine of the king as supreme landowner secured recognition. As a result of William's confiscation and regrant of the lands of the English, every landholder in the kingdom was converted into a tenant, mediate or immediate, of the Crown. Thus the change which had been proceeding sporadically before the accession was systematically completed, and the king became the one lord who was not also a tenant. The subsequent growth of the constitutional system and the abolition of feudal tenures (1660) have, however, degraded this once all-important maxim into a legal pleasantry.

Succession to the Crown. The king, it has been shown, was in early times elected; elected, that is to say, by the witan and accepted by the people, their choice being limited by unwritten custom to the members of a particular family. Primogeniture, the offspring of feudal tenure, did not affect the succession till the king of the people had become also the feudal lord of the soil. Yet so late as 1199, Hubert Walter, Archbishop of Canterbury, could assert without contradiction, in his opening speech at the coronation of John, that the English king rules not by hereditary right, but in virtue of his election, and that the national voice which gave could also take back the crown. The old form was observed even at the coronation of Charles I (1625) of presenting the new king to the crowd at the four corners of a raised platform, and demanding their assent to his nomination. The ground won by the solemn deposition of two kings, Edward II and Richard II, seemed lost in the Yorkist reaction, but the accession of Henry VII brought in a fresh parliamentary dynasty, and though the Stuarts for a time forced on the nation the absolutist maxims of the Scottish court, the triumph of the popular party was in the end complete, and the Revolution (1688) established for ever the constitutional principle that the King of England is an official and not a proprietary ruler. The legal maxim that "the king never dies" has developed simultaneously with the rule of succession. It was unknown in the earlier periods of our history. On the death of the Norman and early Angevin kings there always seems to have been a period, anterior to the coronation of the new sovereign, in which the lawless baron, or man of lower degree, felt himself free to commit whatever outrages he would, on the plea that there was as yet no higher potentate to whom he was responsible. From William I to Henry III inclusive, the reign of each king was considered only to commence at his coronation. From Edward II to Henry VIII, the accession is ascribed to the day following the death or deposition of the preceding king; but from Edward VI to the present day, the above-cited maxim has prevailed. [King.]

Crown, The Wearing of the. As part of the regalia, the crown seems to have been at first nothing more than a fillet of linen or cloth, intended to represent the halo symbolical of deity. Like most of the other regal ornaments, and the general apparatus of court ceremonial, the gold crown was borrowed from the emperors of the East, who, on the establishment of Christianity as the state religion, claimed for themselves the theocratic position of the ancient Jewish kings. The crown has been worn by the English monarchs—

(1) *At their Coronation.* After the administration of the coronation oath by the Archbishop of Canterbury, a special service is celebrated in Westminster Abbey, in the course of which the Dean of Westminster solemnly anoints the new king with holy oil, the great dignitaries invest him with the regalia, the imposition of the crown, performed by the archbishop himself, constituting the essential act of investiture. At that moment "the trumpets sound, the drums beat, and the people with loud and repeated shouts cry 'God save the king!' A signal is also given from the battlements of the church, at which the twenty-one great guns in St. James's Park are fired, and also the ordnance of the Tower."

(2) *In the Norman and Angevin periods at the Courts or Councils* held on the three great Church festivals of the year, Christmas, Easter, and Michaelmas. Edward I first omitted the custom, "saying merrily," that "crowns do rather onerate than honour princes."

The regalia used for the coronation were, till the Reformation, kept in the custody of the dean and chapter of Westminster, both for security and as an assertion of the national character of investiture. On the dissolution of the monasteries, they were transferred from the national to the royal keeping in the Tower. The Long Parliament destroyed them, as a protest against monarchical government. On the Restoration a new set was made, which exists at the present day. [H. R. R.]

Crown Lands were in pre-Norman times originally of wide extent, but the development of the practice of "booking" land, particularly to churches, had in the later Anglo-Saxon period a deleterious effect upon the royal resources. The Norman Conquest and the resulting confiscations converted the king for the first time into the theoretical owner of all the land of England—the one lord who was not also a tenant. The regrants, however, to the king's followers and friends soon radically reduced the amount of land actually held by the Crown, and under Henry III it was necessary to pass an act of resumption, while in the reign of Edward II an act was for some time in force forbidding the alienation of Crown lands. The royal demesnes were largely increased by forfeitures in the Wars of the Roses, by the acquisitiveness of Henry VII, and by the ecclesiastical confiscations of Henry VIII; but the necessities of James I and Charles I, and the action of the Long Parliament, disposed of all the royal estates, which were only recovered in part by the Parliamentary sales being declared void at the Restoration. The wholesale granting away of the Crown lands has a distinct constitutional importance, as having compelled the king to apply to parliament and the nation for his income, which was often granted only on condition of good government. The lavishness of William III necessitated an act in the reign of Anne, by which the alienation of Crown lands was greatly checked; though, in 1800, this act was declared not to apply to the private property of the sovereign, acquired by purchase or inheritance from anyone not being a sovereign of England. Since George III the sovereign on his accession has always surrendered the Crown lands to be disposed of by parliament, like other revenues of the state, for the public service; their superintendence lies with the commissioners of woods, forests, and land revenues.

Crusades, The. In the usual acceptation of the term, the name "Crusades" connotes the struggle for possession of the Holy Land undertaken by the Christian peoples of Western Europe during the two centuries 1095–1291. The term, however, has a wider connotation. It stands for the whole of the great conflict waged by the soldiers of the Cross to recover lands, once Christian, that had passed into the possession of the infidel. In this larger sense the Crusades may be said to have begun with the Syrian conquests of the Byzantine emperor, Nicephoras Phocas, in 970, and to have been continued when the Pisans occupied Sardinia in 1016, when the Spaniards commenced to drive back the Moors in 1031, and when the Normans conquered Sicily during the years 1060–90.

This article, however, must restrict itself to the Crusades in the narrower meaning of the term. The immediate cause of the Crusades to the Holy Land was the Ottoman invasion of Syria and Asia Minor in 1071. On the one hand, the Byzantine emperor was defeated and his Asiatic territories overrun; on the other hand, the city of Jerusalem passed into Ottoman possession. The Byzantine emperor appealed to the Christian West for aid towards the recovery of Asia Minor; pilgrims returning from Palestine cried aloud for the deliverance of the Holy Sepulchre from Turkish desecration. The Christian West responded with embarrassing unanimity. Religious zeal, political ambition, commercial enterprise, and social unrest all combined to send out to Palestine an immense multitude of pilgrims and adventurers. Pope Urban II took the lead in the advocacy of the Crusade (1095), and in 1096 the movement was launched.

It is usual to distinguish eight great crusades as follows:—

1st Crusade, 1096–1100, under the leadership of Godfrey of Bouillon, Raymond of Toulouse, and Bohemund of Otranto. The crusaders assembled at Constantinople; crossed to Asia Minor and recovered a large part of it for the Byzantine emperor, Alexius I; captured Antioch after an eight months' siege (1098), and occupied Jerusalem itself after a sanguinary fight (July 15, 1099). In 1100 the kingdom of Jerusalem was established with Baldwin of Flanders as its first king.

2nd Crusade, 1147–9. A serious Mohammedan menace to the kingdom caused the second crusade, preached by St. Bernard, and led by Louis VII of France and Conrad of Germany. Dissensions and treachery ruined the expedition. French and Germans went separately, and the armies of both of them perished in Asia Minor. Few reached Palestine at all, and such as did reach it could effect nothing.

3rd Crusade, 1189–92. The third crusade was caused by the news that in 1187 the Holy City had been recaptured by the infidels under their great leader Saladin. The Emperor Frederick I, Philip II of France, and Richard I of England all set forth to retrieve this great disaster. Once more misfortune and disharmony deprived the expedition of result. Frederick I lost his life in Asia Minor; Philip II abandoned the enterprise; Richard I, left to his own resources, made a three years' truce with Saladin and returned to Europe.

4th Crusade, 1202–4, intended originally to attack the heart of the Mohammedan power

in Egypt, was diverted by the Hohenstaufen and the Venetians to Constantinople, which was captured in 1204. A Latin Empire was established on the Bosphorus which lasted till 1261.

5TH CRUSADE, 1218–21, led by John of Brienne, titular King of Jerusalem, and by Andrew of Hungary, made an attack on Egypt which was ignominiously repulsed.

6TH CRUSADE, 1228–9, led by the Emperor Frederick II, was remarkable from the complete absence of fighting. Frederick entered into negotiation with the caliph Malik-al-Kamil, and by treaty secured possession of Jerusalem, which continued in Christian hands till 1244.

7TH CRUSADE, 1248–54, and 8TH CRUSADE, 1270–2, were both led by Saint Louis, King of France. The first came to a disastrous end in Egypt, the second in Tunis. The failure of these expeditions sealed the doom of the Christian dominion in the Levant.

Tripoli and Acre, the last important relics of the kingdom of Jerusalem, fell in 1289 and 1291 respectively.

During the ensuing two centuries many efforts were made by the popes and others to revive the crusading spirit; but the efforts were vain. A secular Europe was bent on other pursuits.

See Ernest Barker, "The Crusades," where an admirably full account of both original and secondary sources is given.

Culdees. THE. There has been great controversy both as to the origin and application of the name Culdee. The derivation is probably the Celtic *Ceile De*, worshipper or companion of God (not *Caelicola*, *Caeleb*, or *Columba*, as some have tried to prove). The Culdees appear to have established themselves in the first instance in Ireland, and to have spread thence to Scotland, where we first find them mentioned at the beginning of the eighth century. They are in no way to be identified with the Columban monks. They were in origin anchorites rather than cenobites; and although they gradually came together in community under the rule of abbots, they never constituted in any strict sense an order. The chief Culdee monasteries in Scotland were at Lochleven, St. Andrews, Abernethy, Dunkeld, Brechin, and Dunblane. In the course of time they lost any distinctiveness they may originally have had, and were brought, like the secular clergy, under canonical rule; so that by the twelfth century the name Culdee was virtually synonymous with that of "secular canon." The looseness of their organization resulted in a rapid deterioration in their mode of life; worldly interests became predominant and even the rule of celibacy was relaxed. This decline, together with the fact that the Culdee communities were strongholds of Celtic custom and tradition, inspired a much-needed reform which, inaugurated by St. Margaret, was carried through by her sons Alexander I and David I. The Culdee monasteries were in many cases incorporated in communities of regular canons or as cathedral chapters. At St. Andrews they remained as a dwindling body until the early fourteenth century, when they disappeared from history. In Ireland the chief centre of the Culdees was at Armagh. Here they persisted as a community of secular priests until the dissolution of 1541, and even experienced a fleeting revival at the beginning of the seventeenth century.

Cullen, CARDINAL PAUL (1803–78), was Roman Catholic Archbishop of Dublin, primate of Ireland, and apostolic delegate. Descended from an ancient Celtic family, he entered the priesthood and became head of the Irish College in Rome, and, for a short time, of the Propaganda. The government owed much to him in the Fenian rising, against which he spoke with great vigour. He also did much to encourage the temperance cause.

Culloden, or DRUMMOSSIE MOOR, THE BATTLE OF (April 16, 1746), was the closing effort on the part of the Stuarts to regain the British crown. The Pretender, Charles Edward, commanded an army of Highlanders, which was utterly defeated by the royal troops under the Duke of Cumberland (q.v.). [STUART, CHARLES EDWARD; JACOBITES.]

For authorities see under JACOBITES.

Culpepper, SIR THOMAS (*d.* 1541), was a cousin of Catherine Howard, and one of those executed on a confession of having committed adultery with her. Sir Thomas Culpepper, it appears, had not only carried on a criminal correspondence with the queen before her marriage, but had had the hardihood, when the court was staying at Lincoln in 1541, to get introduced, by the agency of Lady Rochford, into the queen's bed-chamber. Culpepper and Lady Rochford were both executed for high treason.

Cumberland, WILLIAM AUGUSTUS, DUKE OF (1721–65), was the third son of George II and Queen Caroline. He adopted a military career, and in 1743 was wounded at the battle of Dettingen. In 1745 he objected to his projected marriage with a deformed Dutch princess, and sent to the dying Lord Orford (Walpole) for advice. Orford recommended him to agree, on condition of receiving an ample establishment, which would at once cause the king to drop the project. The plan was successful. In the same year he was appointed commander-in-chief of the allies in Flanders. He fought with distinguished gallantry at the glorious defeat of Fontenoy. He was then recalled to oppose the advance of the Young Pretender through England, and made Lichfield his head-quarters. He was outmanœuvred by the insurgents, however, and the Scots got between him and London. On their retreat from Derby he started in pursuit, but was defeated in a skirmish at Clifton, and allowed the Highlanders to retire unmolested.

After the defeat at Falkirk, he was appointed commander-in-chief in Scotland, and arrived at Holyrood on January 30, 1746. He utterly defeated Charles Edward at Culloden (q.v.) April 16. The defeated Highlanders were treated with great brutality, many of them being put to death in cold blood, and the country was systematically harried. By these cruelties the duke gained the title of "the Butcher." The thanks of parliament, and a pension of £25,000 a year, were voted him. In 1747 he again commanded in Flanders, but was defeated at the battle of Lauffeld (q.v.). Shortly afterwards he transmitted to the French overtures of peace. In 1757 he was sent to command the army in Hanover. He was worsted in July at the battle of Hastenbeck (q.v.), and, his disorganized army being surrounded by the enemy, he was compelled to sign a convention at Kloster-Zeven (q.v.). "Here," said George II, when he received him, "is my son, who has ruined me and disgraced himself." The duke promptly resigned his military appointments. For the remainder of his life he lived in seclusion, his chief friend being Henry Fox (q.v.). In 1765 George III, wishing to rid himself of Grenville and Bedford, applied to his uncle for help. The latter applied to Pitt, but found that statesman, influenced by Temple, inclined to proposals which could not be accepted. The duke, therefore, turned to Whig houses, and prevailed on them to form a ministry with Rockingham at its head. His death at Windsor was remarkably sudden, although he had previously suffered from a paralytic stroke, and his constitution had been utterly broken.

Biographies by B. W. Kelly, 1903, and Hon. E. E. Charteris, 1913 and 1925.

Cumberland, Earls of. [Clifford.]

Cumbria—(1) etymologically, is a more correct form of Cambria, and equivalent to Cumberland, i.e., the land of the Cymry or Welsh; (2) historically, is used first in a wider sense to denote the Brythonic district between the Clyde and the Ribble, and west of the Pennine Range and Ettrick Forest, which retained its native (Cymric) population after the English conquest; secondly, in a narrower sense it is confined to the southernmost portion of that district, the modern Cumberland, the northern portion being called Reged and Strathclyde. But Strathclyde (i.e., valley of the Clyde) is also commonly used as equivalent to Cumbria in the wider sense. The dissolution of the Roman power in Britain seems to have led to a reversion to the primitive divisions of the Britons, but the constant pressure of the enemy forced them, no less than the English themselves, to greater union. Hence, by the sixth century, the larger Cumbria was consolidated by Rhydderch Hael (561) into a single state. It had already been, according to one theory, the main seat of the power of Arthur and the Gwledigau, had sent Cunedda to Gwynedd, and had produced the Four bards, Taliesin, Aneurin, Merddyn, and Llywarch Hen. If the Goidel still ruled in much of North Wales, it was the largest homogeneous British state. In conjunction with the kings of Scots and North Welsh, Rhydderch, in 573, finally defeated the heathen party at the battle of Ardderyd (Arthuret, near Carlisle). He brought Kentigern back from St. Asaph to found the bishopric of Glasgow. Alcluyd, the modern Dumbarton (fort of the Britons), became at once the northernmost stronghold and capital of the state. Carlisle was the chief fortress of its southern portion. The Cumbrian state became so powerful that it attempted before long to attack the Angles of Northumbria; but the terrible Ethelfrith revenged himself by the conquest of Chester and the massacre of the monks of Bangor Iscoed (613); and as the conquests of Edwin included the two Monas, they could hardly have left out "Strathclyde," as Cumbria was now often called. Whether Cadwallon, the ally of Penda, was or was not a Cumbrian cannot be decided; but his fall, in conjunction with the severance of the communication between Gwynedd and Cumbria, prevented the formation of a single great Welsh state. A long gap in Cumbrian history marks the overlordship of the Northumbrian Bretwaldas. At their fall, kings of the "Strathclyde Wealas" again appear (e.g., their deaths are mentioned in 694 and 722), but they possess only local importance; and the continuance of the Anglian influence in Galloway (q.v.) must have almost cut their state in two. In the ninth century we read of the desolation of Alcluyd by the vikings, who appear to have established a settlement in the region of modern Cumberland, between 890 and 920. A later Welsh legend speaks of a migration from the Vale of Clyde to the Vale of Clwyd. But the false etymology involved in the identification of two words sufficiently refutes this unlikely story. In 945, we are told that Edmund of Wessex conquered Cumberland and bestowed it on Malcolm, King of Scots, in return for allegiance and help against the Danes. This seems to imply merely a conquest and grant of the Norse settlement, since Cumbria in the wider sense of the term was already ruled by a line of Scottish princes. The connexion with England did not cease, for William Rufus, in 1092, annexed the region south of the Solway to England. Its ruler, Dolfin, was an Englishman, so that, before the possible colonization of Rufus, which revived Carlisle, almost in ruins since Danish devastations in the eighth century, the Cymric character of the district had not been entirely kept up. The county of Cumberland and bishopric of Carlisle were now founded; but the northern part still remained in the main an appanage of Scotland, and was bestowed by the Scottish kings on their sons. Yet a twelfth-century charter speaks of the "Walenses" as a separate race, and it is

possible that their speech lingered in remote valleys until the Reformation. The last remnant of Cumbrian independence was confined to the Pictish or Goidelic enclave of Galloway, and their amalgamation with the "Scots" into a single homogeneous nation by the common bond of anti-English feeling was the result of the injudicious legalism of Edward I.

The meagre Welsh Chronicles, "Annales Cambriæ" and "Brut y Tywysogion," published in the Rolls Series, and the "Chronicles of the Picts and Scots," edited by Skene. In "Celtic Scotland" Skene collected all that was then known of the early political, ecclesiastical, and social history of Cumbria. The same author's "Four Ancient Books of Wales" collects the remains of the possible Cumbrian bards, and some points of its history are luminously discussed in chap. x of the Introduction. See also Rhŷs, "Celtic Britain"; P. Hume Brown, "History of Scotland," 1911; C. S. Terry, "History of Scotland" 1920.

Cunningham, Alexander, 5th Earl of Glencairn (*d.* 1574), taken prisoner at Solway Moss, was one of the "Assured Lords" (q.v.), but, with the others, threw over Henry VIII in 1544. He joined the Protestant alliance against Queen Mary for a time, but was shortly afterwards received back into the royal favour. In 1568 he was named one of the council of regency.

Cunningham, William, 9th Earl of Glencairn (1610 ?–64), received in 1653 a commission from Charles II to raise troops in his cause in Scotland. After having collected a force of Highlanders, Glencairn was replaced by General Middleton, who, however, shortly afterwards quitted Scotland, giving place to him once more.

Curfew, The, was introduced into England by William the Conqueror. By this custom a bell was rung in every town at eight o'clock in winter and at sunset in summer, when all fires and lights had to be extinguished. This regulation caused a great clamour in England, although the custom was at that time almost universal throughout Europe; it was a call to prayers, an intimation that it was bed-time, and a means of guarding against fire. According to William of Malmesbury, Henry I allowed candles to be used at court after curfew-bell. The custom of ringing the curfew as an intimation of the approach of night was continued down to the seventeenth century, or even later, though the obligation to extinguish fires had, of course, been long since abandoned.

Curia Regis. This name is used in two senses. It denotes first the place where the king resided, attended by the chief officials of the court and household; and secondly, the supreme central court where the business of government in all its branches was enacted. In this latter sense it has more than one application. Thus it was applied to the assembly of feudal magnates which succeeded under the Normans and Angevins to the Anglo-Saxon witenagemot. In the presence of this body was undertaken every royal measure of national importance, judicial, financial, executive, and legislative, for as yet no distinction between the different functions of government was recognized; and thrice a year, on the great Church festivals, Christmas, Easter, and Whitsuntide, the king wore his crown in a solemn session convened at one of the provincial capitals. But such a body was at once too unwieldy for the prompt dispatch of business and too intermittent to preserve administrative continuity. Its defects were supplied by a sort of inner official council, the nucleus of which was provided in the royal household, and which comprised, besides household officials such as the constable and marshal, the justiciar, chancellor, treasurer, and other great officers of state. Between this group and the larger and more formal assembly there was at first no clear distinction drawn. Both alike were "Curiæ Regis"; both possessed the same undefined powers of government. They were simply different aspects of the same institution; the Great Council was merely the Curia Regis in full session. With the great growth of business which resulted from the energetic rule of the Normans and Angevins, differentiation became, however, inevitable, and the inner or "efficient" Curia Regis proved to be the source from which have sprung all the administrative institutions of the kingdom. The process of disintegration dates back to the twelfth century, and was first apparent in the financial sphere. To Henry I finance was at once the end and the means of government. Hence it was in his reign that the Curia threw out the first of its many offshoots, the Court of Exchequer (q.v.), which was organized by the great justiciar, Roger le Poer (q.v.), Bishop of Salisbury. The next development was in the realm of justice. All appeals, such cases of first instance as touched either the royal interest or the rights and conduct of the tenants-in-chief, came as a matter of course before the Curia Regis; but its original sphere of action was immensely extended as a result of the expansion of royal justice under Henry I, and more especially Henry II. The latter's legislation brought a vast new body of business before the central courts, while at the same time perfecting the system of judicial circuits which had been foreshadowed in the Norman period. In 1178 the increasing volume and importance of the judicial work induced Henry to set up a committee of five specially selected judges to hear the pleas of the Crown. This has been regarded as marking the origin of the Court of King's Bench (q.v.)—"the judicial committee of the full curia regis"—but it was not before the fourteenth century that the evolution of the court was complete. To article 17 of Magna Carta is ascribed the separation off during the thirteenth century of a third court—that of Common Pleas (q.v.). The final stage in the development of the great courts of common

law cannot, however, be said to have been reached before the Edwardian period.

Meanwhile the fecundity of the Curia Regis showed no decline. The great department of the Chancery (q.v.), which, originating as an administrative office concerned primarily with the king's secretarial business, developed in the later Middle Ages into a court of equity under the presidency of the lord chancellor, was itself simply another offshoot from the undifferentiated Curia of the Norman period; while the mediæval "concilium regis" [COUNCILS, CIVIL], the parent in the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries of so many subordinate councils and courts, was again in origin merely a specialized aspect of the Curia Regis. From it are descended the privy council of modern times, and its infinitely more important offspring, the cabinet. Thus, in truth, it may be said that the Norman Curia Regis was "the parent of our modern administrative system." [HOUSEHOLD, THE ROYAL.]

W. S. Holdsworth, "History of English Law," 1923; G. B. Adams, "Origin of the English Constitution," 1912 and 1920; "Councils and Courts," 1926.

Curragh Incident, THE (March 20, 1914), occurred in Ireland during the Home Rule crisis of 1914. General Hubert Gough and many of his officers resigned their commissions on being asked whether they would go to Ulster to oppose the Ulster Unionists if ordered to do so. The resignations were subsequently withdrawn, but the incident had the effect of persuading the Ulster Volunteers (opposed to Home Rule) that the army was with them.

Curran, JOHN PHILPOT (1750–1817), was born of humble parents at Newmarket, county Cork, and in 1775 he was called to the Irish bar. He soon rose to eminence. In 1782 he took silk, and in the following year was returned by a friend for a close borough in Westmeath. He at once took up the popular cause in parliament, and was soon recognized as one of the most brilliant orators in the assembly. In 1785 Fitzgibbon, the attorney-general, challenged him to a duel, on account of some sarcastic words which Curran had uttered about him in parliament. The duel ended without bloodshed, but Fitzgibbon, as Lord Clare, throughout his life did his best to ruin his adversary. In parliament Curran was, in ability at least, if not in position, the leader of the Whig party, and as such he strongly opposed the measures of Pitt's government with regard to Ireland. In 1806 he was appointed master of the rolls. In 1814 he retired on a pension. His health gradually broke down, and in his enfeebled state his mind gave way, and he died of apoplexy at Chelsea on October 14, 1817.

C. Philips, "Life of Curran," 1850.

Curzon, GEORGE NATHANIEL, 1ST MARQUIS CURZON OF KEDLESTON (1859–1925), was educated at Eton and Balliol. He was under-secretary for India in 1891–2, and for foreign affairs from 1895 to 1898. In January 1899 he was made viceroy and governor-general of India, being raised to the peerage on his appointment. In 1900 he had to deal with the worst famine which India has experienced under British rule. He caused the formation of a new province, called the North-West Frontier Province (q.v.). On January 1, 1903, he presided at a great durbar at Delhi in honour of the coronation of the first British Emperor of India. His term of office was extended after the Delhi durbar, but he resigned in 1905. He became Marquis Curzon of Kedleston in 1911; leader of the House of Lords in 1916; secretary of state for foreign affairs in 1919. He was British representative at the Lausanne Conference of 1922–3, and strongly opposed the French occupation of the Ruhr inaugurated by M. Poincaré. His death occurred on March 20, 1925.

Biography by Lord Ronaldshay. 3 vols., 1928.

Customs, in the form of a national system of taxation, have no clear history until the thirteenth century. They may possibly have originated in the ill-defined right of the king to purveyance and prisage, or, alternatively, in the royal tolls exacted from merchants in payment for protection. Before the reign of John the Crown was drawing revenue from trade, but upon no uniform plan, the duties being modelled, locally, upon the current *port customs* of lastage (on exports), scavage (on imports), and the prisage of wines. Under John the national customs received a temporary organization, and a corps of customs officials came into being, with all the apparatus of royal authority to administer the "fifteenth," a tax which was levied on foreign trade. Then, for a time, the customs administration seems to have reverted to its old chaotic state of local levy and seizure in kind.

Edward I is responsible for the organization of the customs on a plan which formed the starting-point for later development. His experience in trade regulation began during his father's lifetime. On de Montfort's death he was entrusted with the supervision of foreign merchants in England, whereupon he made an agreement with them for the collection of "some reasonable portion" on their imports and exports (1266). The first parliamentary confirmation of customs rates was made in 1275, the duty in question being "the ancient custom" (*custuma magna et antiqua*) on all wools, wool-fells, and hides passing out of the country. This, in spite of a name which suggests antiquity, was evidently a new custom and one which inaugurated the national revision of the Edwardian period. In 1303 there followed the *nova custuma*, or new custom, which provided a revised and extended system of rates on all aliens' goods, as part of the bargain which was struck with the foreign merchants in the issue of the *Carta Mercatoria*. The constitutional crises of the reign of Edward II, together with

he opposition of native merchants to what they ust have regarded as unwarrantable favouri- ism to foreigners, were responsible for temporary ithdrawals of the new authority; but in 322 the king arbitrarily re-established his ather's formula of duties and exemptions. There is little evidence to suggest that the *nova ustuma* was ever confirmed by parliament.

It was perhaps inevitable that the cost of the oreign excursions of Edward III should on the ne hand lead to a further extension of the ational system and on the other to the ex- loitation of their economic advantage by he merchants to limit further the Crown's laim to tax as it pleased, a claim already estricted by the *Confirmatio Cartarum* of 1297. 'urther groups of customs now acquired defi- ition. A new cloth custom, pannage, was uthorized in 1347 by the Great Council, and ecame merged with part of the *nova custuma* f 1303 in the Petty Customs. Two forms of arliamentary subsidy on trade were inau- urated, but these had at first only a periodic pplication. The Ancient Custom of 1275 which now included the export duties on the liens' wool and hides originally forming part f the *nova custuma*) was supplemented by a ew parliamentary grant or subsidy on wool. A further subsidy which emerges from these roubled years as a parliamentary grant is that f tunnage and poundage (q.v.), first authorized y a full parliament in 1373 as a successor to a eries of more arbitrary levies upon the tun f wine and the pound value of merchandise. 'rom the fourth year of Henry IV, poundage as imposed at the rate of 5 per cent. on the ommodities concerned, and this remained henceforward the standard levy until the end f the seventeenth century. Tunnage should e distinguished from other co-existent wine evies. In addition to tunnage at 2s. to 3s. er tun the king levied butlerage on aliens and risage on denizens. Henry V was the first o receive tunnage and poundage as a life rant, and the precedent was followed until he accession of Charles I, when this particular roup of customs was brought into prominence y his great quarrel with parliament over the scal limitations of the prerogative. Between he reign of Edward III and the seventeenth entury there was one important addition to he forms of customs revenues, viz., Impositions. n their early form these had been described as maletotes" (q.v.), and they had been stopped y parliamentary pressure during the first part f the Hundred Years' War. They were not evived in any serious form until the middle of he sixteenth century, when Queen Mary in 558 put a new custom, or impost, on cloth xported from England. Her successor fol- owed this with further experiments. The ractice of "imposing" had a twofold justi- cation, so it was urged. First, the Crown had he prerogative right of altering at will the pres- ure of customs rates in defence of the native erchant; secondly, it had the right to increase its revenue from a member (e.g., cloth) of any group of commodities when the yield from another member (e.g., wool) was failing. The constitutional battle was fought out in the courts under James I. The famous case of the impost on currants [BATE'S CASE] was tried in the Exchequer Court in 1606, and the decision of the judges went in the king's favour. Thereupon the impositions system was considerably extended, and great freedom was taken by James and his successor in revising the values in the Book of Rates for tunnage and poundage.

The alteration of traditional rates was another source of the constitutional quarrel under the first two Stuarts. The Book of Rates had substituted a table of fixed poundage rates for the earlier unsatisfactory system under which the owners of goods declared their value to the officials. The first Book affecting all ports was probably issued in 1532. From time to time it was revised by the lord treasurer, partly with the laudable intention of avoiding any injustice which should arise from obsolete valuations; partly with the object of keeping the general level of money values on the upward move as the purchasing power of money fell; partly, too, with the intention of increasing the revenue from trade. The early parliaments of Charles I were much exercised by these apparent violations of the law in the fiscal department. The king levied tunnage and poundage without their authorization and in 1628 seized the goods of merchants who disputed his right. In the Long Parliament an act was passed (16 Car. I, c. 8), which declared that tunnage and poundage could only rightfully be levied with parliamentary consent, and with this enactment the parliamentary system of taxation was made watertight. The impositions levied by Charles were retained, but under the legitimization of the Commons' consent. After the Restoration the fixation of rates became part of the province of legislation, and with the victory of parliament the customs ceased to provide material for civil strife. Thereafter the history of the customs is one merely of administrational reform until the period of the Corn Laws and the victory of free trade. The eighteenth-century background of policy is one of rigid protection, the objects of imposing customs being as much the benefit of home industries and the protection of colonial trade as the raising of revenue. Customs manipulation was employed as a supplement to diplomatic and warlike action in the sphere of foreign policy, one of the most famous examples in world history of a discriminating tariff being that inaugurated in the Methuen Treaty with Portugal (1703). Walpole's is the first outstanding name among the statesmen who, from the beginning of the eighteenth century onwards, attempted to simplify the customs system. Pitt, who came under the anti-mercantilist influence of Adam Smith, followed his example and not only simplified but reduced, preparing the way for the great

tariff reforms of Huskisson and Peel. At the end of the Napoleonic Wars the old complicated system, which had succeeded the older and still more complicated mediæval system after the Revolution, was still substantially intact. "Taxation had reached its zenith." In 1824 and 1825 the new movement for simplification with an eye to revenue rather than protection was launched by Huskisson. Great reductions were made in the duties on raw materials. In the 'thirties and early 'forties the Corn Laws (q.v.) were the centre of controversy. In 1842 the general tariff was revised with revolutionary suddenness, 750 out of 1,200 articles being made secure from the operation of duty at the same time. In the years that followed the policy was extended, and we may take the legislation of the year 1860 as being the final step in the introduction of free trade and as the practical termination of the history of the complicated customs system of the past. A few duties on food-stuffs and tobacco were retained, but their extra-fiscal effect was neutralized by the imposition of an equal excise on similar commodities produced within the country. In 1907 the net produce of customs duties in the United Kingdom was £32,000,000, and of this tobacco provided one-half, wine and spirits one-fifth. Since the Great War there has been some return to the earlier policy of protecting young and struggling industries, and a new object of protectionist solicitude has been found in the vital "key industries," the protection of which is said to involve far-reaching consequences of the utmost national importance.

Hall, "History of the Customs Revenue of England"; Hale, "A Treatise on the Customs in three parts" (*Pars Tertia*); Gras, "The Early English Customs System"; Atton and Holland, "The King's Customs"; Smith, "Wealth of Nations"; Rees, "Fiscal and Financial History of England, 1815–1918"; Kennedy, "English Taxation, 1640–1799." [A. V. J.]

Custos Rotulorum is an officer of great antiquity who serves the function of keeper of the records of the sessions of a county. Acts were passed in 37 Henry VIII (1545) and 3 & 4 Ed. VI (1549) defining his position, and the office was finally regulated in 1688 (1 William and Mary, c. 21). He was always a justice of the peace, and of the quorum, and among his duties was the appointment of the clerk of the peace, who was responsible for the clerical work of the sessions. The custos rotulorum is now usually the lord-lieutenant of a county, though the two offices are quite distinct, the one being military, the other civil.

Cutch is a native state of India which forms a peninsula to the south of Sind. The Rao of Cutch entered into an agreement with the East India Company in 1809, and concluded treaties with Great Britain in 1816. Piracy was carried on by the inhabitants, and on this account, and in order to check the misgovernment of the province, the British intervened and deposed the Rao. By a treaty made in 1822 the country became tributary to Great Britain and received a resident appointed by the Bombay government.

Cuthbert, St. (*d.* 687), was in all probability a native of Northumbria, and born in the district which afterwards became the Lothians. Early in life he became a monk, and afterwards prior, at Melrose, under its first abbot, Eata, one of the disciples of Aidan, and followed him when he was transferred to Ripon. After the Synod of Whitby (664) (q.v.) he appears to have adopted the Roman usage, and when Eata was appointed abbot of Lindisfarne Cuthbert accompanied him as prior, in order that he might establish there the Roman observance. In 676 he determined to adopt a solitary life and retired to a hermitage on the adjacent island of Farne. At the entreaties of Egfrid of Northumbria he quitted his retreat and allowed himself to be consecrated Bishop of Lindisfarne by Archbishop Theodore (685). Before his death he again retired to his seclusion at Farne, where he died, March 20, 687. Cuthbert's life while at Melrose and Lindisfarne was one long missionary effort. He travelled over all northern Northumbria, and converted great numbers from heathenism. Nevertheless it is chiefly as an ascetic that he is remembered. His fame was very great in the north, and many miracles were ascribed to his relics. Throughout the Middle Ages his shrine at Durham was a great centre of pilgrimage, and he continued to be the favourite saint of northern England.

Bæda's "Life of St. Cuthbert."

Cuthred, King of Wessex (740–56), was a kinsman of Ethelheard, whom he succeeded. He restored the position of Wessex to what it had been in the days of Ine. In 743, in conjunction with the Mercians, he defeated the Britons. In 750 Cuthred and his people rose against the yoke of the Mercians, and in 752 utterly defeated the Mercian king Ethelbald at Burford, on the borders of Oxfordshire and Gloucestershire. In 755 he once more defeated the Britons of Cornwall; and died in 756 after a victorious career.

Cuttack. The country on the Coromandel coast forming the northern portion of Orissa, and lying eastward of Berar. It was conquered by the Mahrattas in 1751, and taken from them by the British at the outset of the campaign of 1803.

Cutts, John, Lord (1661–1707), served with great gallantry in the wars of William III and Anne. At the battle of the Boyne he led the British regiments that had served under the States General, and was rewarded by the grant of an Irish peerage. He led the forlorn hope at the siege of Namur (1695), and for his utter contempt of danger on that occasion obtained the honourable nickname of "the Salamander." In 1702 he led the storming party against Fort St. Michael, the stronghold of Venloo; and at the battle of Blenheim

his last battle) he conducted the assault on the village, but was repulsed with terrible loss. In 1705 he was made commander-in-chief, and one of the lord justices of Ireland.

"Letters of John, Lord Cutts," 1886.

Cwichelm (611–36) was the son of Cynegils, King of the West Saxons (q.v.), and for some time shared the throne of his father. Jealous of the power of Edwin of Northumbria, in 626 he sent off one of his servants with a poisoned dagger to murder that king, whose life was saved only by the devotion of his thegn Lilla. Two years later Cwichelm and his father were worsted in a battle near Cirencester by the Mercian king, Penda. In 636 Cwichelm is said to have been baptized at Dorchester-on-Thames by Birinus (q.v.). He died the same year.

Cymbeline (Cunobelinus) was a British chief, who made his capital at Camulodunum (Colchester), and who, from the number of coins bearing his name, seems to have been a very powerful prince. In Roman authorities he is called simply *Rex Brittonum*, as if he were supreme in the whole island. He was ruler of the Catuvellauni, but conquered in addition the Trinobantes of Essex, and, it would seem, the rest of south-eastern Britain, since his money is found over the whole district from Kent to Gloucestershire [Coinage.] The well-known Caratacus was his son.

Dio Cassius.

Cymry is the native name of the Welsh. [Celts; Britons; Wales.]

Cynegils, King of Wessex (611–43), was the son of Ceolric, and nephew of Ceolwulf, whom he succeeded. His son Cwichelm (q.v.) seems to have been associated with him in the government. In 614 they fought against the Britons at Bampton, and routed them. They appear to have been hard pressed by the Northumbrians and Mercians, under Edwin and Penda respectively. In 628 Penda attacked Cirencester, and a treaty was made there which probably circumscribed the boundaries of Wessex on the north-west. In 635 Cynegils was converted to Christianity by Birinus (q.v.), and was baptized at Dorchester-on-Thames.

Cynewulf, King of Wessex (757–86), succeeded on the deposition of Sigebert, although he apparently did not belong to the direct royal line. He engaged in several hard-fought, though successful, conflicts with the Britons, but at what place and in what year we are not informed. He had a formidable rival in Offa of Mercia, and in 777 the stronghold of Bensington (near Wallingford) was captured by that king. In 784 Cynewulf was murdered at Merton, in Surrey, by Cyneheard, the brother of the former king, Sigebert. This tragedy is very finely related in the "Anglo-Saxon Chronicle," and the story is, as usual, amplified by Henry of Huntingdon.

Cynric (*d.* 560 ?) was, according to the "Anglo-Saxon Chronicle," the son of Cerdic (q.v.). He is said to have been recognized as King of the West Saxons, conjointly with his father, in 519, and to have extended his kingdom after his father's death to the west and north, defeating the Britons at Old Sarum. His historicity is, however, extremely doubtful. [Wessex, Kingdom of.]

Cyprus, taken by Richard I of England in 1191, was eventually given by him to the Lusignan family, one of whose last representatives married a Venetian lady, Catherine Cornaro. She, being left sovereign of the island, abdicated in 1489 in favour of the Venetian Republic, from which the Turks took the island in 1571. On June 4, 1878, in view of the Treaty of Berlin (q.v.), an Anglo-Turkish convention provided for its transfer to, and administration by, the British government, the surplus of revenue over expenditure being paid to the Porte, which undertook to introduce reforms into its own administration. The object of the convention was to secure Asiatic Turkey against further Russian aggression, and this Great Britain engaged to do, the convention providing that if Russia ever retired from Batum, Ardahan, and Kars, Britain should also retire from Cyprus. The island remained nominally under Turkish suzerainty until November 5, 1914, when, on the outbreak of war between Great Britain and Turkey, it was annexed to the British crown. The Turkish government recognized the annexation in the Lausanne Treaty of 1923 [Lausanne, Conference of]. On May 1, 1925, Cyprus was raised to the rank of a colony.

H. C. Luke, "Cyprus Under the Turks, 1571–1878," 1921.

D

Dacre, Leonard, of Naworth (*d.* 1573), "of the crooked back," a powerful gentleman of Northumberland, and the inheritor of the lands of Naworth. Dacre was privy to the Catholic Rebellion of the North in 1569, though he did not take an active part in it, and even sided with the Royalists when he saw all was lost. His arrest was ordered, but could not be carried into execution, owing to the large number of men who assembled at Naworth to protect him. On the first opportunity Dacre escaped into Scotland, and subsequently joined the Duke of Alva's army in the Low Countries.

Dacre, Thomas, Lord, of Hurstmonceux (*d.* 1541). [Fiennes, Thomas.]

Dægsastan, or Dawston, was the scene of the great victory won by Ethelfrith of Northumbria (603) over Aidan, King of the Scots of Dalriada, who was followed by a large force, including adventurers from Ireland, Welsh from Strathclyde, and supporters of the

rival royal house of Northumbria. Ethelfrith gained a signal victory. Dægsastan is probably Dawston in Liddesdale.

Dalhousie, Earls of. [Ramsay.]

Dalling and Bulwer, William Henry Lytton Earle Bulwer, Baron (1801–72). [Bulwer.]

Dalriada—*Dal-Riada,* "the home of the descendants of Riada"—was (1) a district in Ireland, including the northern half of county Antrim, apparently one of the oldest settlements of the Scots among the Picts of Ulster; (2) the name given to the district of Argyllshire, settled by the immigrant Scots from Ireland. [Scots.]

Dalry, The Battle of, was an engagement fought between John of Lorne, a relation of Comyn, and Robert Bruce in 1306. In this engagement the Scottish king distinguished himself by the skill with which he moved back his armoured knights from the swarm of half-naked Highlanders, who made the attack upon ground that was essentially unfavourable for the operations of cavalry.

P. Hume Brown, "History of Scotland," 1911.

Dalrymple, Sir Hew Whitefoord (1750–1830), obtained an ensign's commission in the 31st Regiment in 1763. After holding various other commands, he was in 1806 appointed governor of Gibraltar, where he remained until August 1808, when he was placed in command of the British army in Portugal. He arrived at head-quarters the day after Wellesley's victory at Vimeiro, and superseded Burrard, who had already superseded Wellesley, and had prevented him from taking full advantage of his victory. At Junot's proposal terms were very soon made by Dalrymple with the French, and embodied in the Convention of Cintra. The news of that convention was received with the loudest indignation in England, and the three commanders were recalled, and put on their trial. Sir Hew was deprived of his command; but his disgrace was of brief duration, and terminated in 1812, when he was restored to the rank of general, while three years later he was made a baronet. In 1818 he was appointed governor of Blackness Castle, which post he seems to have held up to the time of his death. [Vimeiro; Cintra, Convention of.]

Sir C. W. C. Oman, "Peninsular War," 1902–20.

Dalrymple, James, 1st Viscount Stair (1619–95), had borne arms in his youth, and was subsequently a teacher of philosophy at Glasgow University. He was a member of Cromwell's reformed Court of Session in 1657. After the Restoration he sat in the privy council, became president of the Court of Session, and was knighted by Charles II. On refusing to make a declaration against the Covenant, he was condemned to forfeiture. On passing through London, however, he had an interview with Charles II, and his office and estates were restored to him. In 1676 he became lord president, and boldly opposed the severities which preceded the fall of the Stuarts. He was deprived of office, and felt it advisable to retire to Holland. There he composed his "Institutions of the Law of Scotland," a legal work of great value. He assisted with his counsel and purse the unfortunate enterprise of Argyll in 1685. His estates would probably have been confiscated had not his eldest son taken the Stuart side on political affairs. The proceedings against him for complicity in the Rye House Plot (q.v.) and Argyll's rebellion were dropped in 1687. At the revolution Stair assisted William with his advice. He became president of the Court of Session, and William's trusted agent in Scotland. An attempt was made by the opposition to rid themselves of him and his son by passing a law to the effect that all who had shared in the proceedings under the Stuarts were to be excluded from office, but the royal assent was refused to the bill. William wished to make him lord president of the judicial bench, but the estates claimed the appointment. Next year, however, the opposition was overcome. Dalrymple's attempts to reform the bench do not seem to have been particularly successful. On the fall of Melville the government of Scotland passed entirely into the hands of the Dalrymples. Sir James was raised to the peerage, with the title of Viscount Stair (1691). The massacre of Glencoe (q.v.) has left an indelible stain on his memory, though he played no prominent part in it. In 1695 he died. Stair, as well as his son, was thoroughly unpopular in Scotland.

Memoir by A. Mackay, 1873.

Dalrymple, John, 1st Earl of Stair (1648–1707), son of the preceding, is known in history by the title of the Master of Stair. He took office under James II, and became lord advocate of Scotland. By this means he saved the estates of his father from confiscation. The coldness that ensued between father and son was merely affected. At the revolution he early changed sides. He was one of the Scottish commissioners who were sent to offer the crown to William. On his return he was falsely accused by the opposition of having betrayed the liberties of his country. Shortly afterwards he became lord advocate, and, on the fall of his rival Melville, secretary of state for Scotland (1696). In conjunction with Argyll and Breadalbane, he planned the infamous massacre of Glencoe (q.v.). An inquiry in 1695 clearly traced the design to him, but the Scottish Estates simply censured him in vague terms, and left his treatment to the wisdom of the king. William contented himself with dismissing the Master from office. On the death of his father (1695) he became viscount, and was created Earl Stair in 1703. As one of the commissioners

of the Scottish Union he displayed his great legal talents to advantage. In 1707, during the debate on Article 22 he spoke with success, and with considerable earnestness. But the strain on his nerves was too great; he returned home, and died. The defence has been offered for his complicity in the massacre of Glencoe that "If it is to be called malignity, it was no more personal than the desire of a chief of police to bring a band of robbers to justice."

J. M. Graham, "Stair Annals," 1875.

Dalrymple, John, 2nd Earl of Stair (1673–1747), son of the foregoing, served under William III in Ireland and the Netherlands, became a lieutenant-colonel in 1701, and was one of Marlborough's officers. He shared his general's disgrace. In 1707 he succeeded to his father's earldom. In 1715 he was sent as ambassador to France. There his friendship with the regent stood the British government in good stead. The fortifications at Mardyk were discontinued owing to his representations. Hearing that ships were being fitted out for the Pretender by the French government, he requested that they might be given up, and the regent went so far as to unload them. It is said that he tried to bring about the assassination of the Pretender before he started for the expedition of 1715. On his return from that fruitless attempt he was dismissed from France on Stair's demand. In 1718 Stair successfully negotiated the quadruple alliance between Great Britain, France, Austria, and Holland. In 1720 he was recalled owing to a dispute with his fellow-countryman, Law, the financier. For twenty years he was kept out of employment. At length (1741) he was sent as ambassador to Holland, in order to induce the States General to take part in the war of the Austrian Succession. As commander of the British army in Flanders (1743) he displayed great incapacity. It was only by extreme good fortune that the army escaped destruction at Dettingen. After the battle jealousy sprang up between him and the German commanders. Disgusted at the rejection of his advice, he sent in his resignation. In 1745 he was reappointed commander-in-chief on the occasion of Prince Charles Edward's invasion, but took no active part in the campaign.

J. M. Graham, "Stair Annals," 2 vols., 1875.

Dalzell, Thomas, General (*d.* 1685), distinguished himself as an officer on the Royalist side in the Parliamentary wars. He was captured at the battle of Worcester, and sent as a prisoner to the Tower, from which, however, he managed to escape to Muscovy, where he served against the Poles and Tartars. After the Restoration, he returned home (1665), and was appointed commander-in-chief of Charles II's forces in Scotland—a post which he held till his death, excepting for the few days when he was superseded by the Duke of Monmouth, whom Dalzell is said to have refused to serve. He defeated the Covenanters at the battle of Pentland Hills (1666), and after this victory he is said by Burnet to have "acted the Muscovite too grossly," threatening to spit and roast all the disaffected. After the battle of Bothwell Bridge (1679), General Dalzell arrived at the royal camp with his commission renewed, and reproached the Duke of Monmouth for his leniency towards the insurgents. He was remarkable for the eccentricity of his appearance, and in London, whither he always went once a year to kiss the king's hand, drew around him a rabble of boys to stare at his huge white beard, which, not having been shaved since the death of Charles I, reached to his waist. He died soon after the accession of James II.

D'Amory, Roger (*d.* 1322), married one of the three sisters of Gilbert of Clare, Earl of Gloucester. In 1317, when war broke out between the Earls of Lancaster and Warenne, Roger joined with the Earl of Pembroke to obtain supremacy in the king's councils. In 1320 Lancaster received his help in his attack upon the Spensers; and his name is included in a list of peers who received pardon for any illegalities they might have committed in bringing the favourites to justice (1321). His quarrel with the younger Spenser was probably due to their joint claims in the Gloucester inheritance: for they had married sisters. Later in the same year, when Edward II took arms, Roger D'Amory was one of the first to feel the effects of the king's recovered strength. His castles were attacked, and before the battle of Boroughbridge he fell mortally wounded into the hands of his enemies at Tutbury.

Danby, Thomas Osborne, Earl of (1631–1712). [Osborne.]

Danegeld was a land-tax. It was assessed on the hide or carucate of land which was occupied or under cultivation, and was invented, it is supposed, by the Anglo-Saxon monarchy at the end of the tenth century, employed as an occasional war expedient under the pressure of the Danish raids and invasions, carried forward by Canute and inherited as a valuable means of revenue by the Conqueror. Our principal evidence is derived from the "Anglo-Saxon Chronicle" and from the Domesday survey (q.v.). The first mentioned levy of the geld is in the year 991, when it was employed by Ethelred II as a tribute to the Danes to buy off their invasions. Subsequently it was seemingly levied not only directly for this purpose, but also for the hire of mercenaries against invaders, and the maintenance of the naval strength. The amounts specifically mentioned by the "Chronicle" as raised in the pre-Conquestual period are so heavy that they have seemed to investigators to have been sufficiently burdensome upon the less wealthy land-holders to account for the depression of large numbers

to a position of dependence or semi-servility. These are some of the figures :—

991	£10,000
994	£16,000
1002	£24,000
1007	£30,000
1018	£82,000

The Confessor raised danegeld, but we have no record of the amounts. He is said to have abandoned it in 1051, perturbed by a dream of the devil chuckling over the revenue produced by the tax. The Conqueror levied the geld at least three times. In 1083 an exceptionally heavy levy was made, at the rate of 6s. on the hide (three times as heavy as the ordinary rate), imposing a tax of at least one-third of the annual value of the land assessed. There were naturally difficulties in the raising of so "exceeding stiff" a geld, and the estimated total was not by any means attained. At this point, we learn from the "Chronicle," the king took deep thought, sought the advice of his wise men and decided to have an investigation made of the assessable land. In 1086, accordingly, the Domesday survey was undertaken and the king's officials placed in possession of information which we may assume led to a more satisfactory administration of the tax. The demesne land of the manorial lords was now in some cases made subject to assessment where before attempt had been made to include only the land of tenants. Waste land still escaped. There was a return in some areas to the older assessments, which had been decreased after 1066 by the generosity or prudence of the Conqueror, and it is to be observed that after the date of Domesday there was an alteration in the method of collection of geld. Previously it had been accounted for by hundreds and collected from individuals, including villein tenants. Afterwards the hundreds are neglected and we find the sheriff of the county collecting the money from tenants-in-chief who are presumably made responsible for the geld of their villeins. Danegeld continued to be levied at intervals at 2s. on the ploughland until the year following the accession of Henry II, when it was given up as no longer worth collecting, so greatly had its yield decreased as a result of exemptions allowed by his predecessors. It was bringing in not more than £3,500, although it should have yielded £5,200. The *donum* and the *auxilium* took its place, and at future intervals taxes conceived on the same principle, but with different names, continued to be raised.

Maitland, "Domesday Book and Beyond"; Round, "Feudal England"; Ballard, "The Domesday Inquest"; Corbett, *The Tribal Hidage* in "Transactions Royal Historical Society," 1900. [A. V. J.]

Danelagh (Danelaw, or Denalagu). The name given to that part of England where Danish blood, customs, and laws had to a greater or less extent modified, or usurped the place of, the corresponding Anglian features. Roughly speaking, we may say that the Danish influence gradually lessened as the distance from Yorkshire increased. The extent of Daneland varied at different periods. The great stretch of country that was in later times included under the general name of the Danelagh seems to have been due to three, if not four, different colonizations. First came the settlement in Deira, which, beginning with the conquest of York in 867, was consummated when Halfden separated from the southern *here* in 875, and next year divided Deira among his host. The southern part of this province may be considered as the very heart of the settlement, the district where the Danes were most numerous. Here the typical Danish endings *thorpe* and *caster* and *by* occur in the greatest profusion. But the Danes do not appear to have spread into Lancashire in any numbers, and the Norse names in Cumberland and Westmorland are probably due to invasions of another time and family. Nor do the Danes seem to have colonized beyond the Tees. Across this boundary river, with a few exceptions, the *tons* and the *hams* are the rule, and it is said that only four *bys* are to be found north of the last-named river. Beyond its banks are Chester-le-Street and Chesterwood; Stockton and Middleham take the place of Doncaster, Whitby, and Barwick. But even within the more strictly Danish districts of the north, we must not suppose an extirpation of the Anglian inhabitants. These being very near by blood and language to their conquerors, the latter came in merely as new lords, and an entirely fresh state of things was not set up. So Collingham lies close by Netherby and Alverthorpe by Wakefield, and Chester House not very far from North Allerton. The second great Danish colony was that of Lincoln, which seems to have spread down to the borders of Holland (a district distinctly non-Danish in its local nomenclature), and is marked by the same general features as the colony in Deira, only in a less degree. The heart of this settlement seems to have been in the Lindsey uplands. The partition of this part of the country took place probably in 877. The colonization of Lindsey seems to be distinct from that which included Leicester, Nottingham, Derby, and Northampton, and which, in some parts, even extended a few miles beyond Watling Street. In later years this settlement appears in history as embracing Lincoln, and is then known as the "Five Boroughs" (q.v.). The fourth and last important Danish conquest was that of East Anglia and Essex. But here the colonization must have been slight except in the northern and coastal districts. The typical Danish endings are comparatively rare both in Norfolk and Suffolk, and there is only one district that is largely characterized by the *by* termination: that lying round the mouth of the Yare. Such were the three or four great divisions of the Danish settlements in England, and their farthest extent is marked by the treaty of

886 between Alfred and Guthrum, as up the Thames to the Lea, along the Lea to its source, then to Bedford, and thence up the Ouse to Watling Street. But the whole of this territory can never have been in any strict sense Danish, and the greater part was gradually won back, and incorporated with the West Saxon monarchy. Under Edward the Elder, the greater part of Mercia and Essex was recovered; East Anglia submitted in 916, as did the Danish earldom of Northampton; while in 942 the Five Boroughs were finally won for the West Saxon crown. Meanwhile, the Danish kingdom of the north had been tottering, and was finally deprived of its independence by Edred (954).

There are, unfortunately, very few materials remaining from which to reconstruct the special features even of those divisions of the Danelagh where the Scandinavian influence was strongest. The two great settlements of Deira and Lindsey were divided into *ridings*, or *trithings*, and these again sub-divided into *wapentakes*—a term which corresponds with the hundreds of the south. The court of the trithing was superior to that of the wapentake, and this arrangement has been considered to point to a systematic division of the land, more especially as, in Yorkshire, all three ridings converge towards the town of York. In Domesday, Leicestershire, Nottinghamshire, and Derbyshire appear as divided into wapentakes, but the trithing, as was to be expected, is not to be found in these counties. Northamptonshire and Rutland had both wapentakes and hundreds; while the East Anglian counties had neither trithing nor wapentake. East Anglia was for a time governed by its own Danish king, as was Deira in the north; but there does not appear to have been any such dignity in Lindsey or the Five Boroughs, though each of the five towns had its own army, with its own earl, and the occurrence of twelve *lawmen* in Lincoln and Stamford may perhaps point to a similar form of government in Leicester and the other two towns. The difference in law between Danish and West Saxon Britain cannot have been very great. The customs of compurgation (q.v.), wer-gild (q.v.), and other pecuniary compositions for the breach of the peace, were common to both races. But while, by Alfred's treaty with Guthrum, English and Danes were in East Anglia reckoned equally dear, in Yorkshire, the wer-gild of the Danish *hold* was greater than that of the Anglian or Saxon thegn. In the Danelagh there was a large number of small freeholders, and the free peasant class was much more numerous than in Anglo-Saxon England. The Danish districts were not feudalized to any extent before the Norman Conquest. That certain easily recognizable distinctions did separate the laws and customs of the Danelagh from those of Mercia and Wessex is clear from Edgar's declaration that "with the Danes such laws should stand as they best may choose"; or, again, that the Danes shall inflict punishment "according to their law." Canute recognizes the same distinction, which reappears even after the Conquest, till it vanishes away during the wars of Stephen. With Henry II the king's justice was in every land, and the historians of his reign, in using the term, show themselves uncertain what shires belong to this division.

The following are the shires reckoned in the Danelagh at different periods:—Yorkshire, Norfolk, Suffolk, Essex, Nottinghamshire, Lincolnshire, Leicestershire, Derbyshire, Rutland, Northamptonshire, Cambridgeshire, Huntingdonshire, Buckinghamshire, Bedfordshire, Hertfordshire. [DANES.]

A. Mawer, "The Vikings," 1913; W. G. Collingwood, "Scandinavian Britain," 1908; E. Hull, "Northmen in Britain," 1913; "Documents illustrative of the Social and Economic History of the Danelaw," ed. F. M. Stenton, 1920. [T. A. A.]

Danes. The name "Dane" is often loosely employed to describe the Scandinavian freebooters and immigrants (whether from Denmark proper or not), whose incursions and settlements fill a large space in English history from the eighth to the eleventh century. They are alternatively known as "Northmen" or Vikings.

Freeman distinguished three stages of Danish invasion, in which the objects were plunder, settlement, and conquest respectively. (1) The first stage begins with the devastation of Northumbria, in 787. Every year saw fresh swarms of pirates pillaging the coasts, and sometimes penetrating far inland. Not only England, but all northern Europe, was exposed to these inroads, and as the triumphs of Charles the Great had made access to north Germany difficult, it was by sea that they commonly went on their forays. Their object was mainly plunder. Settlement or conquest was impossible. Scandinavia was cut up into so many petty states that the necessary degree of cohesion was hardly yet obtainable for combined efforts. Sated with booty, the sea-kings returned to their native dales and fjords, to sally forth again at the approach of summer. Fierce heathens as yet, they destroyed every Christian shrine and sanctuary, spread universal misery and want, and added a new and terrible danger to the many terrors of early mediæval times. (2) Within a century of the first inroads of the Vikings, a great revolution in Scandinavia began a new era. Great kings arose in the north, who subjected to themselves the wide districts that became known as Norway, Sweden, and Denmark. The *jarls* or petty kinglets who ruled each *harad* (district or county) of Scandinavia were crushed into dependence on a new centralizing national power. Harold the Fair-haired (Harfagr) in Norway, Gorm the Old in Denmark, raised themselves by sheer personal vigour into the position of kings of the whole land. Eric of Upsala, to a lesser extent, made every district of Sweden and Gottland acknowledge the political and religious supremacy of

the protector of the great sanctuary of Upsala. It was the same process which was consolidating England into a single state, and which afterwards became the source of the national idea. But as in England and Germany, the new development proved a deadly foe to the primitive Teutonic polity, which had survived till the eighth century in Scandinavia, just as it had been described by Tacitus in the first century in Germany. All conservative instincts revolted against the degradation of the sovereign jarl to the condition of personal subordination to the new monarch. The best and bravest of the Northmen abandoned their native land, and sought to win by their swords a new home for their old polity. Hence the great Scandinavian migrations of the ninth century. Again the Northmen poured into England, seeking, like the English themselves three centuries earlier, a definite settlement. The second half of the ninth century is the limit of this period; at its close half Britain was Danish. The formidable alliance of Danes and West Welsh, which Ecgbert crushed at Hengestesdun, perhaps marks the beginning of the change. Under Ethelred I of Wessex the crisis was reached. Between 867 and 869 Northumbria, long distracted by anarchy, accepted as monarch the dependent of the pagan invaders. In 868 Mercia was overrun, and in 870 the martyrdom of the sainted King Edmund attested the completeness of their conquest of East Anglia. In 871 the ruling kingdom of the West Saxons was invaded. A brilliant series of hard-fought battles taught the invader that Wessex was not so easy a prey as the subject states. When Ethelred died in the middle of the contest, his brother Alfred kept up the struggle. He succeeded in clearing his own territory at the expense of the overlordship won by Ecgbert. But Deira, Northumbria, and East Anglia were regularly occupied and symmetrically divided among the conquerors with the same numerical precision as marks the allotment of Iceland. A fresh invasion of Wessex in 878 reduced Alfred to the lowest pitch of degradation, but his marvellous revival led to the Peace of Chippenham (q.v.), which acknowledged the *status quo*, and seems to have given the Danes all the land north-east of Watling Street. The later "frith" of Alfred and Guthrum defined more clearly the Anglo-Danish boundary, and gave London and its environs into English hands. Within this Danelagh a new Scandinavia arose; and a new swarm of *haradskonungr*, like Guthorm of East Anglia, seemed to undo the work of the Pendas and Edwins. North of Deira an English line continued to reign in Bamburgh. While this was going on in England, other settlements were being effected in the north and west. Fresh swarms of Vikings who fled "from the tyranny of Harold Fairhair," colonized the Orkneys, Shetlands, Faroe, Hebrides, and the southern isles as far as Man, and in Sutherland and Caithness effected a settlement on the mainland. Indignant at their desertion, Harold went in person to subdue them to his sway. The boldest sought a remoter home in the hitherto desert Iceland, and thence in Greenland and Vinland (Massachusetts) are said to have established the first European colonies in the New World. Others went to the east coast of Ireland, where such names as Waterford and Wexford perpetuate the memory of the Viking state. Thence they inflicted severe blows on Wales and Strathclyde. The abundance of *fords*, *holms*, and *garths* in the region round Milford Haven testifies that the wandering sea-king found amidst the deep inlets of south-western Dyfed the likeness of the fjords of his northern home. Fainter traces of a possible settlement in Anglesey, clearer ones of an occupation of the lands round Solway Firth, mark the ubiquity of the sea-kings' ravages. Sometimes, as in the Orkneys and Shetlands, and in the extreme north of Scotland, they drove away the old Celtic inhabitants. In others they displayed that capacity for assimilation with the subject race that always marked their descendants. Outside the bounds of Britain, similar colonizing bands won Normandy from the Carolings, and effected smaller settlements on other parts of the Gaulish coast. Eastwards over the Baltic, Rurik and his Vikings founded a dynasty in Russia, whence the wàranger carried the terror of the Scandinavian name to the court of the Eastern Cæsars. The Peace of Chippenham began a new period in the relation between English and Danes. For a century we hear little of fresh invasions from beyond sea, but a constant war went on between the Danes in England and the West Saxon monarchs who endeavoured to subdue them. Even the constant devastations of the "black pagans," which laid waste Carlisle, and harried with fearful effects Wales after the death of Howel Dda, were the work mostly of Danish settlers in Ireland, or of colonists among the Brythons themselves. The steps of this new struggle are as follows: Alfred rested content with the acknowledgment of his overlordship and the recognition of Christianity among the Danish settlers. Edward the Elder and his sister Ethelfleda, the "Lady of the Mercians" (q.v.), went a step farther by building a strong line of fortresses along the frontier of the Danelagh, which prevented further invasions of Wessex and West Saxon Mercia, and were starting-points for the subjection of the sons of the Vikings. Athelstan exceeded this by establishing friendly relations with the princes of Scandinavia, by defeating the great confederacy of Danes and Celts at Brunanburh, and by beginning the direct reconquest of the lands ceded at Chippenham. Edred, or Dunstan his minister, completed the process by the conquest of Northumbria and the assumption of imperial titles. Edgar, called first to power by the northern and Danish half of the nation, consolidated the process by renewing the liberal, yet effectual, policy of Dunstan. Under him, the Danes became Englishmen,

nd the Danelagh a merely legal distinction. he reconquest was thus completed. With thelred the Unready everything went wrong, nd before long the dangers of the eighth and nth centuries were revived by fresh plunderings new Viking hordes from Scandinavia. But ne first stage thus renewed soon led to the econd coming back, and the kings of the north ere now too powerful to brook subjects tablishing new Normandies or Icelands at neir expense. Hence they resolved to take art in these expeditions of plunder and settle- ent, and thus Freeman's third stage of political onquest, a stage never attained on the continent, egins. The King of all Denmark now set to ork to conquer all England. After many ailures, Sweyn succeeded in his attempt and anded down his power to his greater son, anute, who reigned as legal King of England ith the assent of the English people, which, if ormal at first, became ultimately as real as ny such popular recognitions were, and was nly withdrawn when the quarrels and mis- onduct of Hardicanute and Harold led to the estoration of the West Saxon line in Edward the onfessor.

The really important Danish period of nglish history now ends; but Viking forages ere still not unknown, and expeditions of anish and Norse princes were continued for early a century. In England, the great invasion f the heroic Harold Hardrada (q.v.) in 1066 ight, if successful, have placed another Danish ynasty on the throne. All through the onqueror's reign similar, if fainter, assaults ere feared in the nominal interest of the nglish cause. The extraordinary career of lagnus of Norway among the Western Isles, nding in his war in Anglesey with the Earls of hester and Shrewsbury in 1098, was the last xploit of the Vikings that has any direct elation to English history. Brian Boru's (q.v.) ictory of Clontarf (1014) (q.v.) was the death- low to the Scandinavian states in Ireland. But n Scotland, though Caithness was annexed in 196, it was not till 1263 that the battle of Largs q.v.) put an end to their capacity for aggression, nd led to the annexation of the Western slands to Scotland; but they retained their cclesiastical dependence on Trondhjem till he fifteenth century, when also the Orkneys nd their dependencies were practically handed ver to James III.

Apart from the general misery and want, hese plunderings were too irregular to leave ny deeply-seated effects behind them. A etrogression towards barbarism, the decline f learning and culture that attended the sack f the Mercian abbeys, a partial forcing on of he feudalizing tendency as best adapted for defence, is all that can safely be ascribed o them. Little positively can be affirmed of he results of the Danish Conquest, either on he nation generally or on those special districts which became Danish by the Peace of Chippen- ham. That they had a bracing effect upon the nation can safely be conjectured, but Robertson's argument that "a greater amount of freedom existed in the Danelagh than in Wessex and English Mercia" seems likely to be justified by modern research in Danelagh history. Still, there can be no doubt that the advent of a new race, whose very object in emigration was to preserve their ancient polity unstained by the innovations of Harfagr, did largely tend to strengthen at a time of weakness the traditional institutions of the English, and so in this respect to retard the territorializing tendency. On the other hand, however, the effect of the increased militarism which foreign invasion necessitated was directly feudal. If the Danes put off the unity of England by undoing the work of Offa, Edwin, and Ecgbert, they made it more certain in the end by the effacement of tribal distinctions, and by the consolidation of what remained English, which directly followed the struggle with them. But it is very improbable that the Danes introduced many definite changes in law or custom. The peculiar usages of the Danelagh may as much be Anglian as Danish. Anyhow, the fact that the Danelagh was a territory, within which all of whatever race acknowledged the "Danish custom," shows that absence of personal law is important in English history. The Danes never dispossessed the Anglian population; their institutions, so far as we know them, were fundamentally the same as the English. As soon as they became Christians they were practically Englishmen, just as the Normans became Frenchmen, only in both cases there was a superior vigour, a survival of the old Viking days. Traces in local nomenclature; the substitution of "by" for "tun"; the "forces," "nesses," "fords," and "holms" of north England; the division into wapentakes and ridings, are clearly Danish; but such effects are purely superficial. The same thing took a new name. The wite, the doom, the ealdorman, the frith, became the lahslit, lah, jarl, and grith. But as the Northman became French in Normandy, so he became Anglian in Mercia and Goidelic in Man—which, though the very centre of Norse power, retains to this day its Celtic speech, while half the place-names of the island keep their original form. Only in the region of government where a thoroughly Norse institution was superimposed on a Celtic polity, to the extinction of the latter, is the Danish influence clearly displayed. In the Hebrides the clans survived the Norse jarls, although the local names betray Norse influence. We may conjecture that the Danish settlement began the series of events that has made South Pembrokeshire an English-speaking district. In Orkney and Shetland, Caithness and Sunderland, alone did the conquest extend so thoroughly as to supersede the old language for one which, under later influences, easily became English. Though great changes followed Canute's domination, it is very hard to say what part of them followed on the introduction of Northern customs and

institutions. Even the introduction of housecarls (q.v.) added no new element to English development. No one now believes that Canute's "forest-law" was Danish. Canute's idea of a northern empire could more easily be got from the history of Edgar than from any precedents of anarchic Scandinavia. In fact, England had more influence on Denmark and Norway than these latter had on her. Canute's reign is of the greatest political importance, as producing on a small scale the same tendencies that were afterwards developed to a greater extent by the Norman Conquest. But only very indirectly can Danish influence be said to be a factor in this process. The Northern antiquaries, who refer every point of similarity with their own state to Danish influence on England, ignore how much both have in common, and the assimilative capacity of a barbarous but vigorous race in contact with one of superior, though only slightly superior, civilization. [VIKING.]

W. G. Collingwood, "Scandinavian Britain," 1908; C. F. Keary, "The Vikings in Western Christendom," 1891; A. Mawer, "The Vikings," 1912; F. M. Stenton, "The Danes in England," 1926. [T. F. T.]

Dangerfield, THOMAS (*d.* 1685), the inventor of the "Meal-Tub Plot" (q.v.), was a man of profligate life, who had been more than once branded, whipped, and imprisoned for felony. His disclosures implicating the Presbyterian leaders were not believed, and his retractation and subsequent accusation of the Catholics led fortunately to no judicial murders, as in the case of his fellow-informers, Oates and Bedloe. [POPISH PLOT.] On the accession of James II, Dangerfield was convicted of libel in connexion with the Meal-Tub Plot (q.v.), and was put in the pillory and whipped. On his way back to prison he was brutally assaulted by a Roman Catholic lawyer named Francis, and shortly afterwards died.

T. Pollock, "Popish Plot," 1903.

Darcy, THOMAS, LORD (*d.* 1537), was a faithful subject of the Crown throughout the reign of Henry VII. During the Cornish outbreak of 1497, being made one of the royal commissioners appointed for a thorough investigation of the various circumstances of the rebellion, he showed his zeal for the king by the merciless severity of his proceedings. Later on, in the same year, Darcy accompanied the Earl of Surrey in his hasty march to the relief of Norham Castle, then closely besieged by the Scots under James IV and Perkin Warbeck; and it was presumably as a reward for his services on this occasion that he was appointed in 1498 to the constableship of Bamburgh Castle and the captaincy of the town of Berwick. In 1505 he became warden of the East and Middle Marches of Scotland. Darcy's suspected sympathy with the insurrection that broke out in Lincolnshire in 1537, and his unmistakable co-operation with the Yorkshire nobles in the popular rising known as the "Pilgrimage of Grace" (q.v.), which immediately succeeded the Lincolnshire revolt, were circumstances which at once singled him out for the vengeance of Thomas Cromwell. A very brief examination was sufficient to prove Darcy's treasonable connexion with the rioters of 1537, and he was accordingly beheaded on June 30 of that year.

Dardanelles, THE PASSAGE OF THE, was accomplished in 1807 by Sir John Duckworth, who thus lent considerable aid to the Russian troops invading Moldavia and Wallachia. A desultory fire was opened on the British ships from both the European and Asiatic sides of the straits, but without much effect. An ultimatum was sent to the Turkish government, which opened negotiations in order to save time. So successful and speedy were their defences that the British admiral determined at last to retrace his steps (March 1, 1807)—a feat which he accomplished under heavy fire. Admiral Duckworth then contented himself with blockading the straits. The expedition, though unsuccessful in its results, was well planned, and calculated, had it succeeded, to have strengthened very materially the resistance offered by Russia to Napoleon.

Dardanelles Expedition, THE (February 1915–January 1916), began as a naval offensive directed towards opening up allied communications with Russia through the Mediterranean and the Black Sea, but was soon extended to involve five military divisions under Sir Ian Hamilton (two British, one Australian, one of New Zealand troops, and one French). The naval attack failed on March 18, and while Sir Ian Hamilton was concentrating his preparations in Egypt the Turks under Marshal Liman von Sandars fortified the straits and organized a defence comprising six divisions. The landing on the Gallipoli Peninsula was effected on the nights of April 23 and 24—the British at Cape Helles, the French at Kum Kale, and the Dominion troops at Anzac Cove—giving the allies two precarious and exposed footholds in the peninsula and one on the mainland. Reinforcements arrived in May, but little advance was made, and five more divisions were sent out in June. July was spent in preparations for an attack. On the night of August 6 the allied offensive opened—simultaneous attacks at Sari Bair (a mountainous region north of Anzac) and Suvla Bay (the northern extremity of the peninsula). Successful resistance was offered by the Turks at Anzac during the four days following, while opportunities were lost at Suvla and the Turks allowed to concentrate their defences. By August 11 neither attack had any chance of success. The Turks held the heights around Suvla, and the Anzac position was badly exposed. After August 21 no serious offensive was undertaken. General Byng succeeded to the command, but no reinforcements could be spared from the West.

Slender hopes, coupled with the trend of the

erbian and Salonika campaigns, led to the iscussion of withdrawal as early as September. ord Kitchener, who went out to visit the ardanelles area in the autumn, reported that vacuation was the only justifiable course. nstructions to withdraw from Anzac and Suvla ere ultimately sent to Sir Charles Monro (the ew commander-in-chief) on December 8. But Ionro had anticipated them, and his evacuation f the two posts was almost complete by Decem- er 18. Orders to withdraw from Helles soon llowed, and in adverse weather the last etachments were embarked secretly on the ight of January 8, 1916. The failure of the ampaign can be ascribed chiefly to the initial aval attack, which warned the Turks and rompted them to fortify the peninsula, and o the allies' inability to provide reinforce- ents.

C. P. Aspinall, "Gallipoli," 1926.

[A. C. F. B.]

Darien Company, The. After found- ng the Bank of England in 1694 [Banking], William Paterson conceived the idea of inau- urating a company in which the Scots should nd a field for their enterprise equal to that ossessed by the English in the East India ompany. The trade with eastern and southern sia had long been passing round by the ape, and was virtually in the hands of this reat company. Paterson therefore argued hat by establishing a colony at Darien the astern world might more directly exchange s products with the western. In 1695 an ct was passed in the Scottish parliament, iving to the newly-formed African Company, hose directors were equally divided between England and Scotland, special and peculiar owers to make settlements and build cities, arbours, and fortifications in Asia, Africa, r America. They were likewise authorized to nake alliances with distant powers in these hree parts of the world, and to defend them- elves if attacked; while to restrain private dventurers, all other Scotsmen were pro- ibited from trading in the districts occupied by the company. But when the news of his concession reached England the parlia- ment at Westminster was loud in condemning uch unwarranted privileges granted to the northern kingdom, and William III was forced o disown his commissioner's act, and with- draw, as King of England, the charter which s King of Scotland he had granted his repre- entative. The result of this outcry was that he English capital was withdrawn from the cheme, and its whole burden thrown on the Scots, who soon subscribed a nominal sum of £400,000, of which, however, it appears that only a little more than half was actually paid up. It was not all at once that Paterson made known the exact spot at which he would fix his great station, and even when the fleet was ready to sail, in 1698, its destination was not precisely known. A few vessels had been procured from Amsterdam and Hamburg, the largest of which would have been one of the smallest in the English navy, and the expedition set sail under the guidance of a council of seven. The cargo laid in seems to have comprised just the things which would *not* be wanted by the inhabitants of the region to which they were being sent. Huge periwigs, heavy woollen stuffs, and hundreds of English Bibles were scarce likely to meet the needs of the Spaniards or Indians dwelling in a tropical clime. After suffering some privation from lack of provisions, the fleet anchored off the Isthmus of Darien, and taking possession of the country, called it New Caledonia, and at once commenced to dig trenches for their city of New Edinburgh. Negotiations were opened with the natives, and attempts were made to inaugurate the representative government which had been decided upon at home. Meanwhile the site of the new settlement became known in Europe; the Spanish ambassador was loud in his complaints, and preparations were made in the Spanish ports for an expedition against the intruders. But in Scotland the frenzy increased, and in August 1699 four more ships were dispatched to the isthmus, with thirteen hundred men on board. But by the time the new expedition reached its destination the preceding one had disappeared. Unable to toil in the tropical heat, and unaccustomed to tropical foods, the Scottish settlers perished by scores, till at last the survivors, disregarding Paterson's entreaties to be left with a few companions to welcome the reinforcements from home, put off for New York; and four months later the second expedition found the site of New Edinburgh a wilderness. It was in vain that they attempted to reconstruct the colony. Dissensions broke out, and mortality was high; and to crown all, a Spanish squadron anchored off their walls. With great difficulty a negotiation was opened between men of two nations who seem not to have had any acquaintance with each other's language, and by the middle of April the Scottish party had set sail for home, having lost, in little more than four months, nearly a quarter of their number.

J. S. Barbour, "William Paterson and the Darien Company," 1907.

Darlington, Charlotte Sophia Kilmansegge, Countess of (*d.* 1730). [Kilmansegge.]

Darnley, Henry Stuart, Lord (1545–1567). [Stuart.]

Darrein Presentment. [Assize.]

Dartmouth, William Legge, 1st Earl of (1672–1750). [Legge.]

Dashwood, Sir Francis, created Baron le Despencer (1708–81), the son of Sir Francis Dashwood by Lady Mary Fane, obtained his chief claim to celebrity in early life by his reckless immorality and profaneness. From such scenes as those of his "Franciscan

Abbey" at Medmenham, Sir Francis was summoned to become treasurer of the chamber in 1761, in which office Bute found him so convenient a creature that on becoming prime minister he appointed him chancellor of the exchequer. Wilkes well understood the absurdity of the appointment, when he said that "from puzzling all his life at tavern bills he was called by Lord Bute to administer the finances of a kingdom above one hundred millions in debt." To remedy this deficit the new chancellor proposed to levy a tax on cider, which at once produced an outcry so loud that the proposed tax had to be much reduced. Even then it was productive of much hardship, and served only to add to the unpopularity of Bute's administration. Dashwood had at any rate the good sense to perceive his own incompetence. "People," he said, "will point at me in the streets, and say, 'There goes the worst chancellor of the exchequer that ever appeared.'" As a reward for his services he was created Baron le Despencer, and with his elevation to the peerage he retired from the political world (1763).

Daubeney, Giles, Lord (*d.* 1508), was raised to the peerage in 1486, in recognition of his services during the period of Henry VII's exile. Shortly after receiving this proof of royal favour, he was made deputy governor of Calais, and while acting in that capacity he headed the expedition dispatched from England with secret instructions to lend all possible assistance to the Emperor Maximilian. These orders Daubeney executed with marked success, and compelled the French to raise the siege of Dixmude. By a well-timed attack on their camp he inflicted upon them severe losses, slaying over 8,000 men, and capturing a considerable quantity of military stores. During the Cornish revolt Daubeney was a trusted leader of the king's forces. His energetic attack on the rebels at Deptford Strand precipitated the general engagement at Blackheath (1497), which ended so victoriously for Henry.

David I, King of Scotland (*s.* April 27, 1124; *d.* May 24, 1153), youngest son of Malcolm Canmore and Margaret, sister of Edgar the Atheling, succeeded to the crown of Scotland on the death of his brother, Alexander I. Educated at the English court, owing to the marriage of his sister Matilda with Henry I, he became thoroughly imbued with the spirit of feudalism. On his brother Edgar's death (1107) he returned to Scotland as earl of the country south of the Forth and Clyde (Cumbria). David had at this time married Matilda, daughter of the English Earl Waltheof, and in her right held the English honours of Huntingdon and Northampton. On the death of his brother Alexander (1124), he added the territory north of the Forth and Clyde to that which he already ruled, and thus united the whole of Scotland. The result of his early education speedily became apparent in his introduction of feudal institutions and his application of feudal principles throughout almost the whole of Scotland. He reorganized the administrative system on lines parallel to those followed in England, and introduced the Norman institution of the jury or sworn inquest. These innovations, hateful to most of the northern nobles, led, during David's absence in England, to a rebellion, headed by Angus, Earl of Moray, and Malcolm, natural son of Alexander (1130). The insurgents, however, were soon defeated, and their leader slain. Four years later a fresh insurrection was planned, but was defeated by Anglo-Norman aid. In 1136 David, who had, in his capacity of English earl, taken the oath of allegiance to Matilda, entered England at the head of a large army to support his niece against Stephen of Blois, her rival claimant for the English crown. A peace was concluded, but not kept. David persistently ravaged the north of England, and the war was only brought to an end in 1138, when he was defeated at the famous Battle of the Standard (q.v.). Shortly afterwards, in 1139, another peace was made which assigned to David's son Henry the earldom of Northumbria, to be held as a fief of the English Crown. In 1141, after the capture of Stephen at Lincoln, David again joined his niece, narrowly escaping capture at Winchester; and in 1149 he knighted Henry of Anjou at Carlisle. He died at Carlisle in May 1153. David I acquired a very considerable reputation for sanctity. He was the founder of several new abbeys—notably those of Holyrood and Melrose—and was the founder or the reorganizer of several Scottish bishoprics. He introduced into Scotland the new monastic orders, and especially favoured the Cistercians. The burghs of Edinburgh, Berwick, Roxburgh, Stirling, and perhaps Perth, were founded by him.

P. Hume Brown, "History of Scotland," 1911.

David II, King of Scotland (*s.* June 9, 1329, *d.* February 22, 1371), was the son of King Robert Bruce. In accordance with the terms of the Treaty of Northampton, he was married (1328) to the Princess Joanna of England, sister of Edward III. At the time of his father's death (1329) he was only five years of age, and the kingdom was consequently governed by regents. In 1334, on the invasion and triumph of Edward Baliol (q.v.), he fled to France, and did not return till 1341. While in France his hostility to England increased, as well as his friendship for the land that sheltered him, and he was led by these feelings to cross the border in 1346 in support of Philip of France. In Edward's absence the northern barons were hurriedly called to arms, and defeated the invading army at Neville's Cross. David was himself taken prisoner, and was not released till 1357 under the terms of the Treaty of Berwick. For the rest of his reign he was involved in

financial difficulties, due partly to his personal extravagance, but mainly to the heavy ransom exacted by the English king. His extortions formed the excuse for a baronial revolt under the leadership of the Earl of Douglas, Robert the Steward, and the Earl of March, who were further alienated as a result of David's imprudent second marriage. In despair the king attempted to come to terms with Edward III, and to secure the remission of the arrears of his ransom in return for the acknowledgment of Edward or one of his sons as heir to the Scottish throne. When, however, he placed the proposal before the Scottish estates in 1364, it was peremptorily rejected. The remainder of his reign was occupied in disputes with his parliament, which showed a "surly resoluteness" in checking the abuses of the royal prerogative. He died in the year 1371.

P. Hume Brown, "History of Scotland," 1911.

David, Prince of North Wales, was the brother of Llewelyn. There was keen rivalry between the two, and on several occasions David rose in revolt against his brother. In 1274 he formed a plot with Gruffudd, son of the lord of Powys, to slay Llewelyn. The plot was betrayed, and David fled to England, where he threw in his lot with Edward I. In 1277 he joined the English king in his expedition against the Welsh; and when Llewelyn surrendered, one of the first conditions of the peace was the reconciliation of the two brothers. But David, although Edward had married him to the daughter of the Earl of Derby, and granted him extensive territories in Wales and England, soon found cause of complaint against his patron. The two brothers united against the stranger. In March 1282 David surprised Hawarden Castle, and the marches were laid waste. After Llewelyn's death, however, David was betrayed to the English by his own countrymen. He was tried at Shrewsbury (September 30, 1283). Earls, barons, judges, knights of the shires, and twenty borough members were all present on this solemn occasion; but the baronage alone can be considered as the peers of the culprit. He was condemned to death and executed with circumstances of special horror as a traitor and a murderer.

J. E. Lloyd, "History of Wales," 1911.

Davis, John (*d.* 1605), one of the famous explorers of Elizabeth's reign, was born near Dartmouth. He made three voyages in search of a north-west passage to the Pacific. In the first (1585) he coasted round the south of Greenland and Baffin's Land across the strait that now bears his name, and in the third (1587) he reached the entrance of Hudson's Strait. In 1591 he accompanied Thomas Cavendish (q.v.) to the South Seas, continuing his voyage when the rest of the expedition had returned. In later years his services were employed in journeys to the East Indies on behalf of the newly-founded company; and it was on his return from one of these expeditions that he met with his fate—being killed by Japanese pirates off the island of Mintang (near Singapore) in 1605.

Life by Sir C. R. Markham, 1889.

Davis, Mary, or Moll (*fl.* 1663–9), was a natural daughter of the Earl of Berkshire, and one of Charles II's mistresses. She had by the king one daughter, Mary Tudor, who was married to the Earl of Derwentwater.

Davison, William (*d.* 1608), one of the diplomatists of Queen Elizabeth's reign, was sent in 1575 to the Low Countries to report on the state of affairs; in 1579 he revisited Holland, and four years later was again employed to counteract Scottish influence there. In 1586 he became a principal secretary of state, and was in favour of the execution of Mary, Queen of Scots; it is well known how he was made the scapegoat of the other ministers for his excess of zeal in dispatching the warrant for the execution (1587), after he had procured Elizabeth's signature to it. It will always remain a moot point how far the queen was really ignorant of the nature of the paper she had signed, and of its dispatch, but it is probable that she found it convenient to act as she did towards Davison in order to clear herself as far as possible of the charge of having desired Mary's death; whilst Davison's repeated declarations that the queen herself had ordered the warrant to be sent off did not tend to pacify her resentment. The unfortunate secretary was brought to trial, February 1587, heavily fined and imprisoned, and in spite of the attempts of Essex and Burghley to procure his pardon, was never restored to favour.

Biography by Sir N. H. Nicholas, 1823.

Day, George, Bishop of Chichester (1501–1556), was educated at Cambridge, and became provost of King's College, 1538. He was a strenuous opponent of the religious changes of the reign of Edward VI, and was accordingly committed to the Fleet (1550) and deprived of his bishopric (which he had held since 1543). Mary restored him, however (1553), and appointed him with Gardiner, Tunstall, and Bonner to purify the episcopal bench.

Deane, Henry (*d.* 1503), was Prior of Llanthony, in Monmouthshire, and entering Henry VII's service, was employed in several public offices. When Sir Edward Poynings became lord-deputy of Ireland, Deane was appointed chancellor of Ireland (1494), and did valuable service in aiding Poynings's work of restoring order and regular government in that country. At the time of his Irish chancellorship, Deane was bishop-elect of Bangor, and in 1501, on the death of Morton, Archbishop of Canterbury, was appointed to succeed him as primate of all England. Whilst Archbishop of Canterbury, Henry Deane was in some degree a patron of Wolsey, whom he

made his domestic chaplain. He died February 15, 1503.

Deane, Richard (1610–53), son of Edward Deane, of Temple Guyting, Gloucestershire, entered the Parliamentary army at the beginning of the Civil War, and served in the artillery under Essex, until taken prisoner in the unfortunate Cornish campaign of 1644. In the "New Model" (q.v.) he was comptroller of the ordnance, and in 1648 had risen to the rank of adjutant-general. He commanded the right wing of Cromwell's army at Preston, was present also at Worcester, and took part in the subjugation of the Highlands. He was deep in the confidence of Cromwell, sided with the army against the Parliament, and with the Independents against the Presbyterians, took his seat in the court which tried the king, and helped to secure the adhesion of the fleet to the Protectorate. In 1649 he had been appointed one of the three generals at sea, in which capacity he commanded in the Dutch War, and was killed in the battle off the North Foreland, June 2, 1653. He seems to have deserved the character Essex records of him in 1644: "an honest, judicious, and stout man."

Biography by J. B. Deane, 1870.

Debt, Legislation concerning. Among the Teutonic tribes it does not seem that a contract was concluded by any set form of words or by writing, as was the custom among the Romans: earnest money was paid, or the bargain concluded by the delivery of a straw or some similar token. But in questions of sale it was necessary to have witnesses to the transaction, and in early English law a varying number of upright men were assigned to each hundred and burh, for the purpose of testifying every such negotiation. So a statute of Ethelred I runs: "Let no man either buy or exchange unless he have burh and witness"; while Edgar's law requires thirty-three witnesses for the larger burhs, but only twelve for the hundreds and smaller towns. No one in Anglo-Saxon times was allowed to take the law into his own hands and right himself before bringing his claim before the proper court, and demanding justice four times. We may suppose similar methods of procedure in matters of debt to have continued in the local courts, subject to more or less change, during the reigns of the Norman and early Plantagenet kings; though, as Stubbs has remarked, alterations are slowest in the routine business of the petty courts. There are still extant several writs for debt issued by Henry I, some being addressed to the defendant. Two reigns later the writs for debt found in Glanvil are addressed to the sheriff, who is to refer the case, if necessary, to the king at Westminster. Debt was just beginning to be a question for the king's court. In Glanvil's time the method of deciding questions of debt was unsettled, both compurgation and the duel being allowed. Later on, compurgation won the day. With the reign of Edward I we find a statute upon the question, forbidding anyone to be distrained for debts not due (3 Ed. I). By an act passed in the 21st year of James I, a term of six years is set, within which alone the recovery of debts is legal; while another act under the same king forbids a tradesman's books to be given in evidence for a debt unless the action be brought within a year. An act of George II allowed the debt of the plaintiff to be set off against the debt of the defendant. In Norman times there was considerable difficulty in making lands liable for the debts of a man after his decease; and even in the debtor's lifetime there must have been a similar difficulty, till Edward I, in the Second Statute of Westminster, empowered a creditor who had obtained a judgment in his favour to take a moiety of the debtor's lands, and satisfy himself so far as he could. Imprisonment for debt was practically abolished by 32 & 33 Vict. c. 62 (1869), and punishments were provided for fraudulent debtors.

Holdsworth, "History of English Law"; Henry, "Contracts in the Local Courts of Medieval England."

Deccan was the name originally applied to the whole peninsula of India south of the Vindhya hills. It was conquered by the Mohammedans in the fourteenth century and formed into a kingdom. Long before the advance of the British into Central India it had been broken up among a variety of princes and feudatories, and the term Deccan came to be technically confined to the dominions of the Nizam (q.v.).

Decianus, Catus, was procurator in Britain when Boudicca rose in rebellion against the Romans, and his extortion is said to have been one of the chief causes of the revolt. At the siege of Camulodunum, the Roman colonists appealed to Catus for help, since Suetonius Paulinus, the legate, was away in Mona, but he sent only 200 soldiers to their aid. After the fall of Camulodunum, Catus fled to Gaul.

Tacitus, "Agricola"; Sir C. Oman, "England Before the Norman Conquest."

Declaration, The Royal (November 30, 1660). When Charles II was restored, the Irish Royalists naturally hoped for the restoration of their lands; but though, strictly speaking, their hopes were justifiable, it was practically inexpedient, if not impossible, for Charles to destroy existing arrangements. After a commission had sat, and the conflicting claims of the Irish and the Puritans had been argued before it, a document called "The Royal Declaration" was issued. This excepted from all indemnity two classes: those concerned in the Ulster Massacre, and those concerned in regicide. Protestant loyalists and certain favoured persons, such as Clanrickard and Mountgarret, were to be reinstated in

their possessions at once; "innocent papists" were also to be restored, but the adventurers and soldiers were to be left undisturbed or compensated. Those who had accepted lands in Connaught were, however, to abide by their bargains; but those who had not done so were to have their cases considered in due time. This declaration formed the basis of the first Act of Settlement (q.v.).

Declaratory Act. (1) In 1766 the Stamp Act of 1765 (q.v.) was repealed and a Declaratory Act substituted for it by the Rockingham ministry, declaring the right of parliament to legislate for the colonies on all matters, including taxation. The bill passed, despite Pitt's opposition. Its effect was to keep alive the American resentment roused by the Stamp Act. (2) In 1788 Pitt brought in a bill to explain the purport of the India Act of 1784. It declared that there was no step which could have been taken by the court of directors before the passing of that bill touching the military and political concerns of India, and the collection, management, and application of the revenues, which the board of control had not a right to take by the provisions of that bill: that, in fact, the whole powers of government had been transferred to the Crown. [India, Administration of.]

De Donis Conditionalibus (1285) is the title by which the Second Statute of Westminster (q.v.) is generally known. The second clause of this statute is of great importance as bearing upon the relations between lord and vassal. In the thirteenth century "conditional gifts," e.g., gifts of land to a husband and wife, or to an individual man or woman and "the heirs of their bodies," had been becoming increasingly common, their purpose being to restrict the donee's freedom of alienation by expressly providing that the land should descend to a particular class of heirs. The interpretation put upon such gifts by the royal courts tended, however, in many cases to defeat the intentions of the settlors. As soon as an heir was born to the donee (whether or not he survived), the conditions of the grant were held to have been fulfilled, and the donee might alienate the land as he chose, creating in favour of the alienee an estate which would hold good against any subsequent claim on the part of the alienor's issue, and which would endure though such issue became extinct. The object of the statute of 1285 was to prevent donees of conditional gifts from thus depriving both their own issue and the donor or his heirs of their rights in the land. It enacted that henceforward estates should always descend in accordance with the will of the donor as expressed in the charter of gift. Thus the "conditional fee" was converted into the "fee tail," so called because its descent was "cut down" (*talliatum*) to the heirs of the body of the donee, in the event of whose failure the estate reverted to the donor. The establishment of the system of perpetual entail marks an important stage in the development of the law of real property.

Sir F. Pollock and F. W. Maitland, "History of English Law," 2nd edn., 1911; W. S. Holdsworth, "History of English Law," 3rd edn., 1922.

[H. M. C.]

Dee, The Bridge of (1639), was the scene of an action between the Cavalier party in Aberdeen and the Covenanting forces under Montrose. The Cavaliers had hurriedly run up defences of turf and stone to protect the crooked and narrow passage of the seven-arched bridge, and held out against the enemy's cannon for a whole day (June 17). Next day Montrose, by a feigned attempt to cross the river at a neighbouring ford, drew off a great part of the Cavalier forces, and with his remaining troops forced the bridge, despite the opposition of the fifty Cavaliers still left to defend it.

P. Hume Brown, "History of Scotland," 1911.

Deeg, The Battle of (November 13, 1804), was fought between the British, commanded by General Fraser, and the army of Holkar. The latter was completely routed, and left 87 pieces of cannon on the field. But the victory was purchased by the death of the general, and a loss of 643 killed and wounded. The command devolved on Colonel Monson, who ordered up a battering-train and captured the fortress on November 23.

Deering, Father (*d.* 1534), was a monk of Henry VIII's reign, who was executed May 5, 1534, for the active part he took in the promotion of the conspiracy set on foot under the auspices of the so-called "Holy Maid of Kent."

"De Facto" King, Statute of (1495), was the famous act of Henry VII which declared service to an existing king to be no treason to his successor. It was necessitated partly by the insecurity felt by nobles of all parties in times of constant civil war and rebellion, and partly by Henry's desire to consolidate his power by winning over the remainder of the Yorkists. It provided that every man was bound by his allegiance to serve "the king for the time being," and that no person serving the existing king should be convicted of high treason or, by act of parliament or other process of law, suffer thereafter any forfeiture or imprisonment. The Statute De Facto was the subject of much discussion in 1660 during the trial of the regicides, and again after the Revolution of 1688.

Text in C. H. Williams, "England Under the Early Tudors," 1925.

Defender of the Faith (Fidei Defensor). This title was first conferred on Henry VIII by Pope Leo X, in 1521. Even so early as June 1518, when Luther's doctrines were only just beginning to make a stir in Europe, we find allusions to Henry's book of controversy against the reformer; but it was

not till more than three years later, when the king's zeal had received a fresh impulse from the publication of "De Captivitate Babylonica," with its fierce attack upon the seven sacraments of the Roman Church, that the royal author put the finishing touches to his work. Clerk, the English ambassador at Rome, received instructions to present the book to the pope, who read with avidity the opening pages, expressing his pleasure at almost every line by a nod or word of approval. The king, said the pope, had passed the clerks in their own fields. Several copies were, at Leo's request, placed in the hands of some of the principal cardinals; and a little later Leo received the ambassador in a consistory of twenty bishops, approved the book, and next day conferred on its author the title "Fidei Defensor" (October 11, 1521). This title is said to have been intended as a compensation for the title "Rex Christianissimus," which Julius II had declared to be forfeited by the King of France, and had conferred upon the King of England, but which Leo could never be brought to recognize. Henry's defence of the seven sacraments, "Assertio Septem Sacramentorum," was published at London in July 1521, and rapidly passed through many editions; it was translated into German in 1523, and into English a few years later. Luther published a fierce reply within a year, and affected to consider the work so contemptible a treatise that it must have been written by a "parcel of empty-headed sophists," who abused the king's name by prefixing it to a work "stuffed full of their own lies and virulence." When Henry broke with the papacy, Pope Paul III deprived him of the title of "Defender of the Faith," but in 1544 it was confirmed to him by parliament, and has since been used by all his successors on the English throne.

Defenders, The, were a party in Ireland that owed their origin to a faction fight between Catholics and Protestants on July 4, 1784. The Protestants were called Peep o' Day Boys (q.v.), as they visited the dwellings of the Catholic defenders early in the morning and took away their arms. The great faction fight of these two parties was the battle of Diamond (q.v.). In 1793 the Defenders rose in great numbers, nominally to prevent the enrolment of the militia, and, although pacified in September 1795, were soon in activity again. The name disappears from history after 1798, when the party was merged into that of the United Irishmen. The causes of their existence were to a large extent agrarian.

W. E. H. Lecky, "Ireland in the 18th Century," edn. 1904.

Defoe, Daniel (1661–1733), was the son of a London butcher, named Foe—the former himself adopted the French prefix. He was educated in the doctrines of Dissent and Whiggism. As an opponent of the designs of James II, he fought in the rebellion of the Duke of Monmouth, and was fortunate enough to escape. Shortly afterwards he published a pamphlet, warning the Dissenters against the designs of the king. After the Revolution he engaged in trade, and was appointed secretary to the commission for managing the duties on glass. In 1698 his "Essay on Projects" appeared. He also published a treatise on Occasional Conformity, and another in favour of a standing army, "with the consent of parliament"; one against the impending French war, and one "On the Original Power of the Collective Body of the People of England." In 1701 his "True-born Englishman" appeared, a satire with the object of reproaching those who abused William as a foreigner. The same year he drew up the "Legion Memorial," an expression of public opinion in favour of William's European designs, elicited by the treatment that the presenters of the Kentish petition received from the Commons. In 1702 he published his famous pamphlet, "The Shortest Way with Dissenters," an ironical performance, written in High Church language, which deceived even the Dissenters themselves. The High Church party brought the work before the notice of the House, and it was condemned to be burnt by the common hangman. Defoe surrendered himself to justice, and was fined, put in the pillory, and imprisoned (1703). From Newgate he issued the *Review*, a periodical paper, which was the predecessor of the more famous *Spectator* of Steele. In 1704 he was released by the exertions of Harley, who sought to win him over to the Tory side. Money was sent him by the queen to pay his fine. In 1706 he published a satire on the High Churchmen. He was sent to Scotland to assist the commission for the Union; and his commercial knowledge proved of use to the English government, while at the same time he aided them with his pen. His history of the Union was published in 1709. A satirical piece, entitled "A Seasonable Caution," against the Pretender, which he vindicated in the *Review*, caused his second imprisonment in Newgate (1711); again Harley procured his freedom. On the accession of George I he was treated with neglect, and exposed to attacks from the Whigs on account of his friendship with Harley. He therefore published "An Appeal to Honour and Justice, though it be to my Worst Enemies," as a vindication of his political career. After this he ceased to write openly on political subjects, though it is probable that he was largely engaged in surreptitious political journalism.

Defoe's "Life and Works," ed. by W. Lee, 1869; biographies by W. Wilson, 1830, W. Minto, 1879, and Wright, 1894. [S. L.]

De Grey, Thomas Philip, Earl (1781–1859), was the eldest son of Thomas Robinson, second Lord Grantham. On his father's death, he entered the House of Lords as Lord Gran-

tham, 1786, and, on the death of his maternal aunt, the Countess de Grey, succeeded to the earldom (1833). In 1834–5 he held the office of first lord of the admiralty under Sir Robert Peel. When Peel again took office, in 1841, Earl de Grey was appointed lord-lieutenant of Ireland, until his retirement in 1844.

De Hæretico Comburendo was the title of a statute promulgated in 1401 against the Lollards. It was enacted on the urgent petition of the clergy, a petition couched in more moderate terms being presented at the same time by the Commons. By this statute a heretic convicted before the spiritual court who refused to recant, or relapsed after recantation, was to be handed over to the civil power to be burned. Archbishop Arundel was the prime mover in the matter, and Henry was probably not unwilling to crush the Lollards, who were popularly associated with the party of Richard II and who had massed in large numbers in London, with the probable intention of overawing parliament.

Deira was the name given to the ancient Anglian kingdom stretching from the Tees or the Tyne to the Humber, and extending inland to the borders of the British realm of Strathclyde. Like Kent and some other districts of Britain, it seems to have retained a British name, both for the land and its inhabitants, long after it had been conquered by the Teutonic tribes; for the words Deira and Deiri appear to be both related to the old Welsh *Deivr*. In all probability, both Deira and its northern neighbour, Bernicia, were, like Mercia, originally colonized by several tribes, each under its own leader. We read in the "Anglo-Saxon Chronicle" that Ida established the kingdom of Bernicia in 547—a phrase which may fairly enough be interpreted as implying that he united into one all the petty settlements existing in his time. The Deiran kingship begins a few years later in 560 with Ella. On his death (588), Ethelric of Bernicia drove out Ella's young son, Edwin, and seized Deira, and his son Ethelfrith succeeded him in 593 in the rule of both kingdoms. Edwin, meanwhile, had taken refuge with Redwald, King of the East Angles, and the two together met, and overthrew Ethelfrith in 617. Edwin in his turn now united Deira and Bernicia; but, as if to show how very imperfectly even the southern part of his realm was knit together, we read of his having to subdue the small British kingdom of Loidis or Elmet, lying within the bounds of his native country, Deira. On the defeat of Edwin by Penda of Mercia at Heathfield (633), the two kingdoms were once more divided; only, however, to be reunited first under Oswald (634–42) and then finally under Oswy (655–71), both sons of Ethelfrith. From this time the separate kingdoms of Deira and Bernicia may be considered as merged in that of Northumbria. The feuds of the rival dynasties remained, however, an incessant source of strife, and were a prime cause of the ultimate fall of the united kingdom in the later ninth century. In 867 York was seized by the Danes, and in the course of the next decade all Deira was conquered and settled by them, although Bernicia maintained an independent existence. The Danish kingdom of York was finally subjugated by Edred in 954, and sank with Bernicia to the status of an earldom. Under Ethelred the two provinces of Deira and Bernicia appear to have been often disjoined, but were once more united by Earl Uhtred in the early eleventh century (1006). Canute, after the murder of Earl Uhtred in 1016, appears to have left Bernicia in the hands of his family, but to have assigned Deira to a Danish earl, Eric. It was not again joined to the northern province until 1042, when Siward, Earl of Deira, assassinated Eadwulf of Bernicia, and annexed that earldom to his own. On Siward's death all Northumbria was given to Tostig (1055); and on his banishment, in 1065, to Morkere. With the Conquest we may look upon the old name of Deira as being politically extinct. Nominally, the great earldom of the north lingered on for a few years under Morkere, Copsi, and Gospatric, but finally disappeared in the time of the great harrying of 1069. This strong act of policy or cruelty may have done much to obliterate the distinction between the two provinces—whether this distinction arose from purely political considerations, or was in later years mainly due to the large infusion of Danish blood that was from 975 undoubtedly present in the more southern district. [Northumbria; Bernicia.]

[T. A. A.]

De la Mare, Sir Peter (*fl.* 1376), was one of the knights of the shire for Hereford in the Good Parliament (1376) (q.v.), in which he acted as spokesman for the Commons. He was, it has been said, the first to hold "an office indistinguishable in all essentials from that of the later Speaker." Under his guidance the Commons elaborated a comprehensive scheme of reform, which they successfully forced upon the court in the teeth of the opposition of John of Gaunt. When the parliament dispersed, however, De la Mare was imprisoned by Lancaster's order in Nottingham Castle, and was not released till Richard II's accession, although a strong minority in the parliament of January 1377 demanded his liberation.

C. Wittke, "History of English Parliamentary Privilege," 1921.

Delamere, Henry Booth, Lord (1652–94). [Booth.]

Delaware, State of. [American Colonies.]

Delgon, The Battle of, is said to have been fought in 574 between the Scots under Conall, and the Picts, who were victorious, killing Conall's son Duncan. Delgon is in Kintyre.

Delhi was formerly the capital of the Mogul empire, and was annexed by the British on December 4, 1803. The transference of the capital of British India from Calcutta to Delhi was announced at the Coronation Durbar of 1911, and took place in 1912.

Delhi, The Sieges of. (1) September 11, 1803. General Lake (q.v.), with a British force 4,500 strong, discovered Bourquin, Sindhia's general, encamped in a fortified position before Delhi, drawn up with his rear resting on the Jumna, and a formidable train of artillery in front. So situated, the position of the enemy appeared impregnable; and Lake ordered his cavalry, who were advancing in front, to execute a feigned retreat. The enemy, deceived, left their position, and rushed forward. The British infantry advanced steadily amid showers of grape, and after firing one round, charged with the bayonet. The shock was irresistible; the ranks of the enemy broke and fled down to the river.

(2) October 7, 1804. After Colonel Monson's unfortunate expedition into Holkar's territory had been forced back upon Agra, Jaswant Rao made a sudden incursion to the very gates of Delhi. The garrison was so small as not to admit of reliefs, and provisions and sweetmeats were therefore served out to them on the ramparts, but the British resident, Colonel Ochterlony, defended the place for nine days against 20,000 Mahrattas and 100 guns, till at length Holkar, despairing of success, drew off his army.

(3) During the Indian Mutiny. The mutineering sepoy regiments from Meerut appeared before Delhi, and, despite the efforts of Brigadier Graves and Lieutenant Willoughby, captured the town on May 11, 1857. All the Europeans who could do so fled precipitately, and the city of the Great Mogul was soon the centre of the revolt. It became necessary to recapture so important a post, and on June 8 Sir Henry Barnard, after defeating an advance division of the enemy, occupied the Ridge, a rising ground some two miles from the city. Delhi was defended by a series of bastions 16 feet high, connected by long curtains, with here and there a martello tower. Bastions and curtains were alike of solid masonry, 12 feet thick, and the whole was further strengthened by a wide and deep ditch. The besieging army consisted of British troops, Sikhs, Afghans, and Gurkhas, whilst the rebels were 30,000 strong, with ample provisions and ammunition. It was not till June 23 that operations really began with a sally from the city, which was beaten back, after a day's hard fighting. During August and September the British quickened their preparations for the attack. Brigadier Nicholson arrived at the camp with the requisite siege-train, and the heavy artillery came soon after. On September 8 four batteries opened fire on the city, and by the 13th a breach was made. The next morning saw the final assault. Three columns were led to the walls, while a fourth was held in reserve. For five days the fighting continued in the streets, and no quarter was extended to men with weapons in their hands. At last, on September 20, the gates of the palace were forced; but Bahadur Shah had in the meanwhile escaped to the tomb of Homayun, outside the city. Here he was captured by Captain Hodson, and his two sons shot as they were re-entering the city. This was the turning-point of the revolution, which could no longer threaten any considerable danger when its nominal head, the Great Mogul king, was a prisoner in the hands of the British.

G. B. Malleson, "Indian Mutiny," 1878–80; J. C. Grant Duff, "Mahrattas," 1826 and 1921; J. Griffiths, "Narrative of the Siege of Delhi," 1910.

Delvin, Richard Nugent, 15th Baron (1583–1642). [Nugent.]

Demesne Lands were the estates which belonged to the Crown, and in early days were one of the main sources of the royal revenue. When these had been held by the Crown since the time of Edward the Confessor, they went by the name of manors of ancient demesne; and each of these manors of ancient demesne was reckoned as a franchise outside the ordinary jurisdiction of hundred or shire. The tenants were almost exempt from external authority, being governed under a system of seignorial justice exercised by the king outside the ordinary province of common law. They were also exempt from ordinary taxation, but liable to be tallaged arbitrarily by the king. "Once ancient demesne, always ancient demesne"; even if such lands were alienated by the king (a feeling existed that this should not be allowed to happen, for they were peculiarly his own, and "the king should live of his own"), the special privileges remained. Tenants retained their immunities and privileges, and a special form of tenure which was common on ancient demesne and peculiar to it. This was a species of tenure half-way between freedom and villeinage. The tenant's services are similar in character to those of the villein, but unlike the latter he can seek the protection of the manorial court against ejectment by the use of a special writ. In the times of Stephen large grants of the royal property were made for the sake of purchasing adherents to either party; the resumption of these grants was one of the first reforms brought about by Henry II. A similar course of conduct had been pursued by William Marshall in the early days of Henry III, and again by Hubert de Burgh. In later years it became a custom for the kings to impoverish themselves by these imprudent grants, and then appeal to parliament for support. In 1310 the Ordainers forbade the king to make these gifts without their consent. A similar spirit was shown by the parliaments of 1404, 1450, and other years. In the latter half of the fifteenth century the Crown had grown so poor that Fortescue, in his "De Laudibus Legum

Angliæ," suggests a general resumption of the royal possessions, which he says at one time extended over a fifth part of the kingdom; and he further suggests that for the future the king should only grant estates for life. Several towns (e.g., Northampton) were in royal demesne, and all perhaps are to be considered as so being unless they had a special lord.

Stubbs, "Constitutional History"; W. H. Holdsworth, "History of English Law," 1922.

Demetæ, The, were an ancient tribe inhabiting the south-west corner of Wales. According to Rhŷs, they consisted of Goidels, or the earlier Celtic immigrants, largely mixed with the remnants of the earlier pre-Celtic occupants of our island.

Denbigh, Basil Feilding, 2nd Earl of (*d.* 1674). [Feilding.]

Denman, Thomas, Lord (1779–1854), was the son of Thomas Denman, a London physician. After completing his education at Cambridge, he was called to the bar in 1806. Distinguishing himself by the conduct of many cases, notably the defence of Lord Cochrane, he was returned to parliament for Wareham in 1818, and later for Nottingham —a town which he continued to represent till 1832. But his greatest success was obtained when, in company with Lord Brougham, he was selected to defend Queen Caroline in 1820, though before this he had gained great reputation for his exertions on behalf of the Luddites (q.v.), and for the repeal of the Six Acts. In 1832 he was appointed lord chief justice, an office which he discharged with a conscientious love for truth, even if, as was said, with something of the spirit of an advocate. Amongst his many titles to renown must be enumerated his passion for liberty, his exertions against the slave trade, and his ardour for the amelioration of the criminal laws.

Memoir by Sir J. Arnould.

Denmark, Relations with. The consolidation of the Danish state by "Gorm the Old," in the ninth century, had a twofold effect on English history. Firstly, it sent the fiercer jarls and chiefs to find new homes of liberty beyond the sea; secondly, it established in the old home of the new conquerors of England a state adequate to cope with the West Saxon monarchy itself. The dealings of England with the Viking invaders are summarized in another article [Danes, The], but with the conquest of all England by Sweyn (Svend) and Canute (Cnut), a political relation of the most intimate character between the two nations resulted, for England, in important consequences, and for Denmark in little less than the introduction of civilization from English sources. Victorious Denmark was in danger of becoming dependent on conquered England, when the death of Hardicanute, in 1042, severed the two countries. Despite the internal confusions which resulted from the decay of the old Danish dynasty, the successors of Canute did not at once give up all hopes of reconquering his great prize. Among their many abortive attempts may be specially mentioned those of Saint Canute (1080–6), who, both before and after his accession to the Danish throne, strove earnestly to achieve this object. But it is in commercial rather than in political dealings that the relations between Denmark and England were now kept up. In the twelfth and thirteenth centuries the Scandinavian states were economically bound to England by ties as close as those which kept England in dependence on the Netherlands.

The rise of the Hanseatic League drove the English away from the monopoly of Danish trade; but when the Scandinavian kingdoms sought a protector from the overbearing Hansa it was to England that they turned. In 1490 Henry VII concluded a commercial treaty with King Hans, by which the English, in return for paying the Sound dues, were allowed to have great privileges for their merchants including the right of appointing consuls with jurisdiction over offenders of their own nationality. Christian II sought in England assistance against the revolted Swedes, but his close relative, Christian III, demanded all the trading rights of the English as the price of their alliance. The general friendship between Sweden and France led Denmark to an English alliance. James I married a Danish wife, and supported Christian IV in his attack on the empire in 1625. But the establishment of friendly relations between England and France may probably have led to a certain amount of hostility between England and Denmark during the seventeenth century. In 1652 Frederick III powerfully assisted the Dutch in their struggle against the Long Parliament and Cromwell. But the changed relations of England and Holland, and a new intimacy with the great elector, on the whole a friend of England, produced another turn in Danish politics. The hostility which Charles XII of Sweden showed to England at the end of his reign only resulted in England, Hanover, and Denmark uniting to divide a great part of the German territories of Sweden. The close connexion of Denmark with Russia was, before the days of the younger Pitt, a new guarantee of English friendship, which not even the divorce of the English Princess Matilda from Christian VII and the short-lived French policy of Struensee could affect. In 1780, and again in 1801, Denmark joined the Armed Neutrality (q.v.) against Great Britain; but in the former case peace was maintained, while in the latter the bombardment of Copenhagen (q.v.) by Parker and the death of Paul I of Russia ended the dispute. In 1807 Great Britain, fearful lest Napoleon should use the Danish navy against her, sent an expedition to Copenhagen, which effected its object by seizing the Danish fleet at the expense of her friendly relations with Denmark. When peace was made in 1815,

Great Britain retained of her Danish conquests Heligoland. During the nineteenth century the Schleswig-Holstein question was at the root of most of the dealings between Great Britain and Denmark. The Treaty of London, which settled the Danish succession, was largely the result of British intervention. The war against Germany in 1864 was rashly entered into by the Danes, in the belief that Great Britain would help them to retain their hold over the duchies. They were, however, disappointed, and their loss of the much-disputed territories to Prussia largely neutralized the good effect which the marriage of the daughter (Alexandra) of their new king to the Prince of Wales had occasioned.

R. H. Bain, "Scandinavia," 1905; C. F. Allen, "Histoire de Danemark," 1878; Allen Mawer, "The Vikings," 1913; J. F. Chance (ed.), "British Diplomatic Instructions, Denmark, 1689–1789," 1927.

[T. F. T.]

Deogaom, The Treaty of (December 17, 1803), was concluded between the East India Company and the Raja of Berar. Its stipulations were that Cuttack should be ceded to the British; that the lands west of the Wurdah, which had belonged to the Nizam, should be restored to him; that the British should arbitrate on his differences with the Nizam and Peshwa; and that all Europeans of any nation at war with Great Britain should be excluded from Berar.

Deorham, The Battle of (577), is the name given to the great victory by which Ceawlin of Wessex broke up the territory still held by the Welsh into two parts, by severing the Britons south of the Bristol Channel from those north of that estuary. As a consequence of this victory, Bath, Gloucester, and Cirencester fell into the hands of the West Saxons. Deorham has been identified with Dereham, a village between Bath and Chipping Sodbury.

T. Hodgkin, "Political History of England," vol. i.

Deposition, The Right of. It is very difficult in early English history to disentangle the true instances of a king's solemn deposition by the act of his witan or his people from those where it may merely have been the result of a domestic intrigue or disorderly rebellion. Of the latter kind Northumbria offers the best example, for out of fifteen kings ruling over this realm in the eighth century, only two seem to have met with a natural death while still in possession of the throne. But of these thirteen unfortunate kings, only three can be claimed as in any way exemplifying Kemble's fifth canon, "that the witan had the power to depose the king if his government was not conducted for the benefit of his people." If we turn to Wessex, the question becomes a little clearer. According to Henry of Huntingdon, Sigebert was deprived of his kingly office in 755, after the mature deliberation of the nobles and people, and with the consent of the whole nation. This reads like the formal act of a witan, conscious of its own rights, and not fearing to assert them to the full; but it is only fair to add that the authority is a late one and that one version of the "Chronicle" makes the statement in a more personal manner than that just given, and runs: "In this year Cynewulf deprived King Sigeberht of his kingdom." But another text is even more explicit than Henry of Huntingdon in ascribing the action to the witan. More than two centuries and a half later it appears that the crown of England was duly transferred by the English witan from Ethelred to Sweyn. The same inherent right of a people to discard its ruler if he neglects its interests may be seen in the action of the Northumbrians when they deposed Tostig from his earldom—an instance which seems somewhat forcibly to bring out the fact that down to the very latest times some traditions, however faint, of their old independence clung to the great English kingdoms, long after they had been incorporated with the West Saxon monarchy. To sum up the foregoing remarks, it seems evident that the power of deposition was in early English times recognized as being quite within the compass of the rights of that body which undoubtedly had elected the sovereign to the throne; and it is unnecessary to call in examples of similar proceedings from the annals of kindred Teutonic races on the continent.

The same twofold power of election and deposition seems to have been recognized for many hundred years after the Conquest. That which gave had the right to take away also. But by the time of our next instance of the execution of this power, things were wearing a somewhat different aspect. The royal power had been growing for many centuries; a vague feeling of indefeasible right was abroad; the Church lawyers had done much to magnify the power and the sacredness of the kingly office. Accordingly, when Bishop Stratford brought his detailed charges against Edward II before the parliament of 1327, it was considered necessary to secure the king's own consent to his son's election. Again, in 1399 the same problem had to be faced; for even then partisans of Bolingbroke did not seem quite sure of the extent of the rights of parliament. The question was debated whether Richard II should be requested to resign or be deposed, and it was finally determined to make things perfectly legal by adopting both courses. Richard consented to perform his part of this programme, and parliament, after hearing the long catalogue of charges brought against the king, voted that they formed a sufficient ground for his deposition. In these two last instances of deposition we seem to see signs that parliament hesitated as to the extent of its powers, and required the king's resignation before venturing to assert its own authority. The case of Charles I is so exceptional that it hardly comes under view of this article. But by the time of the Revolution of 1688, the doctrine of the king's divine right had been formulated in

definite terms, and whether accepted or not, had a strong influence even on the minds of Whigs. Unable to muster up sufficient courage to state boldly its right of deposition, parliament on this occasion took refuge in the theory of abdication, and made the king's act in fleeing from the kingdom equivalent to the verbal resignation which had been extracted from the unwilling lips of Edward II and Richard II.

To sum up, it may be said that the power of deposition was in early English times a practical, if not a theoretical, right, belonging to the witan and the nation; but after the Conquest, men being less and less inclined to break in upon the divinity which to their eyes hedged round a king, while still exercising the old right upon occasion, justified it to themselves by requiring a voluntary renunciation on the part of the king himself of the powers conferred on him at his consecration; and when this could not be obtained, allowed the fact of the king's absence to be translated into an act of abdication.

Stubbs, "Constitutional History." [T. A. A.]

Derby. The chief town of Derbyshire was originally known by the name of Northworthig, and owes its modern name of Derby, or Deorby, to the Danes, by whom it was held (as one of the Five Boroughs) from 874 to 917, when Ethelfleda (q.v.) recaptured it. Later it was restored to them as one of the Five Boroughs, but again united to the English crown by Edmund. Under Edward the Confessor it was a royal borough. William the Conqueror bestowed it on William Peverel, and Henry I, who seems to have conferred on the town its first charter, granted it to the Earls of Chester. Robert de Ferrers was created Earl of Derby in 1138. In the Civil War of the seventeenth century, though at first Royalist, it was soon taken by the Parliamentarians, and remained in their hands till the end of the war. In later history it is famous as marking the farthest point reached by the Young Pretender in 1745 during his southward march.

See "Victoria County History: Derbyshire."

Derby, Earldom of. Robert de Ferrers, lord of Tutbury, was created Earl of Derby in 1138 for his services at the Battle of the Standard. The earldom continued in his family until Earl Robert (de Ferrers) was deprived, in consequence of his action in the barons' revolt. In 1266 the forfeited honour was bestowed upon Edmund, the second son of Henry III, from whom it descended to his son Thomas, Earl of Lancaster, who was beheaded in 1322. The title was revived, 1337, in favour of Henry Plantagenet, afterwards Duke of Lancaster, and father-in-law of John of Gaunt, whose son Henry, afterwards king, was styled Earl of Derby during his father's lifetime. In 1485 the title was granted to Thomas Stanley, 2nd Lord Stanley, in whose family it still remains. The elder line came to an end with the death of James, 10th earl, 1736, when the title devolved upon Sir Edward Stanley, descendant of a brother of the 2nd earl and the lineal ancestor of the present holder of the title.

Derby, Earls of. [Stanley.]

Derby Dilly, The. In 1834 Lord Stanley resigned office on the question of secularizing the surplus of the Irish Church revenues, and with Sir James Graham, Lord Ripon, the Duke of Richmond, and some others, formed an intermediate party between the Whigs and the Tories, declining all connexion with either. This unnatural state of isolation deprived the country for a time of the services of some of its ablest statesmen. The clique was derisively known as the "Derby Dilly," from its leader, Lord Stanley, the heir to the earldom of Derby. In 1841, however, this third party came to an end, most of its members joining Sir Robert Peel's government.

Dering, Sir Edward (1598–1644), was a gentleman of Kent, created baronet in 1627, and member for the county in the Long Parliament. In the discussions on ecclesiastical questions he distinguished himself by his opposition to Laud's innovations, and was even persuaded to introduce the "Root and Branch" Bill (q.v.), which he afterwards opposed. He also opposed the Grand Remonstrance, and was, in February 1642, sent to the Tower for printing his speeches. At the beginning of the war he raised a regiment for the king, but in 1644 took the Covenant, paid a composition for his estate, and returned home to die (June 22, 1644). Sir Edward published a volume of his speeches without the leave of the House of Commons, and for this reason was expelled the House, and his book was ordered to be burnt by the hangman.

"Proceedings in Kent" (Camden Society), 1861.

Derwentwater, James, 3rd Earl of (1689–1716). [Radcliffe.]

Desborough (or Disbrowe), John (1608–80), son of James Desborough, of Eltisley, Cambridgeshire, was bred an attorney, and in 1636 married Jane, sister of Oliver Cromwell. In 1642 he became quartermaster in the troop raised by his brother-in-law, served throughout the war, and rose to the rank of major-general. He was nominated one of the commissioners to try the king, but refused to act. During the Protectorate he was in succession commissioner of the navy, member of the Scottish council, major-general in charge of the counties of Wilts, Dorset, Somerset, Devon, and Cornwall, and one of the admirals of the fleet after Blake's death. He was one of Cromwell's council of state, and appointed a member of his House of Lords, but opposed Cromwell's taking the crown. After Cromwell's death, he joined the Wallingford House party, and helped to overthrow Richard Cromwell and the restored Long Parliament. At the Restoration he was incapacitated from all public employment.

Desmond, Earls of. [Fitzgerald.]

Despard, Edward Marcus, Colonel (1751–1803), was born in Ireland, and was early employed in military service in the West Indies and the Bay of Honduras, where he was made superintendent of the English colony. His conduct in this office seems to have given offence to the settlers, and he was recalled, but could never obtain an official investigation. When the French Revolution broke out, he adopted the new revolutionary principles, and was imprisoned in consequence. On his release he attempted the assassination of George III; for which offence he was tried and executed in February 1803.

Sir C. W. C. Oman, "The Unfortunate Colonel Despard and Others," 1922.

Despenser, Barony of. The first illustrious member of the family of Despenser was the Hugh who espoused the cause of de Montfort under Henry III, was appointed justiciar of England by the barons, and was killed at the battle of Evesham in 1265. The family name seems to have been taken from the office of dispenser (*dispensator*) to the Earls of Chester, or possibly the de Lacys, constables of Chester. His son Hugh was summoned to parliament by special writ in 1295, and was created Earl of Winchester in 1322, but in 1326 was declared a traitor, and hanged. The same fate befell his son Hugh "the Younger" a month later; and the honours of both became forfeit. Hugh, however, the son of the latter, appears to have been summoned to parliament from 1338 to 1349, when he died; and his honours devolved upon a nephew, whose son Thomas procured the reversal of the act declaring his ancestors (Edward II's ministers) traitors. Thomas was created Earl of Gloucester 1397, but was degraded 1399, and beheaded by the populace 1400, when his honours became forfeit. His attainder was, however, reversed in 1461, and the barony of Despenser fell into abeyance among the issue of his daughter and eventual heiress, Isabel, until in 1604 it was conceded to Mary Neville, wife of Sir Thomas Fane, in the person of whose son it became united to the earldom of Westmorland. In 1762, and again in 1781, it once more fell into abeyance, but ultimately devolved upon Sir Thomas Stapleton, in whose family it still remains.

Despenser, Henry le (*d.* 1406), was the grandson of Hugh le Despenser the Younger. In 1370 he was made Bishop of Norwich by papal provision, but his career was throughout rather that of a soldier than a churchman. In 1381 he distinguished himself by putting down the revolt in Norfolk, himself participating actively in the fighting. In 1383 he undertook an expedition to Flanders, by which, under the guise of a crusade against the adherents of the anti-pope Clement, he hoped to inflict injury on the French. He captured Gravelines, Dunkirk, and other places, but was eventually obliged to retire after an unsuccessful siege of Ypres, and on his return to England was stripped of his temporalities by the king. He was soon restored to favour, however, and remained a staunch supporter of Richard III's cause until 1401.

Despenser, Hugh le (*d.* 1265), was one of the leaders of the baronial opposition to Henry III. In 1258 he was chosen as one of the commissioners on the part of the barons at the Oxford Parliament, and in 1260, and again in 1263, was appointed justiciar by the baronial party. When the war broke out he headed the citizens of London in their attacks on the houses of the royalists. He fought bravely at Lewes (1264), took a prominent part in the government of de Montfort, and fell with Earl Simon in the battle of Evesham (1265). His death is celebrated in one of the political songs of the time, which has been translated as follows:—

"Despencer true, the good Sir Hugh,
Our justice and our friend,
Borne down with wrong amidst the throng,
Has met his wretched end."

Biographies of Simon de Montfort.

Despenser, Hugh le (*d.* 1326), son of the preceding, and known as "the Younger," married Eleanor de Clare, one of the co-heiresses of the Earl of Gloucester. He was soon involved in quarrels with the husbands of the other co-heiresses, while the favour shown him by the king (with whom he soon came to take the place of Piers Gaveston) arrayed a great part of the baronage against him. A confederacy of marcher lords was formed against him under the leadership of Hereford; and eventually sentence of banishment was pronounced against him in 1321. He was recalled soon after to acquire more possessions, and almost supreme power on the defeat of the Earl of Lancaster at Boroughbridge (1322) (q.v.). The success of the queen and Mortimer in 1326 obliged him to flee to the west, but he was captured, and beheaded at Hereford by Mortimer's orders. The objects of the Despensers seem to have been primarily selfish, and they cared but little for the interests of the king. At the same time, it is evident that they wished to increase the importance of the House of Commons, and use it to counterbalance the baronage. But they entirely failed in their aims: for while they alienated the barons, they did not secure to themselves the affections of the people.

T. F. Tout, "Edward II," 1914.

De Tallagio non concedendo, The Statute of (1297), is the name given to the Latin version of the Confirmatio Cartarum as recorded by Hemingburgh. It forbids (1) any tallage or aid to be taken by the king without the consent of the bishops, earls, barons, knights, and other freemen of the realm; (2) any prise of corn, leather, or wool, etc., without the owner's consent; (3) the

maltote (q.v.). Other clauses confirm the charters and liberties of both clergy and laymen, pardon the great earls and their partisans, whose firmness had secured Edward's consent to this law, and give orders for the publication of the charter. It is now established that the original form of the statute is not the Latin, but the French one, which does not contain the word *tallage*, and is couched in more general terms. The Latin form represents the demands of the baronage, which they embodied in a petition couched in statute form; and stands in much the same relation to the French form, which became the permanent law of the land, as the Articles of the Barons stand in to the Great Charter of 1215. It was, however, erroneously referred to as a statute in the Petition of Right. The chief points to be noticed in comparing the Confirmatio Cartarum with the De Tallagio are that the former does not contain the word "tallage"; the latter does not reserve the rights of the king; the former renounces only "such manner of aids," etc., while the latter contains no such qualifying words.

Stubbs, "Select Charters," ed. H. W. C. Davis, 1913.

Dettingen, The Battle of (June 27, 1743), was fought during the War of the Austrian Succession. Lord Stair, who was the British commander, wished to drive the French from Germany, and also, if possible, to invade Alsace and Lorraine. The Duc de Noailles, the French commander, marched into Franconia against him. Stair lay idly on the Maine with 40,000 men, awaiting 12,000 subsidized Hanoverians. Noailles scoured the country to the south of the river. Suddenly Stair marched up the river towards Franconia. He passed Hanau, and moved towards Aschaffenberg. About half-way between the two is the village of Dettingen. On reaching the plain of Dettingen, the British found that de Noailles had outmarched them, and thus cut them off from Aschaffenberg. Here they were joined by King George II and the Duke of Cumberland. It was determined to secure, if possible, the retreat to Hanau. But Noailles had sent his nephew, the Duke de Grammont, across the river to occupy Dettingen. Bridges were thrown across the Maine, and Noailles's cannon played on the retreating British. It was determined to cut a way through Grammont's forces. The French commander, however, leaving a strong position behind a ravine, advanced to the attack, thinking he was opposed only by the advanced troops of the British. Led on by King George, the British infantry broke through the enemy. Grammont retired across the Maine; but the retreat became a rout, and 6,000 men were left on the field. George, wishing to extricate himself from his dangerous position, refrained from pursuit, and pushed on for Hanau. Stair, furious that his advice should be disregarded, sent in his resignation, which was accepted. Noailles withdrew into Alsace, whither he was followed by the king, and negotiations for peace were begun.

J. W. Fortescue, "History of the British Army," 1899.

Deusdedit, Archbishop of Canterbury (654 or 5—663 or 4), was a West Saxon by birth. His native name is said to have been Frithona, which he changed for his Latin appellation on being elected to the see of Canterbury. He is remarkable as being the first Englishman elevated to the archbishopric. Little is known of his episcopate. Hook represents him as conciliatory towards the British Church, and it is true that Christianity was widely extended in Mercia and Northumbria during his episcopate; but the position of Canterbury seems throughout this period to have been comparatively unimportant.

De Valera, Eamon (*b.* 1882), Irish politician, was born in New York and educated at Dublin University. He joined the Irish volunteers (1913), took a prominent part in the Easter Rising of 1916, and was sentenced to death upon his surrender. The sentence was commuted to penal servitude for life, however, and he was released under the amnesty of June 1917. He was imprisoned a second time for contriving a rising, but escaped from Lincoln Jail in February 1919 and spent some time in the United States. In January 1922 he resigned his presidency of the Irish Republic (held since his release in 1917). He was again imprisoned for a time in 1923 and subsequently became president of Sinn Fein until March 1926, when he resigned.

Devereux, Walter, 1st Earl of Essex (*b.* c. 1540, *d.* 1576), son of Sir Richard Devereux, succeeded his grandfather as Viscount Hereford (1558); married (1561) Lettice, daughter of Sir Francis Knollys. He distinguished himself by his fidelity during the conspiracy of the Duke of Norfolk and the Rising of the North, and was therefore created Earl of Essex (1572). The following year he undertook, with other noble adventurers, the conquest of Ulster; but owing, it is supposed, to the machinations of Leicester, his expedition was a total failure. In 1574 he was appointed governor of Ulster, with an independent commission, and in 1575 earl marshal of Ireland. He succeeded in effecting no permanent conquest, but signalized himself by the treacherous murder of his guest, Sir Brian O'Neill, and by ordering the massacre of the women and children of the Scots of Antrim on the Island of Rathlin. He died in September 1576.

See W. B. Devereux, "Lives of the Earls of Essex," 1853.

Devereux, Robert, 2nd Earl of Essex (1566–1601), eldest son of Walter Devereux, the 1st earl (q.v.), entered Trinity College, Cambridge, in 1577. On his appearance at court, in the same year, he became at once a

favourite with both queen and people. In 1585 he accompanied Leicester to Holland, distinguished himself at Zutphen, and was, in 1588, appointed general of the horse in the army raised to meet the Spanish Armada. In 1591 he commanded the auxiliaries sent to assist Henry IV in Normandy, but his chief military exploit was the capture of Cadiz in 1596, which was followed by an abortive expedition to the Azores next year. Not content with his great position as favourite and his reputation as a soldier, he also aimed at eminence as a statesman, and from 1592 devoted himself to the study of foreign affairs. He headed the party that demanded the vigorous prosecution of the war against Spain, opposed the cautious policy of Burghley, and entered into communication with King James, whom he urged to demand recognition as the queen's heir. On the death of Burghley, however, his son succeeded to his power, and Essex, a few months later, eager for an opportunity of gaining power and credit, obtained the post of lord-lieutenant of Ireland, and was charged with the task of suppressing Tyrone's rebellion (March 1599). His conduct in Ireland exposed both his ability and his honesty to injurious suspicions. Instead of at once attacking the main strength of the rebels in Ulster, or consolidating the English power in Leinster, he wasted his time and his army in marching and counter-marching, in gaining little victories, and achieving no substantial success. When he did attack Tyrone, he speedily admitted him to peace, on terms which seemed to be dictated by private ambition rather than by public policy. For this, on his return to England in 1600, he was disgraced, tried by a special commission, dismissed from all his offices, and placed for a time in custody. Believing his punishment to be the work of his enemies in the council, he set on foot a conspiracy to force his way into the queen's presence, and to remove his opponents from the government by arms. But his attempted *coup d'état* failed, and he was apprehended, tried by the lord high steward's court, sentenced to death for high treason, and executed on February 25, 1601. He affirmed that his design was merely to go with his friends and petition the queen, and to gain their petition to remove from the queen's chamber Ralegh and Cecil, his enemies; that he had never in any way intended to hurt the queen. By the ruling of the court in this case, it was held treason to compel the king by force to change his policy. [C. H. F.]

Devereux, Robert, 3rd Earl of Essex (1591–1646), son of the preceding, was educated at Eton, and at Merton College, Oxford. In 1606 he married Frances Howard, from whom he was divorced seven years later, in order that she might marry the Earl of Somerset. He distinguished himself as a soldier, serving in the Palatinate (1620), in Holland (1622–3), in Mansfeld's army (1624), and in the expedition to Cadiz (1625). On the outbreak of the Scottish rebellion he was appointed by Charles I lieutenant-general of the English army. He is described as being then "the most popular man in the kingdom, and the darling of the swordmen." At the opening of the Long Parliament he sided with the popular party, urged the execution of Strafford, and though holding the office of chamberlain, refused to follow the king to York. He was appointed in July 1642 general of the army raised by the parliament, and commanded at Edgehill (October 23). In the spring of 1643, after capturing Reading, he marched on Oxford, but was prevented by bad weather and sickness amongst his troops from besieging it. In the autumn of the same year he performed his greatest exploit during the war, the relief of Gloucester (September 8), followed by the victory of Newbury (September 20). In June, next year, he marched into the west of England to relieve Lyme, leaving Waller the task of pursuing the king. After relieving Lyme, and taking some of the royal fortresses in Devon and Dorset, he proceeded into Cornwall. There he found himself, contrary to his expectations, unsupported by the country, and distressed for provisions, whilst the king, who had defeated Waller, prevented his retreat, drove him farther west, and speedily reduced his army to extremities. The cavalry broke through the king's lines, and came safe away; Essex himself escaped by sea; but the infantry were forced to surrender (September 1644). Nevertheless, the parliament appointed him to command the new army which was being collected. Illness, however, prevented him being present at the second battle of Newbury, and on April 2, 1645, he laid down his commission in anticipation of the Self-Denying Ordinance. As a general, he exhibited great irresolution, and too often allowed his judgment as a soldier to be overruled by political considerations. Clarendon charges him with pride and ambition, but admits his honesty and praises his fidelity. [C. H. F.]

Devizes. The town of Devizes appears in English history for the first time when Roger, Bishop of Salisbury, built his great castle here, during the reign of Henry I. It was surrendered to Stephen by Roger's son Nigel, Bishop of Ely, under threat of death. A few years later it was held by Fitz-Hubert on behalf of the Empress Maud. The castle was demolished by Cromwell during the Civil War.

See "Victoria County History: Wiltshire."

Devon and Devonshire, Peerage of. The 1st Earl of Devon was Baldwin de Redvers or Reviers, who received the grant of the earldom from the Empress Maud, probably in 1141. His descendants bore the title until the failure of the eldest line, on the death of Isabel de Redvers, wife of William de Forz,

Earl of Aumâle, in 1293. The earldom was, however, successfully claimed in 1335 by a cousin of the late countess, Hugh de Courtenay, lord of Okehampton, and it remained in his family until the attainder of Thomas Courtenay, the 6th earl, in 1461. In 1469 Humphrey Stafford, Baron of Southwick, was created Earl of Devon; but he was beheaded in the course of the same year, and the patent of his creation was annulled by a statute of 1485, when the earldom of Devon (or Devonshire, as it was alternatively called) was restored to the Courtenays in the person of Edward, great-nephew of the 3rd earl. Edward's grandson, Henry Courtenay, was created Marquis of Exeter in 1525, but on his attainder, in 1539, his honours became forfeit. His son Edward was restored to the earldom; but he died without issue in 1556. Thereafter for nearly three centuries the title was considered extinct, and was twice conferred on entirely different families. In 1603 an earldom of Devon was created in favour of Charles Blount, 8th Baron Mountjoy, in whose person it became extinct in 1606. In 1618 William Cavendish, Baron Cavendish of Hardwick, was created Earl of Devonshire. His great-grandson William, the 4th earl, was created Duke of Devonshire and Marquis of Hartington in 1694 for his services in connexion with the Revolution of 1688–9; and these honours still remain with his heirs. In 1831, however, a claim to the earldom of Devon was advanced on behalf of William Courtenay, Viscount Courtenay of Powderham, heir male of the last earl of the Courtenay family; and the claim was allowed by the House of Lords on the ground that, as regards the Courtenays, the peerage had merely been dormant since 1556. The title of Earl of Devon remains, therefore, at the present day with William's descendants. [Courtenay; Blount; Cavendish.]

Devorgoil, or Devorguilla, was the daughter of Alan of Galloway and of Margaret, eldest daughter of David of Huntingdon. She married John de Baliol, lord of Barnard's Castle, in Durham. Upon the death of Alan (1234), the husbands of his three daughters divided his territory amongst them. It was Devorgoil who, after she had become a widow, completed the foundation and endowment of Balliol College, Oxford, which had been begun by her husband; and it was her son who was the competitor of Robert Bruce for the Scottish crown in 1290 and who was pronounced the rightful heir by Edward I in 1292.

P. Hume Brown, "History of Scotland," 1911.

D'Ewes, Sir Symonds (1602–50), was educated at Cambridge. He was knighted by Charles I, and received a baronetcy in 1641. When the Civil War broke out, however, he joined the Parliamentary party. He compiled a "Journal" of all the parliaments (both Lords and Commons) of Queen Elizabeth's reign—a work which was published several years after his death, in 1682, and is of the greatest importance for the domestic events of the last half of the sixteenth century. A new edition was published by Prof. W. Notestein in 1923. His autobiography was published from the MSS. in 1845, by Halliwell.

Deydras, John (1324), was an impostor, who claimed to be the true son of Edward I, asserting that he had been changed in his cradle. The unpopularity of Edward II led some people to give credence to his story, but his followers were few, and he was quickly seized and executed.

Dhoondia Waugh was an Afghan chief who took service with Tippoo Sahib. On the final capture of Seringapatam, 1799, he escaped, and commenced a career of plunder on his own account, but was pursued by Colonel Wellesley, defeated, and killed September 10, 1799.

"Dialogus de Scaccario" is the title of a work compiled in the twelfth century by Richard Fitz-Nigel (q.v.), at one time treasurer of the exchequer, and Bishop of London from 1189 to 1198. This treatise is divided into two books, both of which are cast in the form of a dialogue between a master and a scholar. The first book, in eighteen chapters, describes what the exchequer is: the origin of its name, the duties of its various officers, with their rights and honours, the definition of the various legal terms used in the government of the country, such as hundred, murdrum, danegeld, county, etc., and the business of the treasury. The second book, divided into twenty-eight chapters, treats of summonses, the rendering of accounts into the exchequer, and of the sheriffs and the different branches of the king's revenue. The date of the composition of the "Dialogues" is probably between the years 1177 and 1179. It is a work of great importance, and throws a flood of light upon the administrative system of the Angevin kings. All earlier editions have been superseded by that of Messrs. Hughes, Crump, and Johnson, published by the Clarendon Press in 1902.

R. L. Poole, "The Exchequer in the Twelfth Century."

Diamond, The Battle of, was a great faction fight which occurred near a hamlet bearing this name in Armagh, on September 1, 1795, between the Peep-o'-Day Boys (q.v.) and the Defenders (q.v.). The victory remained with the former party, who slew forty-eight of their opponents. It was shortly after this fight that the first Orange Lodge was founded.

Digby, George, 2nd Earl of Bristol (1612–77), was the eldest son of John, 1st earl (q.v.). He was educated at Oxford, and sat for Dorsetshire in both the Short and the Long Parliaments. He at first joined the opposition, and was one of the managers of Strafford's impeachment, but soon went over to the king, and voted against the Bill of

Attainder which the Parliamentary leaders had brought in against Strafford. He received a writ of summons to the House of Lords as Baron Digby, and became one of the king's confidential advisers. He was among the chief promoters of the scheme for the arrest of the Five Members, after the failure of which he was impeached by the Commons and fled to Holland. On his return he was captured and imprisoned at Hull, under the care of Sir John Hotham, who connived at his escape. He joined the king, and took part in most of the important battles of the Civil War, till, quarrelling with Prince Rupert, he threw up his command. At the conclusion of the war, he fled to France, where he distinguished himself in the war of the Fronde; but, having formed a foolish idea of supplanting Mazarin and becoming prime minister of France, he was obliged to escape to the Netherlands. On the Restoration he returned to England, but his flighty and untrustworthy character prevented his being appointed to any office. In 1663 he brought a charge of high treason against Clarendon, which was, however, rejected by the House of Lords. He took no further part in public affairs. He was a man of undoubted ability, and one of the foremost orators of his time, but unstable and headstrong to the last degree.

Biography by Mrs. D. Townshend, 1924.

Digby, John, 1st Earl of Bristol (1580–1653), born at Coleshill, in Warwickshire, was the youngest son of Sir George Digby, knight, and of Abigail, daughter of Sir A. Hevengham of Norfolk. In March 1606 he was knighted by James I. In 1611, and again in 1614, he went as ambassador to Spain. In 1616 James conferred on him the manor of Sherborne, in Dorset. In 1617 Digby went for the third time to Madrid with the special mission of reviving negotiations, begun during his former embassies, for a marriage between Prince Charles and the Infanta Maria. On his return in 1618 he was made a peer with the title of Baron Digby of Sherborne. In 1621 Digby went first to Brussels and afterwards to Vienna, in order to prevail on the Emperor Ferdinand to restore the palatinate to James's son-in-law, Frederic. Digby strove to negotiate peace on the basis that the emperor should restore the palatinate, and that Frederic in return should renounce the title of King of Bohemia and abandon the right of private war within the empire. But his efforts were unavailing. If Digby's policy was to succeed, it was necessary that James should be able, in case of need, to draw the sword. James, by his angry dissolution of parliament in 1621, shattered the policy of his ambassador. In 1622 Digby again went to Spain in order to conclude the marriage treaty and obtain the restoration of the palatinate through the influence of Philip IV. He thought that, in return for some modification in the treatment of English Catholics, Spain would support a compromise in Germany. But in this he was mistaken, since the Spaniards were aiming at nothing less than the conversion of the English nation to the Catholic faith. In 1622 he was created Earl of Bristol. The visit of Charles and Buckingham to Spain in 1623 resulted in the breaking off of the negotiation and the recall of Bristol. On his return Bristol was ordered to remain in confinement at his own house, because he refused to admit that he had been at fault or to make apologies to Buckingham. In 1626 he appealed to the House of Lords and brought accusations against the Duke of Buckingham. Charles, to defend his favourite, retaliated by accusing Bristol of high treason. In 1628 Bristol opposed the king's first answer to the Petition of Right. When Strafford was impeached, Bristol sought to save his life while incapacitating him from holding office. On the outbreak of the Civil War he took the king's side. At its close he went to Paris, where he died January 16, 1653.

A few of Bristol's Dispatches are printed in the Appendix to the "Clarendon State Papers," vol. i. For his defence of his conduct in Spain, see the "Camden Miscellany," vol. vi. [B. M. G.]

Digby, Sir Kenelm (1603–65), was the elder son of Sir Everard Digby, who was executed for his share in the Gunpowder Plot. In 1628 he undertook a privateering voyage to the Mediterranean, in which he distinguished himself by defeating a Venetian squadron at Scanderoon. In 1636 he became a Catholic, and was employed by the queen, three years later, to obtain money from his co-religionists. During the greater part of the Civil War and the Protectorate he lived abroad, occupying himself with the study of natural philosophy. A literary contemporary compared him to Pico della Mirandola for the universality of his knowledge, and a scientific contemporary styled him "the Pliny of his age for lying." "The truth is," says John Evelyn, "Sir Kenelm was an arrant mountebank."

Biography by T. Longueville, 1896.

Digges, Sir Dudley (1583–1639), was a member of parliament for Tewkesbury in James I's reign, and was occasionally employed by the king on public business: as, for example, on the embassy to Russia in 1618. He was one of the chief managers of Buckingham's impeachment in 1626. He was imprisoned on more than one occasion for his language against the court, and in the parliament of 1628 he strongly advocated the Petition of Right. He subsequently made his peace with the king, and in 1630 had a reversionary grant of the mastership of the rolls. He held that office from 1636 until his death in 1639.

Dilke, Sir Charles Wentworth (1843–1911), the son of Sir Charles Wentworth Dilke, was educated at Trinity College, Cambridge. After leaving college, he made a prolonged tour

through the United States and the British colonies and India. On his return, he published a volume called "Greater Britain," which attracted much attention. He was elected in 1868 Radical member for Chelsea. In 1872 he moved for an inquiry into the civil list, a step which led him to be popularly credited with Republican views. In 1880 he took office as under-secretary for foreign affairs, and in 1882 became president of the local government board. He retired from public life in 1886, but returned to the House of Commons in 1892. His "Problems of Greater Britain" appeared in 1890. He died on January 26, 1911.

Biography by Stephen Gwynn and G. N. Tuckwell, 1917.

Dinkur Rao. The title of the chief minister of Sindhia. Under the act of 1861 he became one of the legislative council of India.

Dirleton Castle, seven miles north of Haddington, was, after a long siege, taken by Bishop Anthony Beck for Edward I, in 1298. It was destroyed in 1650 by General Lambert.

Disarming Acts (Ireland). By an act of 1695 all Catholics were ordered to deliver up their arms, excepting only those who were protected by the Treaty of Limerick and other Articles, and who were consequently allowed to keep a sword, pistols, and a fowling-piece. All gun-makers were to be Protestants, and to admit only Protestant apprentices. Every justice of the peace might search for arms. The act was not very strictly carried out. In 1730, for instance, a Catholic gentleman was convicted of carrying arms, but it was held that the act applied only to those alive when it was passed. In 1732 Lord Gormanstown and some other gentlemen appeared at Trim Assizes with their swords; they were convicted, but, after an apology, were pardoned on the petition of the grand jury. In 1739 a new Disarming Act was passed, but little observed. In 1793 these acts were repealed, but a new act was passed forbidding any person to keep arms without a licence, and allowing a search for arms to be made.

Discipline, The Book of (1561), was the name given to a compilation adopted by the Reformers in Scotland as a basis for the reorganization of their Church and its practice. It was drawn up by a committee headed by John Knox. It provided for the establishment of kirk sessions, synods, and general assemblies; recognized as office-bearers, ministers, teachers, elders, deacons, and superintendents; regulated endowments; and prescribed the Book of Common Order for general use in place of the Edwardian Prayer Book. A Second Book of Discipline was issued in 1581, but failed to pass the estates.

"Disinherited," The, was the name given to the remnant of the baronial party who held out after the battle of Evesham, a general sentence of forfeiture having been issued against all those who had fought on the side of de Montfort. The disinherited lords, headed by the younger Simon de Montfort, occupied Kenilworth and subsequently the Isle of Axholme, amid the marshes of the lower Trent. The former place surrendered at the end of 1266, on the terms embodied in the *Dictum de Kenilworth* (q.v.); but those who were unwilling to accept these conditions maintained the struggle in the Isle of Ely under the leadership of John d'Egville. Their position was strengthened as a result of Gloucester's revolt, and when eventually they surrendered in July 1267 they were allowed the same terms that the defenders of Kenilworth had obtained.

Disinherited Barons, The, were the lords who had either been dispossessed of their Scottish estates as a result of the establishment of Robert Bruce on the throne, or had received grants of land in Scotland from Edward I and desired to make those grants effective. It was provided by the Treaty of Northampton, 1328, that certain of these should be restored to their lands and estates, whereof the King of Scots had taken possession. The Scottish regency, on various pretexts, delayed to carry out this article, the result being that the barons resolved to support the claims of Edward Baliol to the throne and to invade Scotland. Chief amongst them were Henry of Beaumont, titular Earl of Buchan, David of Strathbolgie, who called himself Earl of Atholl, and Gilbert de Umfraville, claimant to the earldom of Angus. The Disinherited were successful at Dupplin Moor (q.v.) and Baliol was crowned at Scone in September 1332; but he was unable to maintain himself without English help, the price of which was the recognition of Edward III's overlordship, and the surrender of the whole of Lothian to the English crown. After Halidon Hill (1334) (q.v.) Baliol's supporters began to quarrel amongst themselves over their spoils, and Baliol soon had to quit the kingdom he had partially won.

Dispensing Power, The. The fact that the dispensing power was abolished because James II employed it to mitigate the rigours of the Test Act has led to the assumption that dispensation and licence against a statute are identical. If we examine the royal administration at a much earlier date (e.g., that of Henry II or John) we shall find that we cannot accept so narrow a conclusion. A dispensation is an act of the executive through which the application of the law in an individual instance is set aside or excluded. Thus it is the genus of which the exemption from office, the special protection of the king's servants, the licence to worship, to trade, to export or to import contrary to statute, and the private franchise, are the several species. It should be distinguished from the pardon which is granted to a criminal after condemnation (though the

Crown as late as Charles II pardoned before trial) and not to a free subject. And if it is urged that the pardon is a dispensation of execution, we maintain that it grants much more than that; it is, moreover, granted for crimes which neither king, pope, nor emperor ever dreamed of dispensing with.

Brunner ("Deutsche Rechtsgeschichte") has shown how the early German kings assumed the dispensing power as part of their regalia. Intercourse with their continental kinsmen and the influence of the Church led the Anglo-Saxons to make similar claims (Liebermann, "Gesetze der Anglo-Sachsen," vol. ii, Sub. Privileg, Königsrecht). From the Norman Conquest there is no need to emphasize the prerogative of our kings who, aided by extremely able officials (the working council or executive), exercised a wide discretion in administration and legislation. The practice, therefore, of repeating, as many writers do, the statements of Matthew Paris, who ascribes to the reign of Henry III an abnormal growth of this power and even the introduction of the technical phrase "non-obstante," can no longer be countenanced. For the letters-patent and letters-close of John contain many important non-obstantes, while the Pipe Rolls of Henry II and Bracton's Note-book show how wide was the discretionary power of the Angevin monarchs. Again, it is profitless to cull from the Rolls of Parliament or Statutes of the Realm isolated protests or decisions of the Commons as evidence of the illegality of this prerogative; this is, indeed, "retrospective constitutionalism." In place of the oft-proclaimed legislative supremacy of our mediæval parliament, a political system prevailed that had not the slightest resemblance to that imagined by the Puritan lawyer. At that period the king and officials (and on extraordinary occasions the king and full council) governed the country, legislated, and exercised the functions of a court of appeal. From the reign of William I to that of Edward I, the Crown issued ordinances and modified them by dispensations. Moreover, while in the king's service the official enjoyed a protection which suspended all suits against him, and permitted him, for any offence committed in discharge of his duties, to be tried by the king alone; he was also excused the ordinary civic duties and often, as a reward for his services, his quota of taxes. Nor did our kings renounce these powers after 1270, but continued to publish proclamations and ordinances, to modify them and the statutes of parliament by dispensations, and to protect their officials. Looked at from this point of view the dispensing power assumes its proper place in the history of our administration and legislation, which after all was not so very different from that of France down to the reign of Edward II. And notwithstanding the progress made by parliament under this monarch and his successors, the conditions of mediæval life demanded an executive with great powers of initiative and discretion. Localism, an almost chronic state of war, fitful and crude legislation, an absence of rapid means of communication: these conditions placed the administration in a position of great authority. But from this point, government by king and council is slowly challenged by another ideal—government by king and parliament. Very slowly indeed does the new ideal develop; the dispensing power is still widely employed, though parliament gradually succeeds in limiting the number and privileges of protections, and constantly protests against the modification of its statutes. In spite of the increased criticism which this power received from the Lancastrian judges, the Tudors more than restored its falling authority. Elizabeth's grants of monopoly, her many licences to trade, contrary to statute, and her daring innovation of sub-letting her prerogative to license acts against penal statutes, show that its strength at the end of the sixteenth century was still unimpaired. The Stuarts, owing to the rise of new political and religious forces and their own faults of character, failed to maintain the Tudor form of government in which the council overshadowed parliament. It is significant that the promulgation of the judges' decision against monopolies and the sub-letting of the prerogative of dispensation synchronized with James I's arrival in England; Coke's judgment against proclamations and the statute against monopolies reveal still more clearly the new temper of the age. Charles I's abuse of the dispensing power during his period of absolute rule called forth vehement protests from members of the Long Parliament at the moment of its assembly; and by abolishing the courts which had so zealously supported this prerogative, parliament (1641) struck at its very roots. Though Charles II frequently dispensed with the statutes on trade and religion, this power now became a mere shadow of its former self. Even avowed Royalists came at length to regard it as an evil survival, and to see that it was no longer compatible with the new doctrine of parliamentary supremacy. When Charles, already suspected of Catholicism, exercised it against the Test Act, even though he afterwards revoked his letters-patent, it was gravely discredited. It was wholly doomed when James II, an avowed Catholic, renewed the attempt in favour of Colonel Hales and his brother officers.

W. S. Holdsworth, "History of English Law," sub. *Dispensing Power and Monopolies*, For examples of its wide use in our administration down to 1689, see E. F. Churchill in "Law Quarterly Review"; *The Crown and the Alien* (vol. 36); *The Crown and the Defence of the Realm* (vol. 37); *The Dispensing Power of the Crown in Ecclesiastical Affairs* (vol. 38); *Monopolies* (vol. 41); *The Crown and its Servants* (vol. 42).

[E. F. C.]

Disraeli, Benjamin, Earl of Beaconsfield (1804–81), was the eldest son of Isaac Disraeli, the author of the "Curiosities of Literature." He was first destined for the law, but he soon turned to literature. In 1826

he published his first novel, "Vivian Grey," and subsequently travelled on the continent and in the east for some years. In the year 1832 he appeared as the Independent candidate for High Wycombe. He gradually approached the Conservative party, and in 1836 he published a series called "The Letters of Runnymede," which was a violent attack on the Whigs. In 1837 he was returned as Conservative member for Maidstone. His first speech in the House excited so much antagonism from the Irish members that he had to give up the attempt to complete it; it concluded with the well-known words: "I have begun several times many things, and I have often succeeded at last. I shall sit down now; but the time will come when you will hear me." During the first years of his parliamentary career he was a supporter of Sir Robert Peel; but when Peel pledged himself to abolish the Corn Laws in 1845 Disraeli turned towards the Protectionists and at once became their leader. In December 1852 Lord John Russell resigned, and Lord Derby entered office with Disraeli as chancellor of the exchequer. In 1858 he returned to office and brought in a Reform Bill, which, however, did not meet with much support. The Liberals again returned to office, and for ten years longer Disraeli led the opposition, and severely criticized Lord Palmerston's foreign policy. In 1866 the Liberals once more resigned, and Lord Derby and Disraeli came into power. They immediately brought in a Reform Bill on the basis of household suffrage, which was carried after a violent and bitter struggle. In February 1868 Lord Derby retired and Disraeli became prime minister. His tenure of office was, however, very short. Gladstone carried his Irish Church resolutions against the government, and in the general election which followed the Conservatives were completely beaten. Disraeli declined to take office in 1872, but in 1874 Gladstone dissolved, and when a general election returned the Conservatives with a majority of fifty, Disraeli became prime minister, holding office for six years. Several measures of domestic legislation were passed during this period, including a Factory Act (1878), an Artisans' Dwellings Act, and the Agricultural Holdings Act. In March 1876 public indignation in Great Britain was violently excited by the reports of atrocious cruelties practised by the Turks on the Bulgarian Christians; and the support given by the government to the Porte was made the text for vigorous attacks by some of the leading Liberal statesmen. In August 1876 Disraeli was raised to the peerage by the title of Earl of Beaconsfield. Throughout 1876 and 1877 the prime minister, in spite of much opposition in the country, and the withdrawal of two of his own colleagues, Lord Derby and Lord Carnarvon, continued to maintain a guarded and even hostile attitude towards Russia; and when the Russians seemed about to enter Constantinople, the British fleet was ordered to the Dardanelles, and an Indian contingent was brought to Malta. When a treaty was concluded between the belligerents at San Stefano, Lord Beaconsfield insisted that the document should be submitted to the great powers. A general congress at Berlin followed, which Lord Beaconsfield himself attended as one of the representatives of Great Britain, and in the summer of 1878 the Eastern question was temporarily set at rest by the Treaty of Berlin (q.v.). In the general election of 1880 the Liberals were victorious by an enormous majority, and Beaconsfield resigned. In the early weeks of 1881 he was prostrated by a complication of maladies, and succumbed on April 19. He was buried at Hughenden, in Buckinghamshire, and a memorial was voted to him in Westminster Abbey by parliament. Lord Beaconsfield was the author of a poem, "The Revolutionary Epic," a "Life of Lord George Bentinck," several political pamphlets, and a number of novels, in which many of his ideas and theories on politics may be traced. The best known of these brilliant political romances are "Sybil," "Coningsby," "Tancred," and "Endymion," which last was published within a few months of the writer's death.

G. Brandes, "Charakterbild"; J. A. Froude, "Disraeli," 1890; Beaconsfield's "Speeches and Letters"; Monypenny and Buckle, "Life," 6 vols., 1910–18; and biographies by Sir E. Clarke, 1926, and E. T. Raymond, 1926.

Dissenters. [NONCONFORMISTS.]

Dissolution of the Monasteries. [MONASTICISM.]

Divine Right. In England the doctrine of divine right of sovereigns grew up during the sixteenth century, flourished during the seventeenth, and died a natural death in the eighteenth. The idea of the sacredness of hereditary right had made great progress during the fifteenth century. The false pedigree put forth by Henry of Lancaster to justify his claim to the crown, the history of the Duke of York's pretensions to the throne, the theory by which Richard III strove to justify his usurpation, and the care with which Henry VII guarded his hereditary title against anything which might seem to impair it, mark the advance of this view. The theory of election fell more and more into the background. At the coronation of Edward VI the king was presented to the people as their lawful and undoubted sovereign before he took the oath to preserve the laws and liberties of the realm. Thus the very form of an election contract was destroyed. The accession of James I was the triumph of hereditary over parliamentary title. James was himself one of the chief exponents of the divine-right theories. Before his accession to the English throne he had already published his "Basilikon Doron" (1599) (q.v.), in the same year there appeared his "Trew Law of Free Monarchies," and other political works followed in 1607 and 1615. The resolution which recognized him as king stated, "that immedi-

ately on the decease of Elizabeth, late Queen of England, the imperial crown of the realm of England . . . did by inherent birthright, and lawful and undoubted succession, descend and come to your most excellent Majesty, as being lineally, justly, and lawfully next and sole heir of the blood royal of this realm." Already in two of the religious confessions of Henry VIII's reign—the "Institution of a Christian Man" (1537) and the "Necessary Doctrine and Erudition" (1543)—the duty of passive obedience had been established as a necessary consequence of the fifth commandment. In the Canons of 1606 the clergy went so far in enforcing this view that the king felt that the obedience they demanded for a *de facto* king undermined his hereditary title. He was also obliged, at the complaint of parliament, to condemn the theory of his absolute power put forth by Cowell, the professor of civil law at Cambridge, in his "Law Dictionary." Under Charles I the House of Commons complained of the sermons of Sibthorpe and Mainwaring (1627), and in their remonstrance of May 26, 1642, asserted that the "erroneous maxim being infused into princes that their kingdoms are their own, and that they may do with them what they will, as if their kingdoms were for them and not they for their kingdoms . . . was the root of all the subjects' misery." The act by which Charles II was made to succeed immediately on his father's death, and his reign dated accordingly, was a practical acknowledgment of the doctrine of divine right. The Church of the Restoration made the absolute duty of non-resistance part of its teaching, and it was also made part of the oath of allegiance. Both Oxford and Cambridge proclaimed this duty, and the former university burnt the works of its opponents. In 1680 Filmer published his "Patriarcha," which became "the accepted manifesto of the absolutist party." Closely connected with the doctrine of the divine right was the custom of touching for the "king's evil," which was, in the eyes of the people, "a visible, palpable attestation of the indefeasible sanctity of the royal line." A Latin service for this ceremony had been drawn up under Henry VII; under Charles I an English one took its place, and during the reign of Anne was inserted in the Prayer Book. In a single year Charles II touched 8,500 persons; in the course of his reign it is estimated that one hundred thousand persons received his healing touch. William III naturally never attempted to exercise this power, but Anne revived the ceremony. It was again abandoned by the Hanoverian kings, and the practice was only maintained by the exiled heirs of the Stuarts. During the same years the theory of divine right was passing away. It revived under Anne, and its efficacy was preached by Sacheverell and other divines. But when George I came to the throne, with a title based on the Act of Settlement alone, it was impossible for any party which accepted the Hanoverian succession still to maintain this doctrine. Moreover, as the Tories were in opposition, they had no motive for exalting the monarchy. The Jacobites alone continued to make this tenet part of their faith, and they became practically extinct by the accession of George III.

J. N. Figgis, "Divine Right of Kings," 1896 and 1914; "Political Works of James I," ed. C. H. McIlwain, 1918; Sir R. Filmer, "Patriarcha."

Dodington, George Bubb (1691–1762), was a politician of some prominence in the first half of the eighteenth century. He entered parliament in 1715 as member for Winchelsea, and was almost at once dispatched as ambassador to Spain, where he signed the Treaty of Madrid, and remained till 1717. He inherited a magnificent property, and attached himself to Walpole's party, but deserted that minister in 1740. Before this he had, in 1737, used all his influence with Frederick, Prince of Wales, to dissuade him from openly setting his father at defiance, and was one of the leading friends and counsellors of the prince for many years. After holding several offices, he became the confidential friend of Lord Bute, in the first year of George III's reign, and was by that nobleman's influence created Baron Melcombe. He did not, however, long enjoy his new honours, but died the next year. He had some claims to being a patron of men of letters, and it was to him that Thomson dedicated his "Summer." Among his friends were Young, Fielding, and Lyttleton. He left behind him a "Diary" (published in 1784), which is still one of the leading authorities for the minor history of the times in which he lived.

L. C. Sanders, "Patron and Place Hunter," 1919.

Dodowah, The Battle of (1826), took place on the Gold Coast, between a British force, under Colonel Purdon, and the Ashantis, who, after fighting with desperate bravery, were compelled to give way.

Dogger Bank, Battle of the (January 24, 1915), was fought between a British naval squadron of 9 cruisers and 3 Harwich flotillas under Admiral Beatty, and a German squadron of 9 cruisers and 19 destroyers under Rear-Admiral Hipper. The latter was reconnoitring off the Dogger Bank, and Beatty had been sent from Scapa to intercept him. The German vessels sailed for home as soon as the surprise attack began (in the morning of January 24). The engagement was therefore a race to Heligoland. During the battle the British cruiser *Lion* was disabled and the German cruiser *Blücher* was sunk.

Dollar, The Battle of (875), resulted in a complete victory for the Danes, under Thorstein, over Constantine I and the men of Alban. As a consequence of this defeat, Constantine is said to have been compelled to cede Caithness, Sutherland, Ross, and Moray to the invaders, who became rulers of "more

than half " Scotland. Dollar is on the borders of Fife and Perthshire.

Dolly's Brae, The Riot at, occurred on July 12, 1849. Fifteen hundred Orangemen marched through this defile, which is near Castlewellan, to congratulate the Earl of Roden, their provincial grand master. On their way back they were fired on by the Roman Catholics, an attack which the Protestants were not slow to return. The result of the affray was that the latter body drove back their opponents, who left four dead and forty wounded on the field. The question was taken up in parliament, and the Earl of Roden was eventually dismissed from his lord-lieutenancy.

"Annual Register," 1849.

Domesday is the name given to the great survey of England, made by order of William the Conqueror and carried out in 1086. In 1084 England was threatened with invasion by Canute of Denmark. At the beginning of that year the king laid a heavy "geld," or tax, on all England of six shillings on the hide. The invasion of the Northmen was not made. The threatened danger, however, and the tax which seems connected with it, probably made the Conqueror anxious to ascertain the capabilities of his kingdom, both as regards defence and taxation. At the Christmas Assembly of 1085, after "deep speech" with the great men, the king ordered that a survey of the kingdom should be made. For the purpose of the survey the country was divided into districts, and a body of commissioners was sent to hold an inquest in each district. The second of the two volumes of the survey deals with the three eastern counties; the first with the rest of the country, except the north. There is no return for London or Winchester. The names of the commissioners sent into the midland counties are preserved, and show that men of high position were employed in the work. They were bidden to inquire who held each estate at three dates—1042, 1066, and 1086, what its value was at these dates, whether that value could be raised, and by what title it was held. In order to find out whether an estate was capable of contributing a larger sum to the royal treasury, minute inquiries were to be made as to its extent, and the men and beasts it supported. The commissioners gained their information by public inquiry (probably in the County Court), the unit being the hundred, and the return for each being sworn to by twelve jurors, six English and six Norman. It was not the first time that an inquest had been held to ascertain the value of the land throughout the country for the purpose of taxation; for in the time of Ethelred the country had been surveyed and divided for the assessment of the danegeld, and an inquest seems to have been held for the geld of 1084. It is evident, however, that these had not been of the comprehensive nature of the Domesday survey, which was intensely disliked by Englishmen. The inquest was finished in the summer of 1086.

Questions of right, as well as the nature of the inquest, led to irritation and to some bloodshed. With matters of title the commissioners did not concern themselves further than to record the conflicting claims, and in doing this they treated the people of both races alike. Cases of illegal occupation are often ranged in a class by themselves, and include possessions gained by defective or disputed titles, as well as by acts of violence. These are the *terræ occupatæ* of the western shires, and the *invasiones* of Essex, etc. Few indications can be found in the record of the violence of the Conquest. The rights and obligations of each landholder are settled by those of his *antecessor*, and the date at which these are ascertained is that of the death of King Edward. There is seldom anything to show that the new possessor did not succeed his *antecessor* peacefully, and as far as possible all reference to the reign of Harold is avoided. Nevertheless the record bears witness to a sweeping confiscation of the lands of the wealthier and more powerful class, and in a lesser degree of the smaller owners also, to widespread devastation, and to the ruin of many boroughs. The primary object of the survey was to make a record of the fiscal rights of the king—*geldum*, miscellaneous dues, and the produce of the Crown lands; its secondary object, to obtain a national valuation list which would reveal the resources of the kingdom.

Domesday was housed at Winchester until the treasury removed to Westminster; it remained at Westminster until removed to the Public Record Office during Queen Victoria's reign.

Domesday was first printed (2 vols. folio) in 1783; see also R. Kelham, "Domesday Book," 1788; H. Ellis, "General Introduction to Domesday," 2 vols., 1833; F. Seebohm, "Domesday Studies," 2 vols., 1888 and 1891; J. H. Round, "Feudal England," 1895 and 1909; F. W. Maitland; "Domesday Book and Beyond," 1897 and 1921; A. Ballard, "Domesday Boroughs," 1904, and "Domesday Inquest," 1906; article by W. H. Stevenson in *English Historical Review*, January 1907, vol. 32; "Encyclopædia Britannica," art. *Domesday*, by J. H. Round, 1911.

Dominica, the largest presidency of the Leeward Islands, was named after the Lord's day on which it was discovered by Columbus in 1493. It was colonized by the French in 1632, but in 1660 it was guaranteed a neutral reserve for the Caribs by France and England. English attempts, however, to possess the island were defeated by the death of Warner in 1674. Evacuated by French counter-claimants in 1730, the Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle in 1748 again guaranteed native neutrality. But the French government infringed this and the island was captured in 1761 by the British, to whom it was ceded in 1763 and added to the administration of Grenada, until a separate government was granted in 1770. Captured

by a French force from Martinique in 1778, it was restored in 1783 with its trade ruined. Unsuccessfully attacked in 1795, and ravaged in 1805 by the French, it remained British. It joined the Leeward Islands (q.v.) in 1882, having, as a Crown colony, an executive council of ten. In 1898 the semi-elective constitution was abolished by a local act in return for Imperial financial assistance and a nominated legislative council of six official and six unofficial members established.

T. Atwood, "History of the Island of Dominica," 1791. [H. R.]

Dominica, The Battle of, or "Battle of the Saints" (April 12, 1782), resulted in the destruction of the French naval power in the West Indies. On April 9 a division of 8 ships under Sir Samuel Hood, which had become separated from the rest of the fleet under Rodney, had maintained for an hour an unequal contest with 15 French ships, and the French admiral de Grasse had thought it wise to retire when the rest of the British fleet came up. The next two days were occupied in trying to bring the French to action. On the 12th Rodney, favoured by the wind, took advantage of a break in the French line, and, advancing in column, cut the French fleet in two. Sir Samuel Hood, who was leading the British van, at once became engaged with that of the French fleet, while Rodney was busy with the enemy's centre. The action was vigorously carried on, and resulted in the retreat of the French. A chase was immediately begun, and five ships were taken or destroyed, including the enormous *Ville de Paris*. Four more were soon afterwards captured by Hood when cruising among the islands. The British loss in the two actions of the 9th and 12th was comparatively small. Rodney and Hood were both raised to the peerage. The battle itself is famous in naval history as being the first in which the manœuvre of breaking the line was practised.

W. L. Clowes, "Royal Navy," vol. iii, 1898.

Dominicans, The, or Black Friars. This order was founded by St. Dominic at the beginning of the twelfth century, and approved by Innocent III in 1215. Thirteen brethren of this order crossed into England in 1221, and before long fixed their abode at Oxford, where they soon became prominent in the schools. Their second English house was the Blackfriars in London, originally situated where Lincoln's Inn now stands, but removed from this place about 1279. At the time of the dissolution of the monasteries there were fifty-eight Dominican houses in England and Wales, several of them being situated in the principal towns, such as Bristol, Northampton, Salisbury, York, and Leicester. [Friars.]

Bede Jarrett, "The English Dominicans," 1921; G. R. Galbraith, "Dominican Constitutions," 1925.

Dominions Office. [Colonial Office.]

Dominis, Marco Antonio de (1566–1624), was a Jesuit who, in 1604, became Archbishop of Spalatro. He made the acquaintance of Bishop Bedell in Italy, and was induced by him to quit his archbishopric and come to England, where he published his work, "De Republica Ecclesiastica" (1617), which was aimed at some of the evils, temporal and ecclesiastical, of the papal system. De Dominis professed himself a Protestant, and was much patronized by James I and the High Churchmen in England. He received the mastership of the Savoy, and was made dean of Windsor. In England he saw that his ambition was not likely to be gratified by the highest honours of the Church. He therefore returned to Rome (1622), where his old schoolfellow, Gregory XV, was pope, and seems to have entertained the idea that by his efforts England might be restored to the Church of Rome. But on the death of Gregory De Dominis was arrested by the Inquisition, and imprisoned in the castle of St. Angelo, where he died.

Newland, "Life of De Dominis."

Donald, son of Constantine I (*d.* 900), was the first ruler of Scone to be styled by the chroniclers "King of Alban." He is said to have reigned from 889 to 900, and was occupied during the early part of his reign in repelling the attacks of Sigurd, the newly-appointed earl of those Norwegians who had already begun to colonize the Orkney Islands. The newcomers invaded Caithness and Sutherland, and the presence of the King of Alban was constantly required in those parts to keep them at bay, though their incursions could hardly affect that part of Scotland over which Donald really reigned. Later on, it is said, a fresh body of Danes from Dublin swept down upon the kingdom of Alban itself, and Donald was slain at Dunotter in contest with them. Other and older accounts, however, represent Donald as having died a natural death.

Donald Baloch of the Isles was a relative of Alexander of the Isles, on whose captivity he raised a force and defeated the royal troops under the Earls of Mar and Caithness at Inverlochy (1431). Shortly after, Donald was compelled to seek refuge in Ireland, whence he attacked Arran and Renfrewshire in 1453 in the interest of the Douglas faction. In 1462 he and his kinsman, John, Earl of Ross and Lord of the Isles, concluded a treaty with Edward IV of England by which they were, with his support, to divide between them all Scotland north of the Forth. Ross was not finally subdued until 1476.

Donald Bane, King of Scotland, was brother of Malcolm Canmore, whom he succeeded in 1093 to the exclusion of Malcolm's children. After reigning six months, he was driven out by his nephew Duncan, supported by William Rufus. In 1094, however, on

Duncan's death, he recovered the throne, which he shared by agreement for three years with Edmund, son of Malcolm by his first wife. Donald Bane ruled over the Scots north of the great firths, while Edmund, as the son of the Saxon Margaret, reigned over the more Saxon population of the Lowlands. At last, in 1097, Edgar Atheling, with the assistance of an English force, after defeating his nephew Edmund and Donald Bane, set his other nephew Edgar on the Scottish throne. Two years later Donald Bane was taken prisoner, and after being blinded, was condemned to perpetual imprisonment till his death. He was buried in Dunfermline Abbey.

P. Hume Brown, "History of Scotland," 1911; C. S. Terry, "History of Scotland," 1920.

Donald Bane MacWilliam (*d.* 1187) claimed to be a descendant of Duncan, son of Malcolm Canmore. In 1181, during the absence of William the Lion at the English court, he tried, with the aid of many of the Scottish barons, to make himself king of the country north of the Forth and Clyde, and for six years he there maintained a sort of irregular warfare, which ended in his defeat and death near Inverness (July 1187).

Donald Brec, or Domnal Breac, the son of Eocha (q.v.), was King of Dalriada (629–42). In 634 Donald was defeated by the Angles at Calathros, while attempting to wrest from their hands the district between the Avon and the Pentland Hills. In 637 he crossed over to Ireland with a large army to aid Congal Claen, King of Ulster, against the King of Ireland, but was utterly routed at the battle of Magh Rath. After another attack upon the Anglian territory, in which he was assisted by the Britons of Strathclyde, he seems to have fallen out with this last race upon the death of the great Rhydderch Hael, and was slain in battle with the new King of Strathclyde at Strathcarron (642). On his death, the kingdom of Dalriada reverted to anarchy.

Dorchester, Viscount (1573–1632). [Carleton, Dudley.]

Dorchester. (1) In Dorset, a Roman station, called Durnovaria, or Durinum, was a place of some importance under the Anglo-Saxon kings, and was made the seat of a mint by Athelstan. The remains of the ancient Roman fortifications were destroyed, and a Franciscan priory built from the materials in the reign of Edward III. The town was incorporated by James I in 1610, and returned two members to parliament from the year 1295 until 1868, and one from 1868 till 1885. (2) In Oxfordshire, on the Thames, near Wallingford, the scene of the baptism of Cwichelm (q.v.), and the seat of a famous abbey and of a bishopric which was united with the see of Lincoln by Remigius in 1086.

"Victoria County History: Dorset and Oxfordshire."

Dorchester, Countess of (1657–1717). [Sedley, Catherine.]

Dorislaus, Isaac (1595–1649), was the son of a minister of the Dutch Reformed Church. He was appointed judge advocate of Essex's army on account of his great knowledge of civil law, and assisted in the preparation of the charge against Charles I. In May 1649 he was sent as ambassador from the Commonwealth to Holland, where he was murdered at The Hague by some servants of Montrose, headed by Colonel Whitford (May 12, 1649). He was buried in Westminster Abbey, but exhumed at the Restoration.

Dorset, Peerage of. In 1397 John Beaufort, Earl of Somerset, eldest of the legitimated sons of John of Gaunt, was created Marquis of Dorset, as well as Marquis of Somerset; but in 1399 he was degraded to the rank of earl by parliament and was never subsequently reinstated. His son Edmund was created first Earl and then Marquis of Dorset, and the title continued in this branch of the Beaufort family till the execution and forfeiture of Henry, Duke of Somerset, 1464. In 1475 Thomas Grey, Lord Ferrers of Groby, was created Marquis of Dorset; but his grandson, Henry, 3rd Marquis of Dorset and Duke of Suffolk, was attainted in 1554 and his honours forfeited. In 1604 Thomas Sackville, Baron Buckhurst, was created Earl of Dorset. Lionel, the 7th earl, was created Duke of Dorset in 1720. In 1843 Charles, the 5th duke, died unmarried, and the dukedom became extinct.

Dorset, Earls of. [Sackville.]

Dorset, 3rd Marquis of. Grey, Henry (*d.* 1554).

Dost Mohammed (1793–1863) was the brother of Futteh Khan, the vizier of Mahmud Shah of Afghanistan. In conjunction with his brothers, he succeeded to the throne of Kabul on the expulsion of Mahmud, brother of Shah Shuja. In 1834 Dost Mohammed successfully quelled the attempt of Shah Shuja to recover Afghanistan, but during this war he lost the province of Peshawar definitely to Ranjit Singh. In 1836 Dost made overtures to Lord Auckland for arbitration, and on his refusal appealed to the King of Persia. In 1837 he sent an expedition to Peshawar, and at Jumrud won a fruitless victory. In 1838 overtures for an alliance were made to Dost Mohammed, and an embassy sent to Kabul under Captain Burnes. Dost Mohammed declared his willingness to dismiss the Russian and Persian envoys, provided the British would assist him to recover Peshawar. This the governor-general refused, and Dost Mohammed therefore turned to Persia and Russia, and the latter power guaranteed the defence of Kandahar. Thereupon the British determined to depose him, and to attain this object the Afghan expedition of 1839 was dispatched. Deserted by Persia, with a British army advanc-

ing on Kabul, Dost Mohammed fled with a handful of followers to the Hindu Kush. After being kindly received by the chief of Khulum, he passed on to Bokhara, where he was detained by the Amir; but on effecting his escape, he returned to Khulum, gathered an army of Usbegs, and crossing the Hindu Kush, proclaimed a religious war. He was defeated, however, September 18, by Brigadier Dennie. After another attempt to raise the country against the British, he surrendered to Sir William Macnaughten, and was brought to Calcutta. He was released in 1842. In the second Sikh War he made common cause with the Sikhs, and captured Peshawar, from which, however, he was shortly afterwards expelled. In 1856–7 a British army was dispatched to aid him against the Shah of Persia, who had seized Herat. Before he died he had succeeded to some extent, at least, in uniting the Afghan power. On his death in 1863 the country was divided between the partisans of his eldest son, and the younger son, Shere Ali, to whom Dost Mohammed had bequeathed his throne. [Afghan Wars.]

V. Langlois, "Herat, Dost Mahomet, etc.," 1864.

Doughty, Thomas (*d.* 1578), was Drake's second in command in the famous voyage of 1577. He was appointed captain of a Portuguese vessel captured near Santiago. Soon after quitting the Plate river, Doughty deserted with his men, but was soon overtaken, and his crew transferred to Drake's own ship, the *Pelican*. On the Patagonian coast the adventurers came upon a gibbet, on which, more than fifty years before, Magellan had hanged his mutineers; and this spot was now put into fresh service for the execution of Doughty. A court-martial was extemporized; Doughty was found guilty, and beheaded, after first embracing the admiral and partaking of the holy communion. A story of the time makes Drake himself the executioner.

H. W. Wagner, "Drake's Voyage Round the World," 1927.

Douglas, The Family of. The first member of this family known to history is William de Douglas (or Dufglas), whose name frequently occurs in charters of the period 1175–1213. At the end of the thirteenth century Sir William Douglas was prominent as a supporter of Wallace against the English interest. During this and the succeeding century vast possessions in the south of Scotland were accumulated by the Douglases; who became, in virtue of their territorial power, formidable antagonists to the royal authority. On the failure of the line of Bruce, it seemed for a time by no means improbable that a member of the Douglas connexion might oust the Stuarts from the Scottish throne. Besides their estates in Scotland the Douglases had at one time extensive lands in England, just as the Percys had similar claims in Scotland. These claims were to have been satisfied for both parties under the terms of the Treaty of Northampton (1328); and it has been remarked that a slight difference in the distribution of the estates of either family would have "inverted their position, and made the Percys national to Scotland, the Douglases to England." In 1358 William Douglas was raised to an earldom under the title of Earl of Douglas; and in 1389 George Douglas was created Earl of Angus.

Douglas, The Peerage of, dates from Sir William Douglas, who was created Earl of Douglas in 1358. The earldom came to an end in 1455 with the attainder of James, 9th earl, after the battle of Arkenholm and the unsuccessful Douglas rebellion. The peerage of Angus had been conferred on George, illegitimate son of the 1st Earl of Douglas, in 1389. In the Douglas rebellion of 1454 the Anguses adhered to the Crown, and got a large portion of their relatives' estates. In 1633 William, 11th Earl of Angus, was created Marquis of Douglas. In 1703 Archibald, 3rd marquis, was created Duke of Douglas. The dukedom of Douglas became extinct with him in 1761. The estates of the Douglas family were the subject of a protracted law-suit, known as the "Douglas Cause," between the Duke of Hamilton and Archibald Stewart, nephew of the Duke of Douglas, who obtained the estates by a judgment of the House of Lords in 1771, and was created Baron Douglas in 1790. The peerage became extinct in 1857. In 1875 Cospatrick, Earl of Home, whose wife was descended from the 1st Baron Douglas, was created Baron Douglas of Douglas. The marquisate of Douglas and earldom of Angus passed on the death of Archibald, Duke of Douglas, in 1761, to James, 7th Duke of Hamilton, who was descended, by a second marriage, from William, 1st Marquis of Douglas (*d.* 1633).

Douglas, Sir Archibald (*d.* 1333), was the youngest brother of the famous Sir James Douglas, and a warm adherent of David II. In 1332, having defeated Edward Baliol at Annan, he made a successful raid into Cumberland. On the capture of Sir Andrew Murray (1333), Douglas was chosen regent of Scotland; but in the same year he was defeated and slain at Halidon Hill.

Douglas, Archibald, 4th Earl of (*d.* 1424), was the son of Archibald, 3rd Earl of Douglas. In 1399 his sister Elizabeth had been married to the Duke of Rothesay, the heir to the Scottish crown, and Douglas is said to have been privy to the murder of that young prince in 1402, in revenge for his unfaithfulness to his wife. In September of the same year he headed an army collected for the invasion of England, but was defeated and taken prisoner by the Percys at the battle of Homildon Hill (q.v.). While in captivity, he was induced to join Percy in revolt against Henry IV; and was again defeated and taken prisoner at

Shrewsbury (q.v.), 1403. He was released in 1408, and later participated in many border raids. In 1423 he crossed over to France to fight against the English in that country. There he was created Duke of Touraine and lieutenant-general of the French army; but fell in the battle of Verneuil, and was buried at Tours.

Douglas, Archibald, 5th Earl of Angus (*d.* 1514), was the leader of the baronial party in the conspiracy against the ministers of James III at Lauder Bridge (q.v.), and from his famous remark on that occasion, "Heed not, I am he who will bell the cat," was ever afterwards called Archibald Bell-the-Cat. He shared in Albany's intrigues with Edward IV, and in 1488 fought on the side of the insurgents at the battle of Sauchie Burn (q.v.). In 1491 he resumed his intrigues with England, but in 1493 he was made chancellor, an office he appears to have held until 1498. He tried to dissuade James IV from fighting at Flodden (1513).

Douglas, Archibald, 6th Earl of Angus (*d.* 1557), was the grandson of the preceding. In August 1514 he married Margaret Tudor, the queen regent of Scotland, and mother of James V, incurring thereby great unpopularity. In 1520 he defeated his enemies the Hamiltons in the battle of "Cleanse the Causeway" (q.v.), and seized Edinburgh, but on the return of the regent Albany he found himself compelled to seek a temporary asylum in France. In 1524 he returned, and later became guardian of the young king, whom he kept in close restraint for three years. In 1528 James succeeded in escaping his vigilance; and in the same year, Margaret, from whom he had long been parted, obtained a formal divorce. Angus was now tried and forfeited for treason; and in 1529 he fled to England, where he remained till 1542. On the death of James V he returned to Scotland. At first he supported English interests; and in 1543 received Sir Ralph Sadler, the English ambassador, at his castle of Tantallon; but in the following year Angus threw over Henry, and joined the national party, an act which drew down on his lands the army of Lord Hertford. Shortly afterwards he defeated the English at the battle of Ancrum Moor (q.v.). He fought at Pinkie in 1547.

Douglas, Sir George (*d.* 1552), was a brother of Archibald, 6th Earl of Angus. Having given offence to James V of Scotland, he was banished to England along with his brother (1528). Some years later he took part (1532) in a raid on Scotland, to which country he did not return until the death of James V, 1542, when his forfeiture was rescinded. He was one of the Assured Lords (q.v.), and was urgent in promoting the marriage of Mary with Edward, but did not do much real service to Henry VIII, except by giving good advice to his ambassador, Sir Ralph Sadler.

Douglas, Sir James (*d.* 1330), called "The Good," was the son of Sir William Douglas, the friend of Wallace. Many stories, more or less incredible, are told of him, as of most of the other patriots who were fighting for Scotland at this time. He was an able and gallant partisan of Robert Bruce, his first exploit in the king's cause being the capture of the castle of Douglas from the English in 1307, and the massacre of its garrison. He was in command of one of the divisions of the Scottish army at Bannockburn in 1314, and in the same year harried Northumberland in conjunction with Edward Bruce. On the departure of Robert Bruce for Ireland, in 1316, the charge of the kingdom was committed to Douglas, who managed to defeat all attempts at invasion on the part of the English nobles. In 1318 he invaded England to create a diversion in favour of the beleaguered castle of Berwick, and won a complete victory at Mytton-on-Swale, in Yorkshire. In 1327, whilst on a similar expedition, he surprised the English camp by night at Stanhope Park, in Durham, cutting, it is said, the very ropes of King Edward's tent. Later on, he was one of the Scottish commissioners at the conclusion of the Treaty of Northampton. After the death of Bruce (1329), Douglas set out on an expedition to Palestine for the purpose of conveying the king's heart to Jerusalem, but being diverted from his original enterprise, was slain in battle with the Moors in Andalusia, 1330. His body was brought back to Scotland, and buried at Douglas.

Douglas, James, 2nd Earl of (*d.* 1388), the son of William, Earl of Douglas, married, in 1373, Isabel, daughter of Robert II. He succeeded to the title in 1384. He was renowned for his bravery and skilful generalship. In 1385 he took part in a raid upon England in conjunction with a body of French troops under John of Vienne. In 1388 he penetrated as far as Durham, and was retiring, carrying with him Henry Percy's (Hotspur) captured pennon, when he was met by the Percys at Otterburn (q.v.). This battle resulted in the defeat of the English, who fled from the field, leaving their leader, Hotspur, in the hands of the enemy; but it was dearly purchased by the Scots with the death of the Earl of Douglas.

Douglas, James, 9th Earl of Douglas (*d.* 1488), was the brother of William, 8th Earl of Douglas (q.v.) (stabbed by James II of Scotland), whom he succeeded as head of the family, February 1452. Almost his first act was to nail a defiance of the king to the walls of the parliament house at Edinburgh, charging him with murder and perjury; but the king raised an army against him and he made temporary submission. In 1453 he was appointed a commissioner to England to negotiate a truce, and appears to have seized the opportunity to enter into treasonable relations with the English court. The king determined to complete his destruction. In March 1455 he took the field

against him, being supported by the Angus branch of the Douglas family. Douglas himself fled across the border, and his brothers were defeated at the battle of Arkinholm (q.v.). James Douglas was attainted and his lands were forfeited to the Crown. He remained in England until he was taken prisoner in a border foray, 1484. Soon afterwards he entered the monastery of Lindores, where he died in 1488, the last of his line.

Douglas, James, 4th Earl of Morton (1525 ?–1581), Regent of Scotland, succeeded to the earldom of Morton in 1543. He was captured by the English at Dalkeith in 1548, but released two years later. He ratified the Treaty of Berwick (q.v.) in 1560. He became one of Mary Stuart's privy council, and was made chancellor in 1563. He gave lukewarm support to the Darnley marriage scheme, and was the chief instigator of the murder of Rizzio (1566), whom he alleged to be intriguing against him with the queen. After the murder he fled to England, whereupon his friends contrived to secure from the queen a pardon for him as a condition of their ridding her of Darnley (December). He returned to Scotland, but was absent from Edinburgh on the night of Darnley's murder. He declined to take part in the trial of Bothwell. When Bothwell carried off the queen, however, Morton relinquished his friendship, formed a "secret council" of the lords to deliver the queen, defeated Bothwell at Carberry Hill on June 14, 1567, and carried the queen back to Edinburgh, whence she was conveyed to Lochleven (June 12). On June 20 Norton discovered the famous Casket Letters (q.v.). He was made a member of the council of regency set up under Moray, and after Langside (at which he led the van—May 13, 1568) he was one of the four commissioners at York. On the death of Moray (February 1569) he secured the election of Lennox to the regency (July 12), and virtually controlled the government himself. On the succession of Mar to the regency (September 1571) Morton became lord-general of the kingdom, and himself became regent on Mar's death (November 1572). He now brought to an end a series of negotiations which he had been conducting with Elizabeth, by the agreement of Perth (1573), which resulted in his surrendering Edinburgh Castle and ruining the cause of Mary. For the next few years his supremacy in Scotland was unquestioned. He preserved order by his system of itinerant justices, and worked to build up a Protestant league with England to be followed by union under one crown. Both his domestic and his English policies won him great unpopularity, however, and his authority was undermined by the enmity of Colin Campbell, 6th Earl of Argyll, who induced the king to take over the government himself to the exclusion of Morton (March 1578). Morton contrived to retain a position on the council, but he felt insecure, and, rumours being circulated that he had poisoned the Earl of Atholl (who died suddenly in April 1579), Esmé Stuart landed in Scotland to prove that he (Morton) had himself murdered Darnley. This danger was soon dispelled, but Lennox discovered a plot between Morton and Elizabeth to resist his attempt to carry the king via Dumbarton to France, and secured the arrest of Morton on a charge of treason (December 29, 1580). He was executed on June 2, 1581.

Douglas, James, 4th Duke of Hamilton (1658–1712), made his first appearance in history in opposition to the lord high commissioner, the Marquis of Queensberry (1702), when he led a secession of eighty members from parliament. The extremely unsettled nature of his political views caused him to be excluded from the Scottish Union commission, and he became a zealous opponent of the Union. In consequence he grew to be the darling of the Edinburgh mob. His influence in this year (1706) checked a projected rising of Cameronians and Jacobites. In 1707 the opponents of the Union were reduced to despair, and, as a last attempt, it was resolved to lay a solemn protest on the table of the House, and then secede from parliament. The protest was to have been presented by Hamilton; but at the last moment he refused to appear, pleading toothache; and when peremptorily summoned declared he had never had any intention of presenting the protest. By some it was supposed that the cause of his conduct was the claim of the house of Hamilton to the Scottish throne, and by others that Anne had commanded him to lay aside his opposition to the Union, as it was a preliminary step to a Stuart restoration. In 1708 he was looked on as the leader of a Jacobite insurrection, but the emissary from St. Germains, Colonel Hooke, was unable to obtain an interview with him. When the French invasion of 1707–8 was imminent, Hamilton set out for England, where he was arrested; but was set free by the exertions of the Whig peers, Newcastle and Wharton, who wished to gain popularity for their party in Scotland. In 1711 he was allowed to take his seat in the House of Lords as an English peer, with the title of Baron of Dutton and Duke of Brandon. In 1712 he was appointed ambassador to France, and it is asserted by the Jacobite Lockhart that he was to be sent over with the view of undertaking the restoration of the Pretender. Before his departure he was killed in a duel with Lord Mohun, in which there was every appearance of foul play. His death was regarded by the Tories as a political murder.

Douglas, James, 2nd Duke of Queensberry (1662–1711), succeeded to his father's title in 1695. He had been a staunch supporter of the Prince of Orange, and in his earlier years had served in the army. In 1700 he was appointed high commissioner to the parliament of Scotland, and in 1702 and 1703 occupied the same position for Queen Anne. In the latter year he was driven out of office for his share

in what is popularly called "The Queensberry Plot" (q.v.), but two years later was made keeper of the privy seal, and a commissioner for the treaty of the Union. For the purpose of carrying the Union through, he was appointed lord high commissioner to the last Scottish parliament in 1706, and on his journey to London was received with the utmost honour in England as some recompense for the execrations he had to encounter in Scotland. As a reward for his services on this occasion he was created a British peer (1708), a pension of £3,000 a year was granted him out of the post office, and "the whole patronage of Scotland was vested in his hands." In 1709 his vote in the election of the Scottish representative peers was disallowed, as he now sat in the House of Lords in his own right. His death occurred in 1711. His son Charles, the 3rd Duke of Queensberry, was the friend and patron of Prior and Gay.

Douglas, Sir William (*d.* 1353), the Knight of Liddesdale, was the eldest son of Sir James Douglas of Lothian. He was taken prisoner (1332) by Sir Antony de Lucy in a raid into Scotland, and by order of Edward III was put in irons. On his release, he did good service against the English, whom he expelled from Teviotdale (1338). In 1342 he took Alexander Ramsay prisoner owing to a private feud, and starved him to death in his castle of Hermitage; but this crime was pardoned by David II, who even made its perpetrator governor of Roxburgh Castle. Douglas was taken prisoner at the battle of Neville's Cross, and while in captivity entered into treasonable negotiations with Edward III. He was assassinated in 1353, whilst hunting in Ettrick Forest, by his godson, William, Lord of Douglas, the son of Sir Archibald Douglas, the regent.

Douglas, William, 1st Earl of (*d.* 1384), was the son of Sir Archibald Douglas, Regent of Scotland in 1333. On his return, about 1348, from France, where he had been trained to arms, his first exploit was to drive the English out of Douglasdale and Teviotdale. He was the godson of Sir William Douglas, the Knight of Liddesdale (q.v.), whom he murdered in Ettrick Forest (1353), probably in revenge for his intrigues with the English king. In 1356 he was present at the battle of Poitiers on the French side; and in 1358 was created Earl of Douglas. In 1363 a dispute arose between Douglas and King David II relative to the application of the money raised for the payments of the king's ransom from the English; but the story that, on the death of David, Douglas intended to dispute the succession of the house of Stuart, and was only bought off by an alliance between his son and Isabel, daughter of Robert II, is unworthy of credence. In 1381 Douglas negotiated a truce with the English at Berwick.

Douglas, William, 6th Earl of (*d.* 1440), and 3rd Duke of Touraine, was the son of Archibald, 5th Earl of Douglas, who died 1439. On succeeding to the earldom, he incurred the enmity of Sir William Crichton, who, with Sir Alexander Livingstone, controlled the young king, James II. They invited him to pay a visit to James at Edinburgh Castle, and there, after some form of trial, had him beheaded, along with his brother David (1440). The young earl was but some eighteen years old at the time of his death.

Douglas, William, 8th Earl of (*d.* 1452), succeeded to the estates on the death of his father, James the Gross (1443). He was a man of turbulent spirit and vast power, possessing a large part of southern Scotland. He is said to have been appointed lieutenant-governor by James II, and certainly exercised the functions of that office. He rapidly concentrated his power by entering into alliances with the Earls of Crawford and Ross and other great nobles, and by setting on foot intrigues with foreign powers and with the English, whom he had defeated on the borders. He used his influence with the king to deprive Sir William Crichton of the chancellorship; and secured the downfall of the powerful family of the Livingstones. In 1450 he passed in state across the seas to spend the Jubilee in Rome. In his absence, Crichton and others of his enemies undermined his position with the king, and he returned to find his estates forfeited. In 1451 a hollow truce was concluded between Douglas and the king, which was soon broken. Douglas ravaged the lands of many of the king's more immediate friends, even daring to put to death Sir John Herries and McLellan. In 1452 James summoned him to an interview at Stirling, during which the king, enraged at his insolence, stabbed him in the throat, whereupon he was quickly dispatched by Sir Patrick Gray. He married his cousin, Margaret Douglas, the "Fair Maid of Galloway," and so reunited the possessions of the house of Douglas.

Douglas, William, 3rd Duke of Hamilton (1635–94), appears as member of the privy council in the year 1687. When James II refused to allow religious liberty to the Covenanters, and when the assembly of the Scottish estates also proved refractory, Hamilton led the opposition. At the Revolution he joined the victorious side, while his eldest son declared for James. He was elected president of the convention by a large majority, and when the convention became a parliament he was made lord high commissioner. But he attempted to bring the old influence of the Crown, by means of the lords of the articles, to bear on the estates, and hence a strong opposition was formed which thwarted his government for the remainder of the session. On the discovery of Montgomery's plot (1689–90) to place James on the throne, it was revealed that he had been offered the post of president of the council. Upon this William dismissed him from his office of commissioner (1690).

On the fall of Melville he once more occupied Holyrood House as lord high commissioner (1693), and is said to have subscribed £3,000 to the African Company.

Douglas Castle (in Lanarkshire) obtained during the wars of Scotland with Edward I the name of the "Perilous Castle of Douglas," from the difficulty of holding it against the Scots. It was three times recaptured from the English by Sir James Douglas, and its garrison destroyed. About the year 1451 it was demolished by James II's orders, while the earl was absent in Rome. It was, however, rebuilt, and was in 1639 garrisoned by the Covenanters.

Douglas Rebellion, The. [Douglas, James, 9th Earl of Douglas.]

Dover, called by the Romans Dubris, was a place of considerable importance in the early history of England. It was one of the Cinque Ports, and a very usual port for embarkation to the continent. It was here that Eustace, Count of Boulogne, committed the outrage which led to the banishment of Godwin (1051). At this time the town held its privileges by supplying the Crown with twenty ships for fifteen days. Harold founded a castle here. After the battle of Hastings the town was burnt by William's troops, and a few years later Eustace of Boulogne attempted to seize it by force during William's absence abroad (1067). It was taken by the French in 1296; and in 1670 it was the scene of the negotiations which led to the Treaty of Dover (q.v.). In 1918 the town was bombarded by a German submarine, with fourteen casualties. [Cinque Ports.]

S. P. H. Statham, "History of the Castle, Town, and Port of Dover," 1899.

Dover, The Treaty of (1670), was concluded between Charles II and Louis XIV, chiefly through the instrumentality of Charles's sister, the Duchess of Orleans. By this treaty:—(1) England and France were to declare war against Holland; and England was to receive the province of Zeeland in case of success. (2) The Prince of Orange was, if possible, to receive an indemnity. (3) Charles was to assist Louis to make good his claim on the Spanish succession, and to receive as his reward Ostend, together with any conquests he might make in South America. (4) Charles was to receive a subsidy of £300,000 a year from Louis. These four clauses comprised the whole of the public treaty, which was signed by Shaftesbury and the other ministers. But there were secret clauses known only to Clifford, Arlington, and Arundel, by which Charles was to reestablish Roman Catholicism; while to enable him to crush any opposition in carrying out this scheme, Louis was to give him £200,000 a year and 6,000 French troops.

J. R. Seeley, "Growth of British Policy," 2 vols., 1910.

Downing, Sir George (1624–85), was member for Carlisle in 1657. It was he who seems to have first suggested that the "Instrument of Government" should be abolished, and a new constitution, which aimed at reproducing the old constitution under a dynasty of Cromwells, substituted for it. After the Restoration, he was English ambassador at The Hague, and in 1664 was strongly in favour of making reprisals on the Dutch, a course of conduct which was adopted, though not in the king's name. A year later he proposed in the House of Commons that the method of contracting government loans through the goldsmiths should be abolished, and that the treasury should constitute itself a bank; and when his plan was adopted, he received a subordinate part in that department of state. In 1672 he was again ambassador in Holland, and in 1678 he had once more to defend his financial schemes in the House, this time without effect.

Downs, The Battle of the (1666), was fought between the English fleet, commanded by the Duke of Albemarle, and the Dutch, under De Ruyter, De Witt, and Van Tromp. The battle lasted for several days, opening on June 1. On the 3rd, Albemarle retired, after setting fire to his disabled ships, and late in the evening was joined by his colleague, Prince Rupert. The battle was one of the most obstinate and bloody of all the indecisive battles fought between the Dutch and the English in the seventeenth century.

D'Oyley, Colonel Edward (1617–75), the president of the first military council in Jamaica (1656), succeeded William Brayne as governor in 1657, and by his severe measures compelled the disbanded soldiers to colonize the island for England, in accordance with the wishes of Cromwell.

Drake, Sir Francis (1540?–96), was born near Tavistock, in Devonshire. Early inured to a sea life, he accompanied his relative, Sir John Hawkins, to the Spanish Main (1567), and subsequently, in 1570, undertook a voyage on his own account to the West Indies. In 1572 he sailed with two vessels to make reprisals upon the Spaniards for the previous losses he had sustained at their hands, and made an unsuccessful attack on Nombre de Dios (July 29). It was just before his return from this voyage that he saw the Pacific from a treetop in the isthmus of Panama. On his return to England, Drake was at first employed by Elizabeth in Ireland; but in 1577 he sailed, with her sanction, on another expedition. He plundered all the Spanish towns on the coasts of Chile and Peru, captured immense booty, and finally crossing the Pacific Ocean, returned to England round the Cape, thus circumnavigating the globe in a three-years' voyage. On arriving in England, he was knighted by the queen, in recognition of his daring (1580). Five years later Sir Francis was sent with a

fleet to the West Indies, where he captured the cities of Santiago, St. Domingo, and Carthagena. In 1587, during the preparations for the Spanish Armada, he commanded a fleet, which did much damage in the port of Cadiz, where he is said to have burnt 10,000 tons of shipping, an operation which he styled "singeing the King of Spain's beard." He then captured an immense treasure-ship off the Azores, and returned home in time to take a very active part in the defeat of the Armada, as vice-admiral of the fleet. In 1595, in conjunction with Sir John Hawkins, Drake sailed on an expedition to the West Indies, but nothing effectual was done; and Sir Francis died on board his own ship off Porto Bello, January 28, 1596, and was buried in mid-ocean.

See biographies by Sir J. Corbett, 1898, and W. J. Harte, 1920; Z. Nuttall (ed.), "New Light on Drake," 1914; H. R. Wagner, "Drake's Voyage Round the World," 1927.

Drapier's Letters (1724) is the name of a series of pamphlets written by Swift against the new copper coinage which the government were attempting to introduce into Ireland, and the monopoly for coining which had been granted to a man named Wood. The letters profess to be the production of a certain M. B., a drapier, or draper, of Dublin, and he, writing as an ignorant, unskilled shopman, gives utterance to his own apprehensions of ruin. While professing extreme loyalty to the king, the honest shopman shows, or attempts to show, that the patent was unjust to begin with; that its terms had been infringed, and that the new coins themselves were base. In this publication Swift hit the public taste of Ireland, and became unrivalled in popularity. So great was the impression produced by this work, that the patent had to be withdrawn from Wood, who was, however, compensated by a pension of £3,000 a year. [SWIFT; WOOD'S HALFPENCE.]

Drogheda is noted in history as being (1) the place where the papal legate Paparo held a synod in 1152, on which occasion the authority of the Roman Church was greatly strengthened in Ireland. (2) It was at this town that Poynings' Act was passed in 1494, and about the same time a mint was established there. (3) In December 1641 Drogheda was besieged by O'Neill with a large force of Irish, but was for three months successfully defended by Sir Henry Tichborne. (4) On September 3, 1649, Cromwell appeared before the town, which had been garrisoned by Ormonde with his best regiment, most of them English, altogether 2,500 men, commanded by Sir Arthur Aston, an officer of great reputation. On the 10th the bombardment began; but a storm attempted by the Puritans failed, and the garrison refused to surrender. On the 12th the storming of the place was again attempted, and succeeded, after a desperate struggle. The whole garrison was put to the sword, and Sir Arthur himself had his brains beaten out. Cromwell admits "that the officers were also knocked promiscuously on the head except two." Altogether, it seems that about 4,000 people perished, about half of whom must have been unarmed—so, at least, it would appear from the depositions of eye-witnesses. (5) In 1690 Drogheda surrendered to William III, directly after the battle of the Boyne.

Droit d'Aubaine was the rule by which the property of a deceased foreigner was claimed by the State unless the defunct man had a special exemption. This rule was not peculiar to England, but common to other countries. The derivation of the word "aubaine" has been variously explained.

Droits of Admiralty are the perquisites attached to the office of lord high admiral. Most valuable among them is the right to seize the property of an enemy in time of war. It has been customary in maritime war to seize the property of an enemy if found within our ports on the outbreak of hostilities, and to consider the prizes as forming part of the Droits of Admiralty. Prizes captured by non-commissioned vessels are also said to be subject to the same conditions. In the Revolutionary and Napoleonic wars large sums were obtained by the enforcement of these regulations, but for the most part the money so gained was devoted to the public service. By an act of William IV's reign the Droits of Admiralty for that reign were to be put to public use, and the lord high admiral is no longer in possession of his claim to the tenth part of property captured on the seas.

Druids, THE, were the priests of the Celts in Britain and Gaul, Druidism, according to Prof. Rhŷs, representing a survival from pre-Celtic days. Cæsar says that there were in Gaul only two classes who obtained any consideration, the common people being in a condition little above slavery. These two classes were the noble order, Equites, as Cæsar calls them, and the priestly order, the Druids. The last presided over all the religious functions. They had the care of public and private sacrifices, and they interpreted the religious mythology. To them the youth flocked in crowds for instruction. They were too, we find, the judges in all cases, both criminal and civil, settling questions of disputed boundaries or affairs of inheritance, as well as those connected with infractions of the law. If anyone refused to abide by their decision, they could inflict on him the penalty of excommunication or interdiction from the sacrifices, which deprived him of all his civil rites, and cut him off from all commerce with his fellow-men. At their head was one chief Druid, who succeeded by election. Generally, the claim of one person to succeed to the vacant post was universally recognized; sometimes, however, disputed claims led to bloodshed. Once a year all the people who had

any cause for hearing assembled in the most central part of Gaul, the country of the Carnutes, and were judged by the Druids: much, one may fancy, as the Israelites were judged by their judges. As has been already said [CELTS], Britain was considered in Cæsar's day the especial nursery of Druidism.

Cæsar tells us, as a distinction, that the Germans had no Druids. But if by this were meant that the Germans had no sacerdotal class, the statement certainly requires modification. The Germans, like most of the Aryan races after their earliest days, had a class of priests who stood side by side with their kings or chiefs. The Celtic Druids were, we may feel sure, a sacerdotal class, of the same kind as that which was found among their kindred nationalities: that is to say, their essential function was to stand foremost in the sacrifices, and to preserve by oral tradition the mythic histories, whether of gods or heroes, which had been composed in verse, as well as to compose fresh forms when required. They were both priests and bards: gleemen, as the Saxons said, or, as the Norsemen would have said, scalds. This was their essential character. It was in degree chiefly that their functions differed from those of the priests of, say, the heathen Saxons. The Celts were undoubtedly, as Cæsar describes them, a very religious people, and being such, they had raised their priesthood to a position of exceptional power, and from this exceptional position arose their functions as judges. We easily gather this much from Cæsar's account of the Druids; for we see that the enforcement of their decrees was not secured by ordinary legal, but by distinctly religious, penalties: they forbade men the sacrifices. If the people had not been exceptionally religious, this penalty would not have carried with it such exceptional terrors. Too much has been made of Pliny's description of the ceremonies which accompanied the cutting of the mistletoe; for we have no reason to think that this was in any degree the central point of the Druidic ritual, or that it was more than one among twenty similar rites. Nor, again, must we take too literally a beautiful passage in which Lucan describes the high doctrines of the Druids concerning the future life, for these doctrines were not essentially different from those which have been held by all the Aryan nations. [CELTS.]

Being raised to such a high position, it is probable that the Druids took unusual care to fence themselves round with the mystery of a priestly caste. It is quite possible that they may among themselves have cherished doctrines above those of the common herd; but the theory that they had a great and secret philosophy, which by oral tradition they handed down far into the Middle Ages, is an extravagant notion which has been cherished by enthusiastic and uncritical minds. [BREHON.]

T. Rice Holmes, "Ancient Britain," 1907.

Drumclog, THE BATTLE OF, was fought on the borders of Lanarkshire and Ayrshire, June 1, 1679, between a party of the Covenanters who had been surprised at a "conventicle" and the royal troops under Claverhouse. The Covenanters, who were led by Balfour of Burleigh and Hackston of Rathillet, were victorious.

P. Hume Brown, "History of Scotland," 1911.

Drumcrub, THE BATTLE OF (965), was fought between Duff, King of Alban, and Colin, son of Indulf, a rival claimant to the throne. The latter was completely defeated, two of his chief supporters, the Lord of Atholl and the Abbot of Dunkeld, being slain.

Drummond, SIR GORDON (1772–1854), was one of the British generals during the American War of 1812–14. In 1814 he defeated the Americans at Fort Oswego, and soon afterwards gained a second victory over them at Lundy's Lane. In August of that year, however, he was himself defeated at Fort Erie, to which he afterwards laid unsuccessful siege. In 1815 he was appointed governor-general of Canada.

R. Johnson, "American War of 1812–15," 1882.

Drummond, THOMAS (1797–1840), permanent under-secretary for Ireland from 1835 until his death, was born in Edinburgh, became an officer in the Royal Engineers, and was employed in the government survey of Ireland, and subsequently in the Boundary Commission rendered necessary by the Reform Bill of 1832. Attracted to politics, he became permanent under-secretary at Dublin Castle. He was largely responsible for the organization of the Royal Irish Constabulary (1836). His policy was to govern Ireland by the ordinary law, recognizing the grievances of the people and pursuing a conciliatory policy towards the Catholics. He was bitterly attacked by the landlord party, and the aphorism "Property has its duties as well as its rights" was coined by him in a reply to a protest from the Tipperary magistrates.

Biography by R. Barry O'Brien, 1889.

Drummond, SIR WILLIAM (*d.* 1828), entered parliament in 1795 as member for St. Mawes. In 1801 he was sent as envoy extraordinary to the court of Naples, and in 1803 he was appointed ambassador at Constantinople. Sir William was more distinguished as a scholar, however, than as a diplomatist, and published several learned works.

Drunken Parliament, THE (1661), was the name given to the ultra-Royalist Scottish parliament elected just after the Restoration. It restored the Lords of the Articles, and annulled all acts of the preceding twenty-eight years. [ARTICLES, LORDS OF THE.]

Drury, SIR WILLIAM (1527–79), attained considerable fame in the reign of Elizabeth as an able general and administrator. In 1567 he was in command of the border forces, and in 1570, in conjunction with Lennox, took Hamilton

from the Duke of Châtelherault. In 1573 he conducted the siege of Edinburgh to a successful issue (May 21–8), and received the thanks of the queen. Three years later Drury was made president of Munster, and signalized his entrance upon the office by a series of vigorous measures. He died at Waterford in October 1579.

Dryden, John (1631–1700), was educated at Westminster and Cambridge. At the Restoration he appears to have changed his politics; for after having, in 1659, written an elegiac poem on the death of Oliver Cromwell, we find him in 1660 ready with another in honour of the new king. From this time there hardly occurred any political event of importance that is not alluded to in his pages. The Dutch were satirized in 1662; and five years later the wonderful events of 1665–6 were celebrated in the "Annus Mirabilis." In 1681 he published his greatest work, "Absalom and Achitophel," a political satire, directed mainly against the intrigues of Shaftesbury and Monmouth on the question of the accession of the Duke of York. All the characters in this poem are intended to represent the chief statesmen of the day under the thin disguise of Hebrew names. Thus David is Charles II; Absalom, his favourite son, the Duke of Monmouth; Achitophel, the Earl of Shaftesbury; while the versatile Duke of Buckingham appears as Zimri. The attack on Shaftesbury was before long continued in "The Medal," while by the next year, in the "Religio Laici," he was again engaged upon one of the leading topics of the day, defending the Church of England against the attacks of the Dissenters. Under James II Dryden turned Roman Catholic, and his pension as laureate, an office to which he had been appointed in 1670, was renewed after a temporary cessation. Shortly after this the poet's gratitude evinced itself in the publication of "The Hind and the Panther" (1687), another political and religious poem, in which the "milk-white hind, unspotted and unchanged," represents the Church of Rome; while the panther, "the noblest creature of the spotted kind," stands for the Church of England, and other sects are represented under the guise of various beasts. At the Revolution his various offices were taken away from him, and he henceforward confined himself to purely poetical work.

An edition of Dryden's "Works," with a "Life" by Sir Walter Scott, was published in 1808, and revised and reissued by Professor George Saintsbury in 1882.

Dublin has been from the very earliest times a place of great importance in Irish history. Its name bespeaks a Celtic origin, and it has been identified with the Eblana of Ptolemy. In the ninth century it fell into the hands of the Ostmen, or Danes, who, with occasional reverses, kept their footing in Ireland till the time of the English conquest. In 1171 the town was unsuccessfully besieged by Roderick, King of Connaught, with an immense host of Irish; and in the same year Henry II received there the homage of the Irish chiefs. The government of Dublin was then undertaken by Hugh de Lacy. In 1207 the new English colony was granted a charter, and two years later was nearly exterminated by a native rising, during Easter, which has given to the day of its occurrence the title of Black Monday. Richard II visited Dublin twice, and was being entertained there when news came of Bolingbroke's invasion. In 1591 a charter of Queen Elizabeth founded Trinity College and the University of Dublin. A new university was instituted here by the Irish University Act of 1908. In 1646 Dublin was besieged by the papists, and was next year surrendered to the Parliamentarian forces. After the Revolution of 1688, James I held a parliament in this city, which, however, fell into the hands of William III soon after the battle of the Boyne. In later times Dublin has been the head-quarters of several plots and seditious projects, such as the plot of Lord E. Fitzgerald (1798), of Emmett (1803), the Fenian Conspiracy of 1867, and the plot of the Invincibles in 1882. The city suffered during the Easter rising of 1916, over 200 buildings being destroyed, and again in 1922 from violence on the part of forces opposed to the treaty with Great Britain. [Ireland.]

Sir J. T. Gilbert, "History of Dublin," 1859; D. A. Chart, "Dublin," 1907.

Dublin, The Treaty of (1646), conducted by Ormonde on behalf of Charles I and the Irish Council of Kilkenny, was concluded on March 28, 1646. It was of a political character (religious articles being omitted until the king's pleasure should have been ascertained), and provided for the equipment of 10,000 Irish troops to help the king. The papal nuncio and Owen Roe O'Neill strongly opposed it, and a synod at Waterford excommunicated all who adhered to it. It was practically set aside by the Irish advance on Dublin.

Duclair Episode. In 1870 six British vessels were seized by the Germans at Duclair in the course of their military operations, and sunk in the Seine; their crews, moreover, it was said, were treated with brutality. This excited considerable irritation in Great Britain. On explanations being demanded, however, Prince Bismarck showed himself ready and desirous to avoid all cause of quarrel by satisfactorily explaining away all causes of offence, and offering the fullest compensation to the parties entitled to claim it.

"Annual Register," 1870.

Dudley, Ambrose, Earl of Warwick (1528?–1590), third son of John Dudley, Duke of Northumberland (q.v.), was tried, and condemned (1553), for his participation in his father's plot, but was not executed. In 1563 he was in command of the English garrison at Havre when it was forced to surrender; and after his return to England was proposed by Elizabeth as a husband for the Queen of Scots. In the rebellion of 1569 he was in command

of some of the royal forces, and aided materially in crushing the insurrection.

Dudley, Sir Andrew (*d.* 1559), brother of the Duke of Northumberland, was sent in 1553 to the Emperor Charles V for the purpose of mediating between the Spaniards and the French. In the same year he received instructions from his brother to bribe the King of France to send an army to England in furtherance of the scheme for placing Lady Jane Grey on the throne. For this he was put on his trial and condemned to death, but was afterwards reprieved.

Dudley, Sir Edmund (1462–1510), was one of the unprincipled agents of Henry VII's rapacity, to which he contrived to lend a kind of legal support by founding it in many cases upon a revival of obsolete statutes. In 1492 he accompanied Henry to France, and it was on his return from this expedition that he united with Empson in inaugurating that system of exaction for which he has obtained so unenviable a notoriety. In 1504 he provides an example of the completeness of Henry's power at that time by his appearance as Speaker of the House of Commons, while the king conferred upon him also the rank and office of a baron of the exchequer. Dudley and his partner Empson were naturally very unpopular; they were men, to use the words of Bacon, "whom the people esteemed as his [Henry VII's] horse-leeches and shearers, bold men and careless of fame, and that took toll of their master's grist." On the death of Henry VII, his successor could find no better way to ensure popularity at the opening of his reign than by the surrender to the people's fury of these agents of his father's oppression. Dudley and Empson were accordingly arrested on a charge of high treason, were at once condemned, and executed in August 1510. So general was the disgust and indignation which Dudley and Empson had excited, that it was thought necessary to pass a special act of parliament to prevent the recurrence of the illegalities of which they had been guilty. [Empson.]

Dudley, Lord Guildford (*d.* 1554), son of the Duke of Northumberland, was married in 1553 to Lady Jane Grey (q.v.), whose claim to the throne the duke intended to assert on the death of Edward VI. Upon the failure of his plot, he was condemned to death in company with his wife, but the sentence was not carried into effect till February 12, 1554, when the insurrection of Sir Thomas Wyatt (q.v.) and the solicitations of Simon Renard, the ambassador of Charles V, induced Mary to order his instant execution. [Grey, Lady Jane; Mary.]

Sir H. Nicolas, "Life of Lady Jane Grey."

Dudley, Sir Henry (*d.* 1565 ?), a cousin of the Duke of Northumberland, formed (in 1556) a conspiracy in favour of the Princess Elizabeth, the avowed object of the plot being to free England from the yoke of Catholicism and Spain. Elizabeth was to be married to Edward Courtenay, Earl of Devon (q.v.), who had been the cause of the previous rebellion of 1554. A plan was also laid to carry off a large amount of Spanish silver from the treasury; but the whole plot was betrayed by one of the accomplices, named Thomas White, and most of the conspirators were arrested. Dudley himself, however, escaped abroad.

Dudley, John, Duke of Northumberland (1502–53), was the son of Edmund Dudley, the extortionate minister of Henry VII. Created Lord Lisle by Henry VIII, he distinguished himself in naval warfare with the French, as lord high admiral (1545), and was named by the king one of the executors to carry on the government during the minority of Edward VI, being shortly afterwards created Earl of Warwick. In 1547 he again distinguished himself at the battle of Pinkie, and two years later was instrumental in crushing the rebellion of Ket. About this time he attached himself to the Protestant party, chiefly from motives of self-interest, and on the fall of Somerset (1549) assumed the office of protector, two years later being made Duke of Northumberland. After the execution of Somerset (1552), Northumberland obtained complete ascendancy, not only over the council, but also over the young king, whose favour he won by his pretended zeal for Protestantism; though at the same time he contrived to conciliate to a certain extent the emperor and the Catholic party. The ill-health of Edward VI in 1553 made it evident that he had not long to live; and Northumberland, partly from ambition, and partly from the knowledge that, if Mary succeeded her brother, his own ruin was inevitable, formed the design of getting the succession altered in favour of Lady Jane Grey (q.v.), whom he shortly afterwards married to his son, Guildford Dudley. He had little difficulty in persuading the king to enter into his project. The privy councillors he had more trouble with, but eventually the will in Lady Jane Grey's favour was signed, and the duke, relying on the Protestant party and on French aid, thought the success of his plot secured, and it was even hinted that he hastened Edward's end by poisoning. On the king's death (July 6, 1553), Northumberland at once caused Lady Jane to be proclaimed, and announced to her that she was queen; but, contrary to his expectation, the feeling of the country was against the usurpation, and almost the whole of England declared in favour of Mary. The duke was arrested at Cambridge (where, seeing the failure of his scheme inevitable, he had proclaimed Mary) by the Earl of Arundel, who conveyed him to London. He was tried in Westminster Hall, by a court presided over by the Duke of Norfolk, and was condemned to death, being executed on Tower Hill (August

22, 1553). Before his execution he confessed himself a Roman Catholic.

A. D. Innes, "England Under the Tudors."

Dudley, Robert, Earl of Leicester (1532 ?–88), was the fifth son of John Dudley, Duke of Northumberland. Implicated to some extent in the schemes of his father, he was for some years in disgrace, but was ultimately restored in blood by Mary. In 1549 he married Amy (or Anne) Robsart, daughter of a Norfolk gentleman, and is said to have procured her murder at Cumnor (1560). The charge cannot be absolutely proved; but she certainly perished at a time most convenient for Dudley's ambition. The probable truth is that she was murdered by someone who wished to see Dudley married to Elizabeth. He had not been long about the court before his handsome appearance won him the favour of the queen, whose relations with her "sweet Robin" were so peculiar as to lend colour to the worst representations of her enemies, though the rumours were probably groundless. The queen's fondness for Dudley, whom, in 1564, she created Earl of Leicester, caused his marriage with her to be regarded as a matter of certainty. But Elizabeth, fond as she was, preferred that "at court there should be no master, only mistress." The bitter enemy of Cecil, whom he regarded as his rival in influence over the queen, Leicester was continually trying to deprive him of his office, but without success. His arrogance and his influence over the queen made Leicester an object of almost universal detestation; and the probability of his marriage with Elizabeth called forth the most violent opposition. When the queen, in 1562, believed herself to be dying, she named the earl as protector of the realm; and the following year, though she would not marry him herself, proposed him as a suitor for the hand of Mary, Queen of Scots, that he might thus, perhaps, after all, obtain the throne of England. It was long, however, before Leicester gave up all hope of an alliance with the queen; and he was one of the most determined opponents of the projected marriages with the Duke of Anjou and Charles of Austria. About the year 1567 Leicester assumed the rôle of head of the Puritan party, partly out of chagrin with the Catholics, who refused him support, and as a means of checkmating his enemy Cecil. Twenty years later, when in the Netherlands, he gained many supporters amongst the Reformers by his pretence of sincere Protestantism. In 1578 he secretly married the Countess of Essex, and incurred the severe displeasure of the queen, who still retained her partiality for her favourite. In 1582 Elizabeth again quarrelled with him; but a reconciliation was effected, and in 1585 he obtained the command of the English troops in the Low Countries; though his appointment only served to bring out his incapacity to fill a responsible position. On his arrival at Flushing, Leicester was offered and accepted the post of governor by the States, a fact which again provoked the anger of Elizabeth, who declared that the earl and the States had treated her with contempt. Before Leicester returned to England, towards the end of 1586, he had managed, "with conspicuous incapacity," to throw everything into confusion, and to bring the Low Countries to the verge of ruin. Notwithstanding this, the States again offered him the government, and he went back with supplies of men and money in 1587, though he only retained his post a few months. The following year, in spite of the incapacity he had displayed as a general, the command of the English army was entrusted to him during the alarm of the Spanish invasion; and he was about to be created lieutenant-general of England and Ireland when he died of a fever (September 4, 1588). His character is that of an ambitious and unscrupulous courtier. "He combined in himself," says Froude, "the worst qualities of both sexes. Without courage, without talent, without virtue, he was the handsome, soft, polished, and attentive minion of the court."

Biography by J. D. Richardson, 1907.

[F. S. P.]

Dudley and Ward, Earl of (1781–1833). [Ward, John William.]

Duelling. The practice of duelling seems to have originated from the Teutonic custom of trial by battle. But it seems clear that this method of deciding rights did not exist in England before the Conquest. Under William the Conqueror it was rendered compulsory only between two Normans, but was gradually extended in certain cases to both races. This law, though it had long fallen into desuetude, was not finally abrogated till 1819, after it had in 1817 been claimed as his right by a certain Thornton, who was accused of murder. [Wager of Battle.] The practice of duelling, not as a solemn appeal to heaven for justice, but for the satisfaction of a personal affront, arose from the legal custom, and does not seem to have occurred in England earlier than the sixteenth century, though it became very common indeed in the next one, and so continued till the nineteenth century. It was not till about the year 1843, when Colonel Fawcett perished at the hands of his brother-in-law, that the public feeling was unmistakably expressed against the custom. After this, the army, in whose ranks the sense of honour and claim to satisfy it by shedding blood might be supposed to be strongest, was forbidden to have recourse to this practice under heavy penalties. This regulation, mainly brought about by the Prince Consort, seems to have been of almost equal effect in every class of the community, and duelling in England has now been for many years a thing of the past.

Duff, King of Alban, was the son of Malcolm I, and succeeded Indulf, 962. We are told that in 965 he defeated Colin, son of

Indulf, at Drumcrub, but was expelled by him in 967. Duff appears to have taken refuge in Forres, where, it is said, he was slain at the Bridge of Kinloss, 967.

Duffindale, The Battle of (1549), resulted in a complete defeat of the Norfolk rebels, under Robert Ket (q.v.), at the hands of the royal troops under Warwick.

J. Clayton, "Robert Ket and the Norfolk Rising," 1913.

Dugdale, Sir William (1605–86), one of the most famous of the English seventeenth-century antiquaries, was descended from an old Lancashire family. Marrying at the early age of seventeen, he soon settled at Blythe in Warwickshire, where his enthusiasm for the past was kindled by the acquaintances he made. In 1635 he was introduced to Sir Henry Spelman, like himself a famous antiquary, and before long began collecting materials for his great work, the "Monasticon Anglicanum." Fearing the ruin to our national monuments that might ensue from the Civil War that was on the point of breaking out, he made, in 1641, at the instance of Sir Christopher Hatton, copies of all the principal monuments in Westminster Abbey and other great English churches and cathedrals. Next year he attended Charles I's summons to York, and was present at Oxford when it surrendered to the Parliament in 1646. After the Restoration he was appointed Garter king-at-arms. Besides his great work, the "Monasticon Anglicanum," the recognized authority on English monastic foundations—first published in separate volumes 1655, 1661, 1673—Dugdale was the author of many other works, including the "Antiquities of Warwickshire" (1656), the "History of St. Paul's Cathedral" (1658), "Origines Judiciales" (1666, etc.), the "Baronage of England" (1675–6), and "A Short View of the Late Troubles in England" (1681), being an account of the rise and progress of the Civil War. All these works, except the last, which is marked by violent prejudice, are perfect mines of valuable information, and in many cases are remarkable as being the first serious attempts in their various lines.

Duke, the highest title in the English peerage, originated in the reign of Edward III, who in 1337 created his son, the Black Prince, Duke of Cornwall. The first instance of a person not a member of the royal family being created a duke is Robert de Vere, who in 1386 was made Duke of Ireland. The title has been very rarely given, and at present there are but twenty-one imperial dukes, exclusive of the princes of the blood royal. There are, in addition, seven dukes in the Scottish, and two in the Irish peerage. The word "duke" is a heritage of the Roman Empire, under which the "duces" were military leaders; from Merovingian and Carolingian times it passed into the nomenclature of mediæval Europe, where England was one of the last countries to adopt the title. Etymologically it is the same word as the Italian "doge."

Dumbarton, the "fortress of the Britons," is a lofty rock on the right bank of the Lower Clyde. Originally it was called Alcluyd, and was the chief town of the Strathclyde Welsh. Its later name must have been given by the Picts. In 736 it was taken by the Picts and Northumbrians under Ecgbert. Granted to John Baliol by Edward I, it was in 1562 given up by Arran to Queen Mary, and held for her by Lord Fleming. It was to Dumbarton that the queen was trying to force a passage when she was defeated at Langside, 1568. In 1571 it was taken from Henry by Captain Crawford, and in 1639 it fell into the hands of the Covenanters.

J. Glen, "History of Dumbarton," 1876.

Dumnonia, Damnonia, or West Wales, was the British kingdom in the south-western peninsula of England. Besides the quite separate Dumnonii of the district round the Roman Wall, there was in Roman times a tribe called the Dumnonii who occupied the whole country west of the modern Hampshire and the Bristol Avon. Some inquirers have regarded them as Goidelic in race, and therefore to be distinguished sharply from their British (Brythonic) neighbours. But, if so, it is difficult to see how the Brythons, driven westwards by the Saxons, were able in their defeat to conquer and assimilate these Goidels, for in later times the speech of Cornwall certainly was more kindred to the Brythonic than the Goidelic group of Celtic languages. Perhaps there remained traces of an earlier race, though the Dumnonii were roughly Brythonic. Anyhow, the sixth century saw a Celtic race still supreme in these regions, and, by its possession of the lower Severn valley, in communication with the "North Welsh" beyond the Bristol Channel. In Gildas's time the tyrant Constantine was king of this region; but with the advance of the West Saxons westwards, the Dumnonian kingdom was forced into narrower limits. The conquests of Ceawlin in 577 (battle of Deorham) separated it from the modern Wales. The victory of Cenwealh at the Pens drove the "Brytwealas" over the Parret (658), and the tales of Armorican migration attest the disorganization of the defeated race. Geraint, the Dumnonian monarch, was signally defeated in 710 by Ine, and the West Saxon frontiers were advanced to the Exe. Ine's organization of the Sherborne bishopric, and refoundation of Glastonbury Abbey, shows the completeness of his conquests. Yet even in Ecgbert's time the West Welsh remained unsubdued, and avenged their defeat, if not conquest, in 815, by joining the Danes against the West Saxon Bretwalda. Their defeat at Hengestesdun (838) led to their entire subjection. Yet it was only temporary; for Exeter continued to be jointly inhabited by

English and Welsh until Athelstan expelled the latter; an act which led to the confinement of the Welsh to the modern Cornwall. When they were subdued directly to the West Saxons we hardly know; but no king of the West Welsh can be proved to have existed later than the Howel who did homage to Athelstan. The retention of the Celtic language, at least till the end of the seventeenth century, still marked off Cornwall from the rest of the country. But the last trace of any separate organization was the appointment in 1051 of Odda as Earl of the "Wealas." The modern duchy is of much later date. Even in Domesday there are hardly any British proper names in the old Dumnonia, though to this day the great majority of the place-names among the dwellers of the more western portion are purely Celtic.

The original authorities are a few meagre entries in the chronicles, Welsh and English, of battles. Philology and local antiquities give something more. For the ethnological question see Rhŷs's "Celtic Britain"; and T. Rice Holmes, "Ancient Britain," 1907; also "Victoria County History: Cornwall."

[T. F. T.]

Dunbar, Black Agnes of. [March, Agnes, Countess of.]

Dunbar, The Battles of. (1) April 27, 1296, resulted in a complete victory for the English forces under Edward I and Earl Warenne over the Scots under the Earl of Atholl and Sir Patrick Graham.

(2) September 3, 1650, resulted in a complete victory for the Parliamentary army under Cromwell, Monck, and Lambert, over the Scots under David Leslie. Leslie had taken up a strong position, and fortified all the heights between Edinburgh Castle and Leith. For a whole month Leslie kept his impregnable position till it seemed that Cromwell must be starved into submission. Fearing this fate, the English general removed to Dunbar, where he could command the sea, and Leslie followed him along the slopes, settling finally upon the hill of Doon, cutting off the retreat of the enemy, and looking down on them in the town. On the night of September 2 the Scottish army forsook its strong position and foolishly descended to the lower ground. Leslie's caution had been overcome by the rash zeal of the preachers in his camp. At daybreak Cromwell ordered his whole force to advance against the Scottish horse, which were crossing the glen of the Broxburn in advance of the main body, and before they had time to form their lines they were driven back on their own ranks behind, and the day was lost. It was on this occasion that Cromwell uttered his memorable quotation as the sun cleared away the mist from the hills and showed the certain rout of his enemies, "Let God arise, and let His enemies be scattered." Three thousand men perished in this engagement, and nearly ten thousand were taken prisoners. From Dunbar Cromwell passed on to Edinburgh, and in a short time all Scotland was in his power.

P. Hume Brown, "History of Scotland," 1911; C. H. Firth, "Cromwell," 1890.

Dunbar Castle, in Haddingtonshire, was granted to Gospatric, Earl of March, by Malcolm Canmore in 1070. It was taken by Edward I and Earl Warenne, April 1296, and in 1314 it gave shelter to Edward II after his flight from Bannockburn. In 1338 it was successfully defended for nineteen weeks against the Earl of Salisbury by "Black Agnes of Dunbar" (q.v.). It was garrisoned by French troops during Albany's regency in the time of James V, and its fortifications strengthened after its evacuation by the foreigners. It gave shelter to Mary and Darnley after the murder of Rizzio, 1561, and again received the queen, this time in the company of Bothwell, on the rising of the Confederate Lords, 1567. The castle was destroyed by the regent Moray.

Duncan, Adam, 1st Viscount Camperdown (1731–1804), entered the navy early in life. In 1749 he served in the Mediterranean under Keppel. He was wounded in the attack on Goree in 1758, and obtained his lieutenancy soon after the battle. In 1761 he took part in the expeditions against Belle Isle and Havannah, and was entrusted by Keppel with the difficult task of landing the troops in boats. In 1779 he was employed in the Channel till he accompanied Rodney to the relief of Gibraltar, and in the action of January 16, 1780, Duncan did good service, and was so hardly used in the battle that he had not a boat wherewith to take possession of his prizes. In 1782 he proceeded again to the relief of Gibraltar, on this occasion under Lord Howe, and in 1787 was made rear-admiral. Seven years later he received the command of a fleet stationed in the North Sea, and in this office had to watch the Dutch fleet at the Texel (1797). When the mutiny at the Nore broke out, Admiral Duncan found himself left with only two ships to blockade the enemy. His firmness upon this occasion contributed in no small degree to the suppression of the mutiny; but at the same time he kept up the semblance of a watch upon the Dutch admiral. Later, by retiring to Yarmouth, he gave De Winter, the Dutch admiral, an opportunity of putting out to sea. The chance was immediately taken by the Dutch, while the British fleet made every effort to cut off their retreat. On October 11, 1797, he managed by skilful tactics to get between the enemy and the land. He then broke through their line, and after a stubborn contest off Camperdown gained a complete victory, capturing two frigates and eight line-of-battle ships, including the admiral's ship. Duncan was at once rewarded by a peerage and a large pension. He remained, however, for two years more in the North Sea before coming home to spend his last days in retire-

ment. He died suddenly on August 4, 1804, on his way to Scotland. [CAMPERDOWN.]

Biography by P. Haldane-Duncan, 1898.

Duncan I, KING OF SCOTLAND (*d.* 1040), son of Crinan, lay abbot of Dunkeld, succeeded his maternal grandfather Malcolm, in 1034. Defeated before the walls of Durham in the first year of his reign by Eardulf, Earl of Northumbria, Duncan next attempted to wrest Caithness from Thorfinn, Earl of Orkney, in order that he might bestow it upon his relative Moddan. In this attempt, however, the king was worsted in a naval engagement near the shores of the Pentland Firth, and in a battle at Burghead (q.v.), in Elgin. About this time, his general, Macbeth, Mormaer of Moray, went over to Thorfinn's side, and slew Duncan by treachery near Elgin, August 14, 1040. Duncan, who is called in the Sagas, Karl Hundason (hound's son), married a daughter of Siward, Earl of Northumbria. It is on the legendary accounts preserved of the incidents of this reign and the next that Shakespeare has founded his great tragedy *Macbeth*.

P. Hume Brown, "History of Scotland," 1911.

Duncan II, KING OF SCOTLAND (*s.* 1094, *d.* 1094), though some obscurity surrounds his birth, was, probably, the son of Malcolm Canmore by his first wife. When quite a boy, in 1072, Duncan was sent as a hostage to the English court after the Treaty of Abernethy. There he remained till 1094 when, with Norman aid, he succeeded in driving his uncle, Donald Bane (q.v.), from the Scottish throne. Six months afterwards, however, Donald procured his murder at the hands of Malpedir MacLean, Mormaer of Mearns. The scene of this crime was Mondynes, in Kincardineshire, and a huge monolith that is still found there is said to commemorate the event. The secret of his fate seems to lie in the fact that he was a Norman by education and character, and had perhaps agreed to hold the kingdom as a vassal of the English sovereign. He does not seem to have ever been fully recognized except in Lothian and Cumbria; for the Gaelic districts north of the Forth were at most only divided in his favour.

P. Hume Brown, "History of Scotland," 1911.

Duncannon, VISCOUNT (1781–1847). [PONSONBY, JOHN WILLIAM.]

Duncombe, SIR CHARLES (*d.* 1711), was originally "a goldsmith of very moderate wealth." He amassed a large fortune by banking, and purchased for £90,000 the estate of Helmsley, in Yorkshire. He subsequently accepted the place of cashier of the excise, from which he derived great wealth; but Montagu dismissed him from the office because he thought, with good reason, that he was not a man to be trusted. In 1697 we find him defending Sunderland in parliament. He accused Montagu of peculation, but failed to make good the charge, and was in turn accused of fraud and forgery in connexion with the exchequer bills. A bill of pains and penalties was accordingly brought in against him, after he had previously been sent to the Tower and expelled the House. The bill providing for the confiscation of the greater part of his property and its application to the public service, passed the Commons. It was felt, however, that the measure was open to censure, and that his judges had strong motives for voting against him. Urged by these and other reasons, the Lords threw out the bill, and the prisoner was released. He was, however, again arrested by order of the Commons, and kept in prison for the remainder of the session.

Dundalk is sometimes regarded as the scene of the great defeat suffered by John de Courcy at the hands of the Irish (1177); but the actual site of this battle was Downpatrick. In 1560 Dundalk was unsuccessfully besieged by the O'Neills, and in 1649 surrendered to Cromwell.

Dundalk (or FAUGHART), THE BATTLE OF (October 14, 1318), was fought during the invasion of northern Ireland by the Scots under Edward Bruce. Edward Bruce had some 3,000 men with him; and among the commanders were the de Lacys. The Anglo-Irish army was led by John Bermingham (q.v.). The victory was won at the first onset of the English forces; and the losses on the Scottish side were heavy. Bruce himself was killed, and his head was sent to Edward as a trophy. This battle put an end to the Scottish invasion.

Dundas, HENRY, 1ST VISCOUNT MELVILLE (1742–1811), was the son of Robert Dundas, who was for many years president of the Court of Session. Having adopted the bar as his profession, he made his way with wonderful rapidity to the forefront of his profession, being solicitor-general in 1773 and lord advocate two years later. In this position he threw himself eagerly into politics, abandoning the law. Attached to a ministry which, after a long period of office, was at last falling beneath a weight of obloquy, Dundas exhibited so much spirit and ability that he was at once recognized as promising to rise to the highest power. Not the smallest source of his rising reputation was the minute knowledge he displayed with regard to Indian affairs. On the fall of North's ministry, Lord Rockingham was not slow to avail himself of Dundas's services, which were employed in the office of lord advocate, an office which he combined, under Lord Shelburne, with that of treasurer of the navy. He retired, however, on the formation of the coalition (1783), but did not have long to wait before he resumed his old post under Pitt. In June 1793 he resigned the treasurership to become president of the board of control with a seat in the cabinet. With Pitt he resigned in 1801, and was raised to the peerage in the following year. In 1804 he again

followed Pitt into office, and was appointed first lord of the admiralty, where he remained until 1806, when he was impeached for misappropriation of public money during his former period of control over the navy treasury. Pitt defended his faithful follower and colleague with his utmost ability, but a strong case was brought against him, and when the numbers on division were equal, the Speaker gave his casting vote against Lord Melville. Pitt was quite broken down by the blow, and did not live long enough to see the censure reversed by the Lords in 1807, after which the name of Lord Melville, which had been erased, was restored to the privy council list. He had retired, however, to Scotland, and never again took any part in public affairs; and in retirement he died in May 1811. That Dundas had been "guilty of highly culpable laxity in transactions relating to public money," no one can doubt; but no loss had accrued to the State in consequence, and it was undeniable that he had exhibited a most praiseworthy energy in taking some steps to remedy the hopeless confusion and mismanagement which had for many years prevailed at the admiralty.

Biography by J. A. L. Fraser, 1916; G. W. T. Omond, "Lord Advocates of Scotland," vol. ii, 1888.

Dundee, in Forfarshire, was granted by William the Lion to his brother, David of Huntingdon, about 1200. It was taken from the English by Robert Bruce in 1306 and again by Edward Bruce in 1313. The English recaptured it in 1385. The town was pillaged by Protector Somerset. In 1645 it fell into the hands of Montrose, until Monck stormed it in 1651 and exterminated the garrison. John Graham of Claverhouse (q.v.) became constable of Dundee in 1684.

A. Maxwell, "Old Dundee," 1891.

Dundee, Viscount (1649?–89). [Graham, John of Claverhouse.]

Dundonald, Thomas Cochrane, 10th Earl of (1775–1860). [Cochrane.]

"Dunes, Battle of the." [Dunkirk.]

Dunfermline, in Fifeshire, was long a favourite residence of the kings of Scotland, some of whom were buried in the monastery, which was founded by Malcolm Canmore and burnt by Edward I in 1304.

Dungal, the son of Scalbach, obtained the throne of Dalriada by his father's abdication in 723. He was soon afterwards driven out by Eochaidh, the head of the Cinel Gabran, who subsequently resisted Dungal's attempt to regain the throne at Ross Foichen, though the old king, Sealbach, had himself issued from his monastery to assist his son, 727. On the death of Eochaidh, 733, he regained the kingdom of Dalriada, but a year afterwards was compelled by Angus MacFergus to take refuge for a time in Ireland. In 736 Angus invaded Dalriada, imprisoning Dungal and his brother.

Dunganhill, Battle of. The English army under Colonel Michael Jones here defeated the Irish on August 8, 1647. Six thousand of the latter fell, while the English loss was inconsiderable.

Dungannon, Hugh O'Neill, 3rd Baron of (1540?–1616). [O'Neill.]

Dungannon Convention, The (September 8, 1785), is the name given to the meeting of the representatives of 270 of the Irish volunteer companies assembled at Dungannon under Grattan's influence. These delegates passed several resolutions, the object of which was to secure parliamentary reform for Ireland by threatening to withhold supplies unless the parliament of Westminster acceded to the demands. A convention was to have met at Dublin had not the Duke of Rutland's firmness prevented it.

Dunk, George Montagu, 2nd Earl of Halifax (1716–71), succeeded to the title while still a boy. In 1761 he was appointed lord-lieutenant of Ireland, and a little later became one of Bute's secretaries of state, When the last-mentioned nobleman went out in March 1763, Lord Halifax combined with Lord Egremont and George Grenville to form the administration popularly known as the Triumvirate. It was in the joint names of Lords Halifax and Egremont that the general warrant was made out for the arrest of Wilkes. Lord Halifax has also been charged with the authorship of the most fatal measure of this unfortunate administration, viz., the Stamp Act; but though he was a warm advocate of the bill, as his office compelled him to be, there seems no evidence that he was the actual author of it. In 1765 he was a party with Lord Sandwich to the fraud which was practised on the king in order to make him agree to the omission of his mother's name from the council of regency; and the king seems to have felt more deeply injured by him than by Lord Sandwich. Nor did his conduct in this matter give satisfaction to his colleagues; and during the last few months of the Grenville administration complaints against Halifax seem to have been rife. The Grenville administration fell in 1765. When Lord North came into power (1770) Halifax was appointed secretary of state, but died the following year.

Dunkeld, in Perthshire, is chiefly remarkable as being the site where Constantine, King of the Picts from 789 to 820, founded a church, perhaps about the year 796, to which Kenneth MacAlpin transferred the relics of Columba from Iona in 851. This last event marked the date of the final decay of the ecclesiastical rule of the abbots of Iona, whose representatives, as heads of the Pictish Church, were henceforth to be the abbots of Dunkeld. In time Dunkeld Abbey fell into the hands of a lay abbot, while the bishopric of Fortrenn, which in earlier times had been filled by the abbot of Dunkeld, passed on to Abernethy. One of the most famous names in early Scottish

history is that of Crinan, lay abbot of Dunkeld, whose son Duncan, King of Scotia, was murdered by Macbeth. Duncan's grandson, David I, either restored or established the bishopric about the year 1127.

Dunkeld, The Battle of (August 21, 1689), was a victory gained by the Cameronians over the Highlanders, and followed closely after Mackay's victory at St. Johnston's. The disorders in the Highland army had increased, and Lochiel had left them in disgust. Meanwhile, the Scottish privy council, against Mackay's wish, had sent a regiment of Cameronians to garrison Dunkeld under Cleland. Cannon, at the head of 500 men, advanced against the town. The outposts of the Cameronians were speedily driven in; but the greater part of the regiment made its stand behind a wall which surrounded a house belonging to the Marquis of Atholl. After all ammunition had been spent, and when both Cleland and his successor in command, Major Henderson, had been shot dead, the Cameronians succeeded in setting fire to the houses from which the Highlanders were firing on them. Soon disorder spread among the Highland host, and it returned hastily towards Blair. "The victorious Puritans threw their caps into the air and raised, with one voice, a psalm of triumph and thanksgiving. . . . The Cameronians had good reason to be joyful and thankful, for they had finished the war."

P. Hume Brown, "History of Scotland," 1911.

Dunkirk. The port of Dunkirk was throughout the seventeenth century the headquarters of pirates and privateers who preyed on British commerce. Accordingly, when Cromwell allied himself with Louis XIV against Spain (March 1657), it was stipulated that Dunkirk and Mardyke should be besieged by a combined French and English army, and belong to England when captured. Six thousand men, first under Sir John Reynolds, afterwards under General Thomas Morgan, formed the English contingent. Mardyke was captured in September 1657, and Dunkirk besieged in the following May. On June 4 a Spanish army under Don John of Austria and the Prince of Condé, in which the Dukes of York and Gloucester were serving, attempted to raise the siege, but was defeated with great loss. The town surrendered ten days after this "Battle of the Dunes," and remained in English hands till 1662, when it and its dependencies were sold to Louis XIV for the sum of five million livres (October 27, 1662). The attacks on English trade still continuing, Dunkirk was unsuccessfully attacked by a combined Dutch and English fleet in 1692, and it was stipulated by the Treaty of Utrecht that the fortifications should be destroyed and the port blocked up (1713). This stipulation was repeated by the Treaties of Aix-la-Chapelle (1748) and Paris (1763). Nevertheless, the city and port were continually restored, and in the years 1778 to 1782 the corsairs of Dunkirk captured 1,187 British vessels. In 1793 the town was besieged by a British army under the Duke of York, with the intention of retaining it as a compensation for the expenses of the war, but the victory of Hondschoote, by which the corps posted to cover his operations was forced to retreat, obliged the duke to abandon the enterprise.

Sir J. S. Corbett, "England in the Mediterranean, 1603–1713," vol. 2, 1904.

Dunning, John, 1st Baron Ashburton (1731–83), was the son of an attorney at Ashburton, in Devonshire. After being articled to his father, he came up to London and was called to the bar in 1756. In 1762 he made a great reputation by the defence which he drew up on behalf of the East India Company against the Dutch claims. In 1765 he still further increased his fame by his eloquence in the cause of Wilkes against the legality of general warrants. In 1766 he became recorder of Bristol; was appointed two years later solicitor-general; and obtained a seat in parliament as member for Calne. In 1770 he went out of office, and throughout Lord North's long administration vigorously opposed the government policy. He warmly maintained the legality of the Middlesex election, advocated Catholic relief, seconded Sir George Savile's motion for an inquiry into government pensions, and was one of the most persistent opponents of the policy pursued towards the American colonies. In 1780 he carried the famous resolution that "the influence of the Crown has increased, is increasing, and ought to be diminished." In 1782, when the Marquis of Rockingham came into power, Dunning was appointed chancellor of the duchy of Lancaster, and raised to the peerage.

Dunnottar (Dun Fother), in Kincardineshire, a few miles south of Stonehaven, is memorable for its siege by Brude MacBile in 681. It was again besieged in 694, and in 900 was the scene of the murder of Donald VI by the Danes. In 934 Athelstan advanced as far as Dunnottar with his invading army. The castle of Dunnottar was taken by Sir William Wallace in 1298, and by Sir Andrew Moray, 1356; in 1645 it was besieged by Montrose, and taken by Cromwell's troops, 1651. The castle belonged to the family of the Keiths, earls marischal. It was at Dunnottar that the revolting imprisonment of a body of Covenanters took place in 1685. The castle was dismantled after 1715.

Dunstable, The Town of, in Bedfordshire, is known in English history as the place where the barons met in 1244, and ordered the papal envoy to leave England; and where the commissioners for the divorce of Queen Katharine sat in 1533. Dunstable was the seat of a great abbey of monks, and was made the property of the foundation in 1131.

Dunstan, St., Archbishop of Canterbury (960–88), the son of Heorstan and

Cynethryth, was born near Glastonbury. Two of his kinsmen were bishops, and others were attached to the court, while his brother as "reeve" looked after the secular interests of Glastonbury Abbey. Kings Athelstan and Edmund lived very often in that neighbourhood, and Dunstan began both his court life and monastic training at a very early age. He became guardian of the "hord" of Edmund, and was consequently rewarded with the abbacy when still very young. Glastonbury was then only a monastery in name, served by married secular clerks, though even in its degradation very famous, and largely frequented by Irish pilgrims as the shrine of St. Patrick. Dunstan reformed this state of things, in the interests of education rather than as a fanatic of asceticism. Many tales are told of this early period of Dunstan's life, which are to be received only with the utmost caution. Nearly all the details of his biography are mythical. In 946 Edred succeeded Edmund. He was very sickly, of the same age as Dunstan, and the probable companion of his youth. Dunstan, who had closely attached himself to the king's mother, Eadgifu, and other great ladies, now began his political career. His policy resulted in the brilliant successes of the Wext Saxons, under Edred, culminating in the conquest of Northumbria from the Danes and the assumption of the title of Cæsar by the English king in 955. But Dunstan still continued his activity as a teacher at Glastonbury, and refused the bishopric of Crediton. The death of Edred led to a reversion of Dunstan's policy. He had "aimed at the unity of England under the West Saxon Basileus, but giving home rule to each state." This policy was disliked by the West Saxon nobility, who regarded the vassal kingdoms as their own prey, and desired to make each state a dependency of Wessex. Their influence triumphed at the accession of Edwy, a boy of under fifteen. The ordinary details of the story of Dunstan's fall are quite incredible, but it remains a fact that the next year saw him banished. His stay at a great Benedictine abbey in Flanders first brought him in connexion with the monastic revival with which his name has been so closely associated. Meanwhile the dependent states revolted from Edwy, whose ministers, besides their reactionary policy, had set themselves too much against the monks to retain their position. The Mercians and Northumbrians revolted, and chose Edgar king; he recalled Dunstan and made him bishop, first of Worcester, and then of London as well. His retention of a chapter of secular canons at both sees shows that he was at least not zealous for the monastic cause. On the death of Edwy, Wessex also acknowledged Edgar, and Dunstan was made Archbishop of Canterbury, and for a second time his policy triumphed. The glorious reign of Edgar the Peaceful was the result of the realization of Dunstan's ideas. The hegemony of Wessex was established on a firm basis, without the degradation of the other states. In ecclesiastical affairs also the monastic question came to a head, but how far Dunstan was identified with this movement it is hard to say. As a Benedictine, he doubtless preferred monks to secular canons, but he was no fanatic to force them on a reluctant race. In his own see he did not expel the canons, but in Mercia, where the fervour of monasticism was perhaps needed to repair the Danish ravages, monks came in everywhere. But Æthelwold of Winchester, "father of monks," was the real monastic hero, although the late biographers of Dunstan connected naturally his great name with what to them was the great movement of the age. His spiritual activity, however, was rather the activity of teacher and organizer, and after all he was more of a statesman than an ecclesiastic. If the coronation of Edgar at Bath was his work, and if it was a conscious reproduction of the ceremony which made Otto I Emperor of Rome, his claim to statesmanship must be exceptionally high. With Edgar's death a new period of confusion begins. After the troubled reign of Edward, the accession of Ethelred the Unready put power again into the hands of Dunstan's enemies, and ended finally his political career. We do not know who was the ruler of England during Ethelred's minority; but it does not seem to have been Dunstan. He lived on till 988, devoting his last years to the government of his diocese and his province, and in the pursuits of literature, music, and the finer handicrafts, to which he was always addicted. In his old age, as at Glastonbury in his youth, he reverted to the same studies and objects. He was, as Stubbs says, the Gerbert, not the Hildebrand, of the tenth century. The unreal romances of later biographers that have obscured his life in a cloud of myth must be disregarded for earlier, if scantier, authorities, if we desire to find out what the real man was.

The materials for Dunstan's biography are collected by Stubbs, in his "Memorials of Dunstan," in the Rolls Series. The "Introduction" is of great importance for the details of the Saint's career. Stubbs's collection includes a life by an almost contemporary Saxon monk, which, nevertheless, has a large legendary element, and later biographies by Adalbert and by Osbern, and still later by Eadmer and William of Malmesbury, to correct Osbern's mistakes. It is from these later sources that accounts like Milman's in "Latin Christianity" are drawn, and which consequently give entirely false impressions of the subject. Hume's famous account represents the reaction against the monastic idea that inspired Osbern and Eadmer. Like that in most of the ordinary histories it is historically worthless. Robertson's "Essays on Dunstan's Policy," and the "Coronation of Edgar," in his "Historical Essays," are extremely suggestive, but their theories are not always based on definite facts. [J. Armitage-Robinson, "The Times of St. Dunstan," 1923, throws valuable new light upon the movements, secular and ecclesiastical, with which Dunstan's name is associated.] [T. F. T.]

Dupleix, Joseph (1697–1763), was appointed governor of Pondicherry for the French East India Company in 1742. Before this final promotion he had spent over twenty years in the East, where he had acquired an

enormous fortune. The outbreak of the war in 1744 gave him, as he thought, an opportunity for establishing the French ascendancy. La Bourdonnais, the French admiral, captured the town of Madras, and Dupleix, acting as governor-in-chief, and intending to destroy all the British settlements, refused to ratify the treaty which provided for the restoration of the town. But this act of perfidy was rendered useless by the Peace of Aix-la-Chapelle (1748), which stipulated for an exchange of conquests in India. On the death of the Nizam-ul-Mulk of the Deccan, and the dispute for the succession between his son, Nazir Jung, and his grandson, Mazafar Jung, Dupleix formed a confederacy with Chanda Sahib (q.v.), the pretender to the Carnatic, and Mazafar Jung to oust the British candidates, Nazir Jung and Mohammed Ali, and eventually, as he hoped, drive the British from India. The whole Carnatic was overrun by the French, and the British and their nawab were cooped up in Trichinopoly. Dupleix was equally successful in the Deccan. A conspiracy broke out at his instigation. Nazir Jung was murdered, and Mazafar Jung, assuming the vacant dignity, conferred the nawabship of the Carnatic on Chanda Sahib, and the viceroyalty of all India south of the Kistna on Dupleix. Clive's daring expedition to, and defence of, Arcot divided the forces of the allies, and the long string of successes which followed caused the complete failure of Dupleix's plans. As his success deserted him his employers became alienated. In 1754 he was recalled, to die in misery and poverty a few years afterwards in Paris.

H. Dodwell, "Dupleix and Clive," 1920.

Dupplin, The Battle of (August 12, 1332), was fought in Strathearn between Edward Baliol, the leader of the "disinherited barons" (q.v.), and the army of David II, under the Earl of Mar. Baliol, though at the head of a much smaller body of men, and in a most disadvantageous position, won a complete victory, owing to the over-confidence and inefficiency of the royalist troops.

P. Hume Brown, "History of Scotland," 1911.

Duquesne, Fort. [Fort Duquesne.]

Duras, Louis, Earl of Feversham (1640?–1709), was a French noble, nephew of Turenne, who entered the English service under Charles II and James II, and commanded the army which defeated Monmouth at Sedgemoor. Though his incapacity in that campaign was only equalled by his brutality, he was made commander-in-chief of the army that James II collected to overawe his people. In 1688 he disbanded that army, and was for a short time imprisoned by William III.

Durham is chiefly memorable in early English history as an important centre in Deira, to which the bishop and clergy from Holy Island finally transferred the relics of St. Cuthbert to escape from the ravages of the Danes towards the end of the tenth century. The town seems to have suffered at the hands of William the Conqueror, when he laid waste the north in 1070. The same king built a castle here in 1072. Some twenty years later Bishop William of St. Calais commenced to build the great cathedral (1093). In later history, on account of its position near the borders, Durham was a place of great military importance in the wars between England and Scotland. As the seat of the courts of the Palatine jurisdiction of its bishop, it was a place of much political importance. Its chapter was exceedingly wealthy; and the plan of Oliver Cromwell, to establish a university out of the capitular revenues, was revived and carried out in 1833.

G. T. Lapsley, "County Palatine of Durham," 1900.

Durham, County Palatine of. [Bishopric, The; Counties Palatine.]

Durham, 1st Earl of (1792–1840). [Lambton, John George.]

Durotriges, The, were an ancient British tribe, occupying roughly the area of the present county of Dorset. Rhŷs considered them to have been, like the Dumnonii of Cornwall and Devon, in the main Goidels—that is, members of the earlier Celtic invasion, and therefore more likely to be to a considerable extent infused with the blood of the pre-Celtic races—rather than Brythons; but such evidence as exists on the point is inconclusive.

Durward, Alan, Earl of Atholl (*d.* 1268), was justiciar of Scotland in the middle of the thirteenth century, and married to an illegitimate daughter of Alexander II. He served with great credit in the French wars under Henry III, who afterwards supported his cause in Scotland. The Durward family was opposed to the influence of the great Norman family of the Comyns, and succeeded in wresting the young king, Alexander III, from his subjection to their rivals. This was accomplished by the seizure of Edinburgh Castle, after which the aspect of affairs in Scotland looked so serious that Henry III was obliged to come northwards and personally adjust the government (1255). He set up a council of regency consisting of Durward and his faction. But the party of the Comyns soon gained ground. In 1257 they once more secured possession of the young king, and Alan Durward was forced to flee to England, where he seems to have been always in favour with Henry III. The Comyns, however, lost their great leader, the Earl of Menteith, and in 1259 a compromise was effected whereby four members of the English party were readmitted to the council of regency. In 1261 Alexander attained his majority, and thenceforward he was personally responsible for the conduct of affairs. At the close of the thirteenth century Nicholas de Soulis, one of Alan Dur-

ward's descendants through his wife Maryoz, claimed the succession to the throne of Scotland, a claim which, to some extent, explains the charge brought against Alan, in his lifetime, of intriguing with the pope for the legitimization of his wife, so as to make her next heir to the throne.

P. Hume Brown, "History of Scotland," 1911.

Dutch Wars, The. [Holland, Relations with.]

Dynham, John, Lord (*d.* 1509), lieutenant of Calais, was a Yorkist leader who, in 1459, sallied forth from Calais, and, proceeding across to Sandwich, captured two of the Lancastrian nobles, Lord Rivers and Lord Scales, whom he led back with him to Calais. He was also engaged in the battle of Towton, and for his services received large grants of land from Edward IV.

R. B. Mowat, "Wars of the Roses," 1914.

E

Ealdgyth [Aldgyth], wife of Harold Godwinson, was the widow of Gruffyd, King of North Wales, daughter of Earl Elfgar of Mercia, and sister of Edwin and Morkere. The date of her second marriage is doubtful, but its motive, viz., to secure the friendship of her powerful brothers, is sufficiently plain. [Harold II, King.]

Ealdorman. [Alderman.]

Eanfrith, King of Bernicia (633–4), was the son of Ethelfrith. After his father's death he fled to Scotland, where he was converted to Christianity. On the death of Edwin he returned to Northumbria, and obtained his father's kingdom. But, like Osric, he relapsed into paganism, and, like him, was slain by Cadwallon of Wales.

Earl is a word which in the early Anglo-Saxon period has simply the sense of "noble." It was thus used in the laws of Ethelbert (c. 600): "If any man slay a man in an *eorl's* town, let him make compensation for twelve shillings." Its use was, however, restricted until the time of the Danish invasions; in the days of Ethelred the title began to supplant that of the official ealdorman, owing probably to its similarity in sound to the Danish *jarl*, with which it became identified. This change was completed by Canute, who gave the earl a permanent status among the servitial nobility. The theory that he divided the kingdom into four great viceregal earldoms which continued down to the Norman Conquest is not borne out by the evidence of contemporary charters, which are witnessed by a much larger number of persons designated by the name of *eorl* or *dux*; but it is clear that already in the eleventh century it was usual for an earldom to embrace several shires. Under the Norman kings the title of earl became easily amalgamated with the French title of count, both having *comes* as their Latin equivalent. The nature of the office changed; it ceased to be a magistracy and became an hereditary fief. The earls of the reign of William I, who, even before the conspiracy of 1075, bestowed the title sparingly, were men who already held the title of count in Normandy, or were merely the successors of the English officials of the same name. Exceptions to this rule were the great palatine earldoms created by William, probably as part of the national system of defence. Such were the earldoms of Chester and Shrewsbury on the Welsh marches; the bishopric of Durham on the Scottish border; and the earldom of Kent. These earls were virtually independent princes, possessed of regalian rights, holding their own councils, appointing the sheriffs, and receiving the profits of the courts. It should be observed that they were all created before the great conspiracy of 1075. The sons of the Conqueror were also cautious in creating earldoms, and it has been estimated that at the end of the reign of Henry I there were not more than eight in existence. Stephen and Matilda, however, in order to gain adherents, created between them no fewer than fifteen, all of which were perpetuated by Henry II. In accordance with post-Conquest customs these new creations took their titles whenever possible from the counties in which lay the earl's chief territorial strength. The dignity of earl was hereditary, and was conferred by special investiture, the sword of the county being girt on by the king; and by this ceremony the rank was bestowed until the seventeenth century. As the successor of the ealdorman, the earl also received, in most if not in all cases, the "third penny" of the county (i.e., a third of the profits from the county pleas). His relief was higher than that of a baron. Gradually the dignity of earl ceased to imply a territorial jurisdiction, and became merely honorary. The precise date at which the change was effected is a matter of dispute, but historians are agreed that the official earldoms did not long survive the opening of the thirteenth century even if they lingered till then. Earls could be created by charter, or by letters patent, or later by act of parliament—a custom introduced by Edward III. The title continued to be taken from a county or county town (with the exception of the earldoms of Arundel and March) long after all local authority had disappeared. Later it became the custom for commoners and barons created earls to keep their own names instead of adopting local titles. An earl takes precedence after a marquis, and before a viscount or baron. [Alderman; Counties Palatine.]

H. M. Chadwick, "Studies on Anglo-Saxon Institutions," 1905; J. H. Round, "Geoffrey de Mandeville," 1892; "The Complete Peerage" (new edn.), iv, Appendix H; Selden, "Titles of Honour."

Earthquake, Council of the (May 1382), was the name given to the synod at Blackfriars which condemned the tenets of

Wyclif and his followers. [WYCLIF.] It was so called from a shock of earthquake which was felt on the third day of its sitting, and which did much damage in and around London.

East Africa, THE BRITISH DOMINIONS IN, consist of Kenya Colony and Protectorate, British Somaliland and Sokotra, Tanganyika Territory, Uganda Protectorate, and Zanzibar Protectorate. Nyassaland Protectorate and Northern and Southern Rhodesia are closely connected with the former possessions and may be treated as potential parts of British East Africa. They all have separate histories and problems, but there is at present a movement towards some sort of political confederation, the outcome of which is uncertain. Politically it consists of a north block (Kenya, Uganda, Tanganyika, and Zanzibar) and a south block (Nyassaland and Northern Rhodesia), each with problems of its own. Southern Rhodesia is of a different nature, older and more firmly established, a colony that has refused to join the Union of South Africa and yet has little incentive to join a similar union of East Africa should ever such a consummation be achieved. British connexion with East Africa dates roughly from 1839 when a commercial treaty was made. In 1841 a British consul was sent to Zanzibar and an anti-slave campaign followed. In 1862 England and France recognized Zanzibar's independence, but a British protectorate was established in 1890. In 1886 an Anglo-German agreement was arrived at, and a second in 1890. The Imperial British East Africa Company received its charter in 1888, and was bought out by the government in 1895, when the East Africa Protectorate and Uganda were taken under British protection. Somaliland came under British protection in 1887, the year after Sokotra. Tanganyika was a war conquest (1916–18).

ZANZIBAR, the centre of East African trade, became an independent dominion in 1856 when Said, Sultan of Muscat, drove out the Portuguese and suppressed piracy. Commercial treaties with U.S.A. (1833), France (1844), and Great Britain (1839) had been followed by the establishment of consulates on the island. The first British consul came into residence in 1841, but Zanzibar was an independent sultanate from 1861, when by Canning's award it was separated from Muscat, until 1890, when it became a British protectorate administered by the foreign office. In 1862 France and Great Britain had guaranteed its independence. Both, France in 1873 and Great Britain in 1877, had refused to assume a protectorate over Zanzibar when offered, but German commercial rivalry on the mainland, the disorderliness of Zanzibar, and the establishment of the British East Africa Company (1888) led to the establishment of the British protectorate in 1890. This was part of a general agreement between Great Britain and Germany defining their respective spheres of influence in East, West, and South-West Africa. Germany recognized the British protectorate over Zanzibar and withdrew her claims and settlements, in exchange for Heligoland. Great Britain recognized the French protection over Madagascar and French influence in Central Sahara, while France recognized the British protectorate over Zanzibar and Pemba. The bombardment of Zanzibar (1896) was followed by the abolition of the slave trade there, although the legal status of slavery was not abolished until 1907. From 1890 to 1906 a British resident was maintained at Zanzibar, but in 1906 British control was made definite and a council created. In 1913 Zanzibar was transferred to the colonial office. It had been a free port from 1892 to 1899.

BRITISH SOMALILAND. The capture of Aden in 1839 by the Bombay government led to the development of trade on the Somaliland coast. From 1877 Great Britain recognized the nominal jurisdiction of Egypt in Somaliland, but actually exercised control herself and declared a British protectorate in 1884. This was the result of a division of the coast between Great Britain, France, and Italy, the interior remaining subject to Abyssinia. The protectorate was notified in 1887, and the boundaries with France adjusted in 1888, with Italy in 1894, and with Abyssinia in 1897. The Italian protectorate dates from 1889. Fighting with the Mullah in four successive years (1901–4) resulted in Great Britain withdrawing to the coast, and in 1905 the protectorates were transferred from the foreign to the colonial office. In 1915 the Dervishes were driven out, and defeated in 1920.

SOKOTRA, now in effect a dependency of Aden, over which a protectorate was established in 1886 because of the activity of pirates, is governed by the sheikh, who is pledged not to cede the island to any foreign power. A British Trade Preferential Treaty has existed since 1876.

KENYA COLONY AND PROTECTORATE, originally known as the East Africa Protectorate, consists of the coast and a vast hinterland, defined by the boundary treaties of 1891 (with Italy), 1908 (Abyssinia), and 1925, together with the Witu Protectorate now administered as part of Tanaland. The Imperial British East Africa Company was incorporated in 1888, the protectorate assumed in 1890, and the country administered by the company from 1891 to 1893 as Ibea. Kenya Protectorate consists of the mainland dominions of the Sultan of Zanzibar, ceded, in return for £10,000 a year, to the company, from whom it was transferred to the Crown in 1895 and put under the control of a commissioner and commander. In 1905 it was transferred from the foreign to the colonial office and a governor and council appointed in 1906. The same year executive and legislative councils were introduced. In 1924 Jubaland was ceded to Italy, and in 1920 the territories outside the mainland dominions

of the Sultan of Zanzibar were annexed and recognized as a colony. The protectorate constitution from 1920 has been the governor and executive council of the colony, together with a legislative council to which Indian and Arab members were added in 1924. Native councils were added in 1924. The constitution of the colony, 1920, and altered in 1925, consists of a governor, an executive council of 7 official and 4 nominated unofficial members, and a legislative council of 11 officials (the council), 9 other nominated officials, 11 elected Europeans, 5 elected Indians, 1 Arab, and one unofficial member nominated to represent the Africans. The white settlers, many of them ex-war settlers, wish to impose a hut-tax in order to make the natives work, and desire full self-government. This last is not favoured by the colonial office, but has been virtually promised by the colonial secretary.

Uganda Protectorate. The native kingdom of Uganda was taken under British protection in 1894. From 1890 part had been administered by the Imperial British East Africa Company until it was taken over by the foreign office (1905), only to be transferred almost immediately to the colonial office. It is divided into 5 administrative provinces, where the natives are given some measure of self-government, though all is directly administered, except Rudolph Province. The Province of Buganda is a native kingdom with three native ministers and a native council. The governor of the protectorate is assisted by a nominated executive council (since 1920) of 4 official and 2 unofficial members and a legislative council consisting of the former with the addition of 2 more unofficial members.

Tanganyika Territory is administered by Great Britain under a League of Nations mandate (1922). Originally the colony of German East Africa, a protectorate (1885) by Germany had been recognized by Great Britain in 1886. The coastline territory of the Sultan of Zanzibar was acquired in 1890. In 1889 and 1905 native risings had been suppressed. It was captured (1916–18) and a British administration appointed in 1919. A governor and an executive council of 6 officials were appointed in 1920, and the districts administered by Belgium taken over in 1921. In 1922 slavery was abolished, a mild form of serfdom having existed from 1905, when a German enactment provided for the gradual abolition of slavery. In 1926 a legislative council of 13 official and up to 10 unofficial members was added. The mandate lays down stringent conditions as to native labour and land.

C. Carlyle-Gall, "East African Manual," 1927; H. Johnston, "Opening up of Africa," 1911, and "History of the Colonization of Africa by Alien Races," 1913; F. J. D. Lugard, "Story of the Uganda Protectorate," 1901, and "Rise of our East African Empire," 2 vols., 1893; W. G. Prothero (ed.), "Peace Handbooks" (Foreign Office), vol. xvi; "Nyassaland" (No. 95); "Kenya, Uganda and Zanzibar" (No. 96); "British Somaliland and Socotra" (No. 97), 1921; C. P. Lucas, "Partition and Colonization of Africa," 1922; P. L. McDermott, "British East Africa," 1895; J. W. Gregory, "The Foundation of B. E. A.," 1901; C. N. Eliot, "The East African Protectorate," 1905; H. F. Ward and J. W. Milligan, "The Handbook of B. E. A.," 1912; R. E. Drake-Brockman, "British Somaliland," 1912; R. F. Burton, "Zanzibar," 1872; J. E. E. Craste, "Pemba," 1913; F. B. Pearce, "Zanzibar, Past and Present," 1920; H. Johnston, "Uganda Protectorate," 1902; J. Roscoe, "Twenty-five Years in East Africa," 1921; H. R. Wallis, "Uganda," 1921; R. H. Crofter, "Statistics of the Zanzibar Protectorate, 1893–1920," 1921; D. J. Jardine, "The Mad Mullah of Somaliland," 1923. [H. R.]

East Anglia. There is no account left us of the settlement of the Angles on the eastern shires of central England, nor have we even any such entry as that of the "Anglo-Saxon Chronicle," which for the more northern Anglian district relates that Ida assumed the kingdom of Northumbria in the year 547. Nothing of the details of the conquest is known to us now, and we can only dimly infer a two-fold settlement, which has perpetuated itself down to our own days in the two counties of the North Folk and the South Folk (Norfolk and Suffolk). If the evidence of later genealogies be accepted, we must conclude that the East Anglian settlements coalesced into a state during the first half of the sixth century. The first historical king of the East Angles is Redwald, the protector of Edwin of Deira (q.v.), and the fourth of the "Bretwaldas," who reigned from about 593 to 617. This Redwald was, according to Bæda's account, the grandson of one Wuffa, from whom the East Anglian kings took their gentile name of Wuffings. In his days East Anglia was to some extent dependent on the kingdom of Kent, and Redwald seems to have become half Christian under the pressure of his overlord. But the new creed was not as yet thoroughly acceptable to the mass of the people. Redwald's son and successor, Eorpwald, was slain by one of his own subjects in 627 or 628, the year of his conversion, and for several years the land reverted to paganism. But at last Eorpwald's cousin, Sigebert the Learned, who had received the new faith during his exile among the Franks, returned to rule the kingdom. Under his protection Felix the Burgundian began the work of reconversion or conversion at Dunwich. Two years later Fursey, an Irish monk, came over to East Anglia, and before long Sigebert himself resigned his throne, and retired into a monastery (634). Next year, however, he was dragged forth from his retreat by his people, who were now yielding before the growth of Mercia, and perished in the battle against Penda. Anna, the nephew of Redwald, succeeded, and is noted chiefly for the sanctity of his four daughters, who all eventually embraced a religious life. It was at his court that Cenwealh of Wessex took refuge when driven out of his own country by Penda, and it was while resident in the East Anglian realm that he became a Christian. For the hospitable shelter afforded to Cenwealh, Anna incurred the resentment of Penda, who now fell on the East

Anglians and utterly destroyed Anna and his host (645). East Anglia seems now to have been dependent on Mercia to some extent, and Penda appears to have used Anna's brother Æthelhere as a tool against Northumberland. But with the battle of the Winwaed, the sceptre of Britain passed to Oswy of Northumbria, and doubtless the East Angles from this time, though retaining their own king, became dependent on the great kingdom of the north. But Mercia was not long in reviving, and it may well be that by the time of Oswy's death the power of Northumbria was only nominal in East Anglia. During the reign of Wulfhere (659–75) the East Angles seem to have been practically under the rule of Mercia. Towards the beginning of the reign of Ealdwulf, king of the East Angles, the new diocese of Elmham was founded for the Northfolk. The seat of this see was removed to Thetford about the year 1078, and to Norwich in 1101, having towards the end of the ninth century incorporated Dunwich, the diocese of the Southfolk [Bishopric.] From this time we may regard East Anglia as being an appendage of Mercia, till on the fall of that kingdom it was attached to Wessex. In accordance with this view, we find Ethelbald of Mercia leading the East Angles to fight against the West Saxons at the battle of Burford (752). On Ethelbald's defeat, East Anglia seems for a time to have thrown off the Mercian yoke; but before the close of his reign it must again have been subject, though still retaining its own kings. East Anglia and Mercia were the two kingdoms whose frontiers marked the boundaries of Offa's short-lived archbishopric of Lichfield. But by this time the days of Mercia's greatness were almost numbered, and it had already laid up a deep store of hatred in the subject kingdom of East Anglia. For in 793 Offa had caused Ethelbert, the king of the East Angles, to be put to death, and had thereupon seized his kingdom. Hence it is no wonder that when Ecgbert of Wessex had defeated Beornwulf of Mercia at the battle of Ellandune (825), the king of the East Angles should request the victorious West Saxon sovereign to help them to throw off the Mercian yoke, and, encouraged by his promise, defeat his tyrannical overlord and his successor in two battles. East Anglia seems to have still clung to its old kings under the West Saxon overlordship till the days of the Danish invasion, when its last native king, Edmund, was murdered by the Danes (870). The land was then taken possession of by the invaders, and by the Treaty of Chippenham became the seat of a Danish kingdom under Guthrum (878). [Danelagh.] Later on, notwithstanding the treaty, the Danes of East Anglia aided Hastings in his attacks upon England. Alfred's son and successor, however, succeeded in forcing the Danes of East Anglia to acknowledge him after a long struggle, which lasted nearly all his reign. From this time their existence as a separate kingdom ceased, but they seem still to have retained their own witan, which in 1004 bought peace of Sweyn. When the kingdom was divided between Canute and Edmund Ironside in 1016, East Anglia fell to Edmund's share; on Canute's death it declared, with the rest of the country north of the Thames, for Harold Harefoot. Under Canute, East Anglia had been one of the earldoms into which the kingdom was divided, and it continued an earldom under Edward the Confessor. Harold seems to have been appointed to this office about the year 1045. With the Conquest the separate existence of East Anglia comes to an end. [Angles; Anglo-Saxon Kingdoms.]

Kings of East Anglia.

Wuffa	?
Tytillus	?
Redwald	593–617
Eorpwald	617–628
Sigebert	631–634
Egric	634–635
Anna	635–654
Ethelhere	654–655
Ethelwold	655–664
Ealdwulf	664–713
Alfwold	713–749
Beorna	749– ?
Ethelbert	–793
[Kings of Mercia]	793–823
Edwald	823–829 ?
Athelstan, son of Ecgbert	829–839 ?
Ethelweard	839–852 ?
Bertric	852–856 ?
St. Edmund	856–870

Sir C. Oman, "England Before the Norman Conquest." [T. A. A.]

East India Company. [India.]

East Retford Question (1828). The borough of East Retford had been convicted of corruption, and the question of the manner in which its franchise should be disposed of was brought before the House of Commons. On the one hand, it was proposed that it should be given to the town of Birmingham; on the other, that it should be transferred to the hundred in which East Retford is situated. The Duke of Wellington and the majority of the cabinet supported the latter alternative; Huskisson (colonial secretary) supported the former. The divergence involved the resignation of Huskisson and his fellow Canningites in May, and left the cabinet more united under Wellington and Peel. [Huskisson.]

Spencer Walpole, "History of England from 1815," 1879.

Eastern Association, The. [Associated Counties.]

Ebbsfleet, in the Isle of Thanet, has been identified with the Heopwines-fleet or Wippedesfleote, where, according to the story told in the "Anglo-Saxon Chronicle," Hengest and Horsa (q.v.) landed (in 449 or 450), and near which Hengest and Aesc are said some years later to have totally defeated the Britons. It has been conjectured that Ebbsfleet was also the landing-place of St. Augustine in 597.

Ecclesiastical Commission Court, The, was established by James II in 1686, with powers similar to those of the Court of High Commission (which had been abolished in 1641). It enforced the king's orders against controversial sermons, deprived the master of Magdalene College, Cambridge, for refusing to give a degree to a Benedictine monk, and expelled the fellows of Magdalen College, Oxford, for refusing to elect a royal nominee (Anthony Farmer) as president. James dissolved the commission in October 1688. [High Commission, The Court of.]

Ecclesiastical Commissioners, The. In 1835 a commission was appointed "to consider the state of the several dioceses in England and Wales with reference to the amount of their revenues, and the more equal distribution of episcopal duties; to consider also the state of cathedral and collegiate churches with a view to the suggestion of such measures as may render them more conducive to the efficiency of the Established Church; and to devise the best means of providing for the cure of souls, with special reference to the residence of the clergy on their respective benefices." This commission recommended a further distribution of episcopal duties and revenues, and the establishment of a fund to provide for worship in poor districts by the appropriation of part of the revenues of cathedral and collegiate churches, and of the surplus revenues of certain bishoprics. For this latter purpose a commission was created by an act of 1836 with all the powers of a perpetual corporation. In 1850 Queen Victoria was empowered to nominate two "Church Estates Commissioners" (one paid), and the archbishop one (paid). These were to be members of the Ecclesiastical Commission, and to form with two other members the "Church Estates Committee," which was to manage all the property of the commission. They were empowered to secure fixed incomes to bishops, and to manage episcopal estates; to make grants to, or increase the endowments of, poor livings; and to arrange for the creation of new parishes, etc. In 1856 they became also the Church Building Commissioners (first created in 1818).

"Annual Reports of the Ecclesiastical Commissioners"; Phillimore, "Ecclesiastical Law," 1895 edn.

[W. J. A.]

Ecclesiastical Jurisdiction. In England the canon law has a separate history from that which prevailed on the continent. There the influence of the Theodosian Code secured it a uniform procedure and a ready acceptance. Here it was modified by, and in constant antagonism to, the common law. Before the Conquest the law of the Church in England consisted of rules of penance, canons, religious laws, and the course of episcopal jurisdiction. Rules of penance, appropriating to every sin the amount of satisfaction to be paid by the sinner, are laid down in the penitentials of Archbishop Theodore, Bæda, and others. These were binding only in so far as conscience enforced them. Some canons from abroad were adopted, and others were made by provincial councils. Royal laws on religious matters—e.g., the laws of Alfred—are not properly part of ecclesiastical law. They had their binding force as part of the law of the land. Besides these written laws, the bishop or his archdeacon, sitting in the shire or hundred court, declared the law on ecclesiastical matters; for to the bishop pertained the duty of watching over sacred persons and things, and deciding matrimonial cases. As the ealdorman pronounced the secular law in matters which were secular, so in ecclesiastical cases the bishop pronounced the law which was proper to them. The ordinance of the Conqueror, separating the spiritual and temporal courts, provided that the bishop should judge ecclesiastical causes in his own court, and according to the canons and episcopal laws, which were to take the place of the unwritten law which decided these matters. With this ordinance must be connected the appointment of men like Lanfranc, who were skilled in the law of the continent, to the English episcopate. Dioceses now were broken up into different territorial archdeaconries for the purposes of jurisdiction. During the reign of Stephen the bishops were upheld by papal interference, and the middle of the twelfth century saw a great epoch in the history of canonical jurisprudence. In 1149 Archbishop Theobald brought over Vacarius from Lombardy to teach the civil law in Oxford. Vacarius was sent out of the kingdom by Stephen, but the study which had lately been revived abroad drew many from England to pursue it on the continent. About this time Gratian, a native of Tuscany, put forth his "Decretum," which was an embodiment of canon law as it then stood. As the mode of procedure and many principles in canonical jurisprudence were supplied by the civil law, the two systems were held to be closely joined. They were looked upon with dislike by the common-lawyers and the Crown. Ecclesiastical courts were continually trying to extend their jurisdiction. They harassed the people, and encroached on the province of the royal courts. Henry II curtailed their jurisdiction by taking away from them cases of advowson, etc., and by the Constitutions of Clarendon. [Becket; Henry II.] Their encroachments were checked by prohibitions issued by the royal courts. As the Decretum received new additions from successive popes, so the English canon law was enlarged by the addition of constitutions, legatine and provincial. Legatine constitutions began from the legations of Otho and Ottobon, in the reign of Henry III, which may therefore be reckoned as the period at which the received text of the English canon law began to be formed. Successive archbishops, from Langton to Chichele, framed provincial

constitutions. Ecclesiastical jurisprudence was so closely connected with papal and foreign influence that it met with little favour from Englishmen in the reign of Henry III. Complaint was made by the clergy of the use of prohibitions. In 1236 the barons at the Council of Merton refused to admit canonical or civilian principles into the laws of England; and the king closed the law schools in London where the canon and civil laws were taught. Archbishop Peckham (q.v.), a notable canonist, engaged in a vain struggle against Edward I. He drew on his cause the defeat inflicted by the writ *Circumspecte agatis*, founded on 13 Ed. I, which defines the province of ecclesiastical jurisdiction. It was limited to cases merely spiritual (e.g., heresy), to those of deadly sin (e.g., fornication), of tithes and offerings, and of assaults done on clerks and defamation where no damages were claimed. It extended to all matrimonial causes, and by customary law to those of a testamentary nature. In cases in which the condemned party neglected to give heed to the ecclesiastical censure, it was enforced by the civil power. For the bishop sent his *significavit* to the sheriff, who thereupon issued a writ *De excommunicato capiendo*, by which the offender was imprisoned until he made satisfaction. The ecclesiastical authorities seem, by the *Articuli Cleri* drawn up in the reign of Edward II, to have been dissatisfied with this process, and received answer that the writ had never been refused. The canonists held that this writ was a right, and Archbishop Boniface in the reign of Henry III declared that its refusal might be answered by an interdict. Chief Justice Coke, however, the violent opponent of canonical pretension, declared in the reign of James I that it was a matter of favour. The statute *De Hæretico Comburendo* was carried out by the ecclesiastical and civil authorities acting together. The Statute of Provisors, 25 Ed. III, c. 4, by restraining the pope's interference with patronage, and of Præmunire, 16 Ric. II, c. 5, by checking appeals to Rome, lessened the power of the ecclesiastical law. In the reign of Henry V, Lyndwood, the Dean of Arches, compiled his "Provinciale," which is a code of English canon law. The study of canonical and civil jurisprudence was largely pursued at Oxford and Cambridge, and a degree of doctor of both laws was granted. A body of skilled judges and practitioners versed in the science of law existed side by side with those of the common-law courts.

Early in the reign of Henry VIII it was evident that that monarch disliked the canonical jurisdiction. His breach with the pope, consequent on the avocation of his divorce case, was made the occasion for his attack on the study and practice of canon law. Having caused the clergy to own him as supreme head, "so far as is allowed by the law of Christ," he procured the great petition of the Commons against the practice of the canon law in 1532. On this, by 23 Hen. VIII, c. 9, the appellate jurisdiction of the archbishop was weakened, and by 25 Hen. VIII, c. 19, the power of legislation was taken away from convocation, and the canon law was declared to be in force, subject to a total revision by a royal commission. As this revision has never been made, the canon law up to that date, in so far as any part of it has not been abolished by national legislation, seems to rest on that statute. Such provisions only of foreign canon law, however, have force as have been received in England, nor can any law bind the laity which has not received the assent of parliament. Henry next proceeded to destroy the study of canonical jurisprudence. He issued a mandate forbidding lectures and degrees in canon law. From that time the legal doctorate in Oxford has only been in civil law, expressed by the letters D.C.L., while Cambridge still keeps up the form of the doctorate of the two laws by the LL.D. degree. A new court of appeal in ecclesiastical cases, composed of divines and civilians, was formed in this reign, and called the *Court of Delegates*. This court was superseded in 1831, and by 3 and 4 Will. IV, c. 41, it was enacted that its jurisdiction should be transferred to the *Judicial Committee of the Privy Council*, an arrangement which has been again altered by the Supreme Court of Judicature Act, 1873. The legislation of Edward VI was destructive of all ecclesiastical jurisdiction. During his reign an abortive attempt was made by Peter Martyr, in his "Reformatio Legum," to accomplish the revision promised in 1534. Elizabeth, while making as little declaration of power as possible, fully kept up the royal supremacy in action. She exercised this supremacy by the *Court of High Commission*, founded in virtue of 1 Eliz., c. 1. This unconstitutional court became an engine of tyranny, in which it was aided in no small degree by the ecclesiastical practice of the *ex-officio* oath. The court was abolished by 16 Car. I, c. 11, which set forth that it had illegally inflicted fines and imprisonments. The *ex-officio* oath was abolished by 15 Car. II, c. 12. The canons of 1604, though approved by James I, were not accepted by parliament, and are therefore only binding on the clergy. This was declared by Coke, who made on all occasions decided resistance to ecclesiastical encroachment. Unfortunately this resistance was combined with an undue exaltation of the royal prerogative in ecclesiastical matters, and tended rather to the subservience of the clergy than to public liberty. That some resistance to clerical pretensions was needed is shown by the *Articuli Cleri* of Archbishop Bancroft. In these articles remonstrance was made against the issue of prohibitions by the courts of common law, and against their interpreting statutes concerning religion. Coke declared these articles to be "monstrous." A lamentable co-operation between the civil and ecclesiastical jurisdictions

resulted in the execution by burning of two men for heresy in this reign, under the old statute *De Hæretico Comburendo*. This statute was repealed by 29 Car. II, c. 29. The gradual advance towards toleration weakened the power of the Church to punish offenders against her laws, though, until the end of the eighteenth century, fine or imprisonment and civil disabilities still sometimes followed her censures. At length the power of coercive correction was taken away by 53 Geo. III, c. 127.

The ecclesiastical courts are—(1) The *Court of the Archdeacon*, of which his official is judge, and which takes cognizance of matters affecting the Church and clergy within a distinct district. Archidiaconal courts have, however, now fallen into virtual abeyance, owing partly to the decline of ecclesiastical jurisdictions in general, and partly to the competition of the consistory courts. (2) The *Consistory Court* of the bishop or archbishop, of which the chancellor is judge, for the trial of ecclesiastical causes. The title of chancellor seems to cover the two offices of the official, who is concerned for the most part in what may be considered temporal business, and of the vicar-general, whose province is in more purely spiritual matters. (3) The *Archbishop's Commissary Court*, which is held for the archiepiscopal diocese. (4) The *Court of Audience*, in which formal business is transacted, and in which it appears, from the case of the Bishop of St. Davids, 1696, that bishops may be visited and corrected. (5) The *Court of Faculties*, which, by 25 Hen. VIII, c. 21, has power to grant certain dispensations which before pertained to the papal court. This court is now chiefly concerned in the grant of marriage licences. (6) The *Prerogative Court* lost its jurisdiction when the *Court of Probate and Divorce* was instituted, 20 and 21 Vict., c. 77, c. 85. (7) The *Vicar-General's Court* for the confirmation of bishops; and (8) The *Court of Arches* (for which see Archbishops). By the Supreme Court of Judicature Act, 1873, provision was made for the transfer of ecclesiastical appeals from the Judicial Committee by order-in-council. This portion of the act, however, was repealed by 39 and 40 Vict., c. 59, which preserves the appellate jurisdiction of the judicial committee in these cases, and provides for the appointment of additional lords of appeal in ordinary, and for the attendance of ecclesiastical assessors. These provisions were carried out by the Rules of November 28, 1876. (See Chitty's "Digest," 1880.) A royal commission to inquire into the whole subject of Ecclesiastical Courts and their jurisdiction drew up an exhaustive report in 1883.

Stubbs, "Two Public Statutory Lectures on the History of the Canon Law in England." See also Gibson, "Codex"; Phillimore, "Ecclesiastical Law"; Halsbury, "Laws of England"; and especially the Introduction to the "Report of the Royal Commission on Ecclesiastical Courts," 1883, which is a most valuable digest of the whole history of the subject. [W. H.]

Ecclesiastical Taxation. (1) Royal.—Before the Conquest, the differentiation of clergy from laity had not proceeded far enough to necessitate separate ecclesiastical taxation. The clergy paid their share of the dues customary from citizens, and if they were in any way distinguished from the laity, it was on account of their participating, on the analogy of the Empire, in certain immunities which, so early as the Codes of Theodosius and Justinian, were permitted to the clergy. But the great papal and sacerdotal movement of the eleventh century resulted in the formation of a clerical caste, whose claim for absolute immunity from State burdens was based on right divine. Yet, as citizens, the clergy still paid taxes like other men. Besides their necessary share in indirect taxation, the "temporalities of the Church," their lands, were chargeable with the ordinary feudal services. Much of the land held by clergymen was held by ordinary lay tenure, with incidents precisely similar. Even the peculiar clerical tenure of frankalmoign did not exempt the tenants in free alms from heavy burdens. The spiritualities of the Church, however, its tithes and offerings, were now secure from taxation. But the growth of the royal power and royal needs made these spiritualities an ever-tempting bait. Gradually attempts were made to tax them, with results which, though successful for the Crown, led to the growth of the constitutional action of the clergy, the development of the ecclesiastical estate, and the establishment of convocation. The Saladin Tithe (q.v.) of 1188 began the new epoch by at once taxing the movables of the laity and the spirituals of the clergy. Its religious purpose excused an innovation, which at once became a precedent for more directly secular taxation. The ransom of Richard I took even the chalices of the churches. John's attacks on the wool of the Cistercians led the way to his formal demand in 1207 for a grant from the beneficed clergy for the recovery of Normandy. It was refused, and a similar request from Innocent III was forbidden by the king. But with the alliance of pope and king, a joint pressure was put on the clergy which they could not long withstand. By the reign of Henry III taxation of spirituals was a regular thing, and the clergy could only obtain that, like the laity, they should assemble by their representatives, and grant the tax themselves, instead of its being arbitrarily imposed on them by the king. The establishment of convocation (q.v.) is one result of this process. Under Edward I the clergy were represented in parliament, where their proctors generally were compelled to make much larger grants than the laity. At last Edward I's demand of half their reveunes led to their taking refuge in Boniface VIII's bull, *Clericis laicos* (q.v.), which forbade clerical taxation by the Crown. Edward's answer was to outlaw the whole clergy, an act which soon led to a

compromise. It is unnecessary to trace further the growth of clerical taxation, except to notice that the clergy objected to returning representatives of their estate to parliament, and preferred to tax themselves separately in their clerical synod to sharing in the burdens and deliberations of the nation. The importance attached to accurate assessment of spiritual incomes is seen in the minuteness of the "Valor Ecclesiasticus" of Henry VIII. This custom of separate clerical taxation continued over the Reformation, until 1664, when an agreement between Archbishop Sheldon and Clarendon resulted in the clergy's abandoning this right and reverting to the custom of Edward I by being included in the money bills prepared by the House of Commons. In 13 Car. II the clergy gave their last separate subsidy. They received in compensation the right of voting at parliamentary elections, but it was too late for them to return, as of old, special clerical proctors to the House of Commons. [CONVOCATION.]

(2) PAPAL.—Besides these special royal exactions, the clergy were also liable to heavy taxation at the hands of the pope. This was of comparatively late origin, for Peter's Pence (q.v.) was not an exclusively clerical tax. It reached its highest point under Henry III, when to ecclesiastical the popes added temporal supremacy through John's submission, and diminished after the nationalist movement of the fourteenth century affected even the Church, but was a subject of continual complaint up to the Reformation. The Crown handed over the clergy to the papacy in return for papal permission of royal exactions more often than it protected them against the alien oppressor. [PAPACY, RELATIONS WITH.]

Stubbs, "Constitutional History," ii, 186, and ii, 583–4; Sir James Ramsay, "Revenues of the Kings of England," 1925. [T. F. T.]

Ecclesiastical Titles Act, THE (1851), was passed in response to a great popular outcry in England against the pope. In 1850 much commotion was caused by a papal bull appointing a Roman Catholic archbishop and bishops with territorial titles in England. The following year Lord John Russell passed the Ecclesiastical Titles Act, declaring the pope's bull null and void, and imposing penalties on all who carried it into effect. The excitement, however, soon died away, and the act was repealed in 1871.

Ecgbert, KING OF THE WEST SAXONS (802–39), was a member of the royal house of Wessex, but was also connected with the line of Kentish rulers or sub-kings. After the death of Cynewulf (793 or 796 ?) he appears to have laid claim to the throne, but Brihtic, the vassal and ally of Offa, King of Mercia, drove him into exile. Ecgbert took refuge in the dominions of Charles the Great, where he remained for three years. How he spent the years of his exile or in what circumstances he returned to England is unknown; but on the death of his rival Brihtic in 802 he was chosen as his successor. For many years he remained the vassal of the King of Mercia, but after the death of Cenwulf in 821 Wessex embarked upon a struggle for independence and domination. The contest culminated in a great victory over Beornwulf at Ellandune (825), after which Ecgbert annexed the lesser kingdoms of Kent, Surrey, Sussex, East Anglia, and Essex, which had become Mercian dependencies. Four years later the great kingdom itself was reduced; and shortly afterwards Northumbria, a prey to internal dissensions, owned his overlordship. So great was Ecgbert's success that his subjects hailed him as Bretwalda—the eighth in succession from the shadowy Ella of Sussex. Having thus established a power co-extensive with the English settlements, Ecgbert set himself to reduce the Welsh, and was as successful as he had previously been over the Celtic inhabitants of Cornwall. Over the Celts north of the Dee, however, his power did not prevail. Towards the end of Ecgbert's reign an old enemy, the Danes, began to reappear. In 838 he won over them and the Cornish Welsh a great battle at Hengestesdun (Hengest Down, near Plymouth), which for the time checked their invasions. The renewal of their inroads under his successors was to result in the perpetuation in the royal house of Wessex of the kingship of all England.

Economic History. The following works of a comprehensive nature are recommended. For more specialized works on different topics the book lists appended to the various articles (e.g., AGRICULTURE, GILDS, TRADE UNIONS) should be consulted.

General: C. M. Waters, "A School Economic History of England"; Meredith, "Outlines of the Economic History of England"; Cunningham, "Growth of English Industry and Commerce." *From origins to the sixteenth century:* Ashley, "Introduction to English Economic History and Theory"; Lipson, "Economic History of England," i; Quennel, "History of Everyday Things"; Salzmann, "English Industries in the Middle Ages." *From the sixteenth century to the present day:* Adam Smith, "Wealth of Nations"; Knowles, "Industrial and Commercial Revolutions"; Hammond, "Rise of Modern Industry"; Horrocks, "A Short History of Mercantilism"; Sée, "Origines du Capitalisme Moderne"; Fay, "Life and Labour of the Nineteenth Century"; Rees, "Social and Industrial History of England, 1815–1918."

Source Books: Bland, Brown and Tawney, "Select Documents"; Tawney and Power, "Tudor Economic Documents."

Bibliographies: The Historical Association's Leaflet No. 33; "What to Read on Social and Economic Subjects," issued by the Fabian Society; in Bland, Brown and Tawney; and in Sée, "Origines du Capitalisme Moderne."

Edbert (EADBERHT), PRÆN, KING OF KENT (796–8), seems to have been collaterally connected with the old Kentish royal house, and to have been an ecclesiastic before his accession. It is possible that he had been forced into a monastery by Offa, on whose death he hastened to assert the independence of Kent and his own claim. In 798, however, he was attacked in force by Cenwulf of Mercia,

who ravaged Kent and obtained the excommunication of Edbert by the pope. Cenwulf eventually took Edbert prisoner, and is said to have caused his eyes to be put out and his hands amputated.

Edbert (Eadberht), King of Northumbria (737–58), was the cousin of Ceolwulf, whom he succeeded, and brother of Ecgbert, Archbishop of York. He was a successful ruler; he checked a Mercian attack under Ethelbald, and in 756 reduced the British kingdom of Strathclyde to subjection with the help of Angus, king of the Picts. His friendship was sought by Pepin of France, who sent him costly presents. Like many of his contemporaries he abdicated and retired to a monastery, where he lived for nine years.

Edburga (Eadburh) (*fl.* c. 800), daughter of Offa of Mercia and wife of Bertric, King of Wessex, according to West Saxon legend poisoned her husband by mistake, having intended the death of his favourite. It is said that, "in detestation of the crime, the West Saxons determined that henceforth no wife of a king should occupy a royal throne by her husband's side, or bear the title of queen." We are told that she fled to the court of Charles the Great, who made her an abbess. "But she ruled over the monastery ill, and did wickedly in all things." Expelled thence, after many wanderings she is said by Asser to have died a beggar in the city of Pavia.

Eden, George, 1st Earl of Auckland (1784–1849), the second son of the 1st Lord Auckland, entered parliament as member for Woodstock, and in 1814 succeeded to the peerage. In 1830 he was appointed president of the board of trade, and in 1834 was for a few months first lord of the admiralty. On the return of his friends to office, Lord Auckland was appointed governor-general of India, and quitted England (1835) for the administration of affairs in that country. Before he had been six months in Calcutta he perceived a storm gathering in the North-West. The complications which arose brought on a great political crisis with which he was not competent to deal. He had little reliance on his own judgment, and acted for the most part under the influence of those who surrounded him. His administration is almost exclusively comprised in the fatal expedition to Afghanistan. [Afghan Wars.] In February 1842 the arrival of Lord Ellenborough at Calcutta brought Lord Auckland's administration to a close. On his return he was created an earl. On the accession of the Russell cabinet, 1846, he was once more placed at the head of the admiralty board.

Sir J. Kaye, "Afghanistan," 1851; biography by L. J. Trotter, 1893.

Eden, William, 1st Baron Auckland (1744–1814), the third son of a Durham baronet, Sir Robert Eden, was educated at Eton and Christ Church, and was called to the bar in 1769. In 1771 he published "Principles of Penal Law," which brought him into notice, and he was appointed auditor and one of the directors of Greenwich Hospital, and in the following year an under-secretary of state. In 1774 the Duke of Marlborough gave him the family seat of Woodstock. Two years later he was appointed to the board of trade, and, again after two years, one of the commissioners for making terms with the American colonies. His mission was unsuccessful, but it made him acquainted with Lord Carlisle, who, in 1780, appointed him his secretary in Ireland, where Eden remained until the Rockingham ministry came into power in 1782. He conducted an active opposition to that government, and on its fall was made a privy councillor and vice-treasurer of Ireland —an office, however, which he soon resigned. In 1785 he went over to Versailles with plenary powers to negotiate a treaty of commerce with France, and was most successful. In 1788 he was appointed ambassador to Spain. On his return a year later he was raised to an Irish peerage, and was almost immediately afterwards sent to Holland as ambassador. He held this position until, in May 1793, he was raised to the British peerage. In 1798 he was appointed by Pitt to be joint postmaster-general, and only gave up the place when Pitt went out of office in 1801. He was a warm supporter of most of Pitt's measures, and especially of the union with Ireland, the scheme for which he had himself helped to prepare. He was the author of measures for bettering the condition of criminals, for erecting penitentiaries, and for substituting hard labour for transportation.

Edgar (Eadgar), King (*b.* 944, *s.* 959, *d.* 975), was the younger son of King Edmund. We read that in 957 the Mercians and Northumbrians, disgusted at the inefficient rule and vicious life of his elder brother Edwy, chose Edgar for their king, although he was at the time not more than fourteen years old. On Edwy's death, at the end of the year 958, Edgar was elected king of all England. His reign owes a great deal of its importance and success to Dunstan, whom he recalled from exile immediately after his accession to power, and who became to all intents and purposes his "prime minister." The reforms in the Church which belong to this reign were the joint work of the king and the archbishop [Dunstan]. Several new sees were established, and many monasteries were founded or refounded by Edgar. There are but few striking events recorded in Edgar's reign, and the absence of Danish invasions is very marked. There are the usual wars against the Welsh (965), and some trouble was occasioned by the Scandinavian settlers in Cumbria; but normally the surrounding kingdoms seem to have been in a condition of quiet vassalage, from Scotland to the Bristol Channel; and certainly Edgar more than any other Saxon king deserved the

title "Pacificus." The story of his being rowed on the Dee by six or eight tributary kings need not be considered altogether apocryphal. The "Chronicle" tells us that in 973 he was met at Chester by six kings, who plighted their troth to him, while later authorities enumerate eight kings as having taken part in the ceremony—Kenneth of Scotland, Malcolm of Cumbria, Magnus and Siferth of Man and the Isles, Dunwallon of Strathclyde, Jago and Howell of North Wales, and "Juchil" of South Wales. Just previous to this, after he had been king fifteen years, Edgar was solemnly crowned at Bath. The story that this coronation was necessary on account of the penance he had to undergo for the abduction of a nun rests on no good authority, but no other solution has been attempted of this curious circumstance. In 975 Edgar died. He had been twice married: first to Ethelfleda, by whom he had Edward, who succeeded him, and secondly to Elfrida (Ælfthryth), who became the mother of Ethelred. The numerous stories of his amours, though no doubt greatly exaggerated, show his private character to have been anything but exemplary; as a king, however, he was a worthy successor of Alfred. He was the first West Saxon ruler who made his supremacy really felt over the Mercians and Northumbrians, and who was fully entitled to call himself king of all England. His legislation seems to show the results of an enlightened attempt to put Saxons, Angles, and Danes on a perfect equality before the law. His close association with the nobles of the north, and the favour he showed to the Danelagh, did not, however, increase his popularity among his West Saxon subjects; while the resentment against him was increased by the policy of monastic reform which he pursued in conjunction with Dunstan. His premature death left the succession to be disputed between his sons; while his policy had already marked out the lines of cleavage between north and south, which were to become so disastrously apparent under Ethelred. His reign marks the climax of the power of the West Saxon house, and also the beginning of its decline. In recording his death, the "Anglo-Saxon Chronicle" gives an interesting fragment of a poetical estimate of the king:—

"This year died Edgar,
King of the English,
Dear Lord of West Saxons,
The Mercians' protector.
Widely was it known
Through many nations
Across the gannet's bath [i.e., the sea],
That Edmund's offspring
Kings remote
Greatly honoured,
To the king submitted,
As to him was fitting.
Was no fleet so insolent,
No host so strong,
That in the English race
Took from him aught
The while the noble king
Reigned on his throne!"

E. A. Freeman, "Norman Conquest," vol. i, 1867.

[F. S. P.]

Edgar (EADGAR), KING OF SCOTLAND (1097–1107), son of Malcolm Canmore and Margaret, obtained the crown from his rival Donald Bane chiefly by the aid of his uncle, Edgar Atheling (q.v.), and Rufus, King of England. He confirmed Magnus of Norway, who in 1102 devastated the Lindseys with fire and sword and captured Man, in the possession of the western isles; the rest of his reign was exceedingly uneventful, owing, perhaps, to his mild character, which has caused him to be likened to Edward the Confessor. In 1100 his sister Matilda married Henry I of England, and Edgar throughout his rule displayed strong English sympathies. He died in January 1107, and was buried at Dunfermline. Before his death he divided the kingdom between his two brothers, Alexander and David, making the latter Earl of Lothian and Cumbria.

P. Hume Brown, "History of Scotland," 1911.

Edgar Atheling (1057 ?–1120 ?) was the son of Edward the Exile, the son of Edmund Ironside. On the death of Edward the Confessor he was the nearest heir to the throne, but his claims were disregarded, and even after Harold's death there were very few who seriously advocated his cause. He submitted to William at Berkhampstead in 1066 and was graciously received. For two years he remained at the Conqueror's court, but in 1068 he withdrew, perhaps intending to participate in the rising of Edwin and Morkere. Subsequently he fled with his two sisters to Scotland. King Malcolm married Margaret, one of the sisters, and supported Edgar's claims in many attacks upon England. He also received hospitality and offers of assistance from Flanders and France. Having met with no substantial success, however, Edgar at length gave up his claims to the English crown on consideration of receiving estates and a pension from William (1074). In 1086 he departed for a period of service with the Normans in Apulia. On his return he formed a great friendship with the Conqueror's eldest son, Robert, whom he supported against William Rufus. The ill-success of the former obliged Edgar to flee once more to Scotland, in 1091, where he was instrumental in effecting a peace between Malcolm and William Rufus. After the death of Malcolm (1093) Edgar, now reconciled to the English king, took his sister's children under his protection, and eventually got leave from William to raise an army for the purpose of placing his nephew, Edgar, on the Scottish throne (1097). Having effected this, he joined the Crusaders just in time for the siege of Jerusalem (1099). Subsequently he was taken prisoner by Henry I while fighting for Robert of Normandy in the battle of Tenchebrai (1106), but was soon released and allowed to retire to his estates, where he lived peacefully to a ripe old age. The date of his death is unknown, but he is clearly not to be identified with the Edgar Atheling who figures in the Pipe Rolls of 1158 and 1167.

E. A. Freeman, "Norman Conquest," 1867–71.

Edgcott, The Battle of (July 26, 1469), was fought between the insurgents, led by "Robin of Redesdale" (q.v.), and the troops of Edward IV, under the Earl of Pembroke. The former were completely victorious. Pembroke was defeated with great slaughter, and he and his brother, Sir Richard Herbert, were taken prisoners and put to death by the rebels. Edgcott is in Northamptonshire, a few miles from Banbury.

Edgehill, The Battle of (October 23, 1642), was the first important battle of the Civil War of the seventeenth century. Two months before, the king had raised his standard at Nottingham, and on September 9 the Parliamentary army, under Essex, left London. The king at first marched westwards to Shrewsbury, where his force was considerably increased, and then resolved to push rapidly on London. Essex determined to prevent this, and marched on Worcester, where the two armies remained for some time within a few leagues of one another. At length the king marched forward, and on October 23 the armies met at Edgehill, near Kineton, in Warwickshire. The Royalists occupied the hill while Essex drew up his troops in front of Kineton. The king's army was about 12,000 strong, while Essex's troops numbered about 10,000, and by Rupert's advice the king determined to march down the hill and attack the enemy on the plain. The battle began about two in the afternoon, and lasted till the evening. Rupert routed the Parliamentarian cavalry, but rashly pursued them more than two miles from the field, till stopped by the arrival of Hampden's regiment with the artillery. Meanwhile, the Royalist infantry had been broken, and Rupert's horse were in too great disorder to retrieve the fortunes of the day. The forces remained facing each other during the night, but on both sides large numbers deserted, and in the morning the two armies marched away—the king into Oxfordshire, Essex to Warwick. The Parliamentarian loss was the heavier, but the Royalists lost many officers of rank, including the Earl of Lindsey, the commander-in-chief. The real advantages lay with the king, who was able to capture Banbury, and march to Oxford without resistance.

E. A. Walford, "Edgehill," 1904.

Edinburgh (*Eadwines byrig*, "the castle of Edwin"; in Gaelic, *Dunedin*, which means the same thing) was founded by Edwin of Northumbria as a frontier defence against the Picts, and became the chief town of Lothian, which the cession of Canute put under the Scottish kings. The introduction of English and Norman usages into the Scottish royal house made Edinburgh the chief royal residence and capital by the time of David I. It was given up to the English in 1174, but the Treaty of Falaise restored it to the Scots in 1189. In 1296 Edward I carried off the regalia from the castle, which was a few years afterwards retaken by Robert Bruce. In 1322 it was besieged by Edward II, and in 1333 given up to Edward III, from whom it was taken in 1341. Richard II burned the town in 1385. In 1544 Edinburgh was burnt by Hertford, and shortly afterwards was garrisoned by the French, who were driven out by the Lords of Congregation, 1559. Two years later it was the scene of a treaty (q.v.). After the murder of Darnley, the castle was taken by the Confederate Lords, but subsequently became the head-quarters of Queen Mary's party, until Kirkcaldy of Grange was compelled to surrender it, 1573. The Covenant was signed in Edinburgh in 1638. In March 1639 the castle fell into the hands of the Covenanters, and in 1650 was taken by Cromwell. In 1689 it held out for some time for James II, under the Duke of Gordon. In 1708 a Jacobite plot was formed for seizing the castle, another attempt being made in 1715, and in the rebellion of 1745 it was captured by the Highlanders. It was the scene of the Porteous Riots (q.v.) in 1736. In 1582 the University of Edinburgh was founded by the town council, partly from the proceeds of a legacy left by Robert Reid, Bishop of Orkney, and partly from endowments bestowed by James VI.

Daniel Wilson, "Memorials of Edinburgh," 1846–8; James Grant, "Old and New Edinburgh," 1880, etc.; Sir H. Maxwell, "Edinburgh," 1916.

Edinburgh, The Treaty of (July 6, 1560), enacted peace between England and Scotland on condition that the French should retire from Scotland; the fortifications of Leith and Dunbar should be razed; and a fine should be paid for the blazoning of English arms with those of Scotland and France by Mary Stuart.

P. Hume Brown, "History of Scotland," 1911.

Edith (Eadgyth) (*d.* 1075), wife of Edward the Confessor, was the daughter of Earl Godwin of Wessex. She was married in 1045. Her relations towards her husband are doubtful, but she probably exerted her influence in favour of her father's policy, as on the disgrace of Godwin, in 1051, she was banished from the king's presence, and sent to a convent. On Godwin's return in the next year she was reinstated and her lands and goods were restored. She favoured her brother Tostig against Harold, and after the Conquest seems to have been treated with great respect by William. She died in 1075 in her dower city of Winchester. She was reverenced alike by English and Normans, the latter apologizing for her origin in the famous line—

"Sicut spina rosam genuit Godwinus Editham."

[Edward the Confessor.]

Edith, "Swansneck," was the mistress of King Harold. She it was who is said to have identified his body after the battle of Hastings. Nothing more than this is known about her.

Edmund (Eadmund), King (*b.* 922, *s.* 940, *d.* 946), afterwards called Edmund the Elder by historians, was the son of Edward the Elder, and half-brother of Athelstan. Before his accession he had already gained renown in the battle of Brunanburh (q.v.). The most important events of his reign are the recovery of the Five Boroughs (q.v.) (942) and Northumbria (944) from the Danes, and the grant of Cumberland (i.e., probably the Viking settlement on the Solway Firth) to Malcolm, King of Scots, in 945. The next year he was murdered at Pucklechurch by a robber named Liofa at the early age of twenty-four. His second wife was Ethelfleda, a daughter of the ealdorman Aelfgar, and by her he had two sons, Edwy and Edgar (q.v.). Edmund received the title of "Magnificus," i.e., the doer of great deeds, apparently from his successes against the Danes. His sons were so young at the time of his death that they were passed over in favour of his brother Edred.

Biography by J. B. Mackinlay, 1893.

Edmund (Eadmund) Ironside (*b.* 993?, *s.* April, *d.* November 1016), was the son of Ethelred II. During his father's lifetime he had been active in opposing the Danes. In 1015 he married Aldgyth, widow of Sigeferth, and took possession of the lands of her former husband and his brother Morkere in the region of the Five Boroughs (q.v.), thus forming a kind of principality of his own in the heart of the Danish district. On the death of Ethelred, Edmund was chosen king by the citizens of London and those of the witan who were there, while the rest of the people elected Canute. The brief reign of Edmund is taken up with struggles with his rival, in which the valour of Edmund and the bravery of his followers are in great measure neutralized by the treachery of Edric Streona and others. Immediately after his election Edmund left London, marched into Wessex, and defeated Canute at Pen Selwood. Another battle was fought at Sherston, in Wiltshire, in which Edric's treachery almost caused the defeat of the English. Edmund next relieved London, and won a victory at Brentford. A fourth battle was fought at Otford, where the Danes were once more defeated, and "all men said that Edmund would have destroyed them utterly had not Edric beguiled him to stop the pursuit at Aylesford." Shortly after this the Danes gained a great victory at Assington (Assandun), in Essex, in which the "Chronicle" tells us "all the nobility of the English race was destroyed," and which is to be attributed to the defection of Edric and his men. Canute pursued Edmund to Gloucester, and a sixth battle was about to be fought when the witan proposed that a division of the country should be made between the two kings. For this purpose a meeting was held on the Eyot of Olney, near Deerhurst, where it was agreed that Edmund "was to be the head king, and have Wessex, Essex, East Anglia, and English Mercia, with the city of London; and Canute was to have Danish Mercia and Northumbria." The story of Edmund having proposed to decide the matter by single combat with Canute rests on no good authority. Very soon after this, on November 30, 1016, Edmund died, having, according to a persistent but unauthenticated tradition, been murdered by the traitor Edric. He left two young sons, Edward and Edmund, who were exiled by Canute. His great physical strength, as well as his valiant spirit, gained him the surname of "Ironside." He reigned only seven months, and during that time he had fought five great battles, in three of which he was completely victorious, and in the others only defeated by treachery.

E. A. Freeman, "Norman Conquest," vol. i, 1867.

Edmund (Eadmund), King of Scotland (1094–7), son of Malcolm Canmore and Margaret, joined his uncle, Donald Bane, in driving his half-brother Duncan from the throne. He reigned in conjunction with Donald three years, having Strathclyde as his especial province. In 1097 Edgar, his brother, successfully established himself on the throne and the danger of the repartition of Scotland was averted.

P. Hume Brown, "History of Scotland," 1911.

Edmund (Eadmund), St., King of East Anglia (856–70). Little is known of his life, save that in 866 he bought off the Danish host and induced it to depart to Northumbria. Of his death we are told by late authorities that in 870, having been defeated and taken prisoner by the Danes at Hoxne, he was offered his life and kingdom on condition of his giving up Christianity and acknowledging the Danish supremacy. Refusing these terms, he was bound to a tree and shot at with arrows, and at last beheaded. His body was translated shortly after his death to the royal manor of Bedricsworth, which changed its name in his honour to St. Edmund's Burgh. His constancy in faith earned him canonization, and the English Church still keeps his name in remembrance on November 20, the traditional day of his martyrdom.

Edmund Crouchback (1245–96). [Lancaster, Edmund, Earl of.]

Edred (Eadred), King (946–55), was the son of Edward the Elder, and brother of Athelstan and Edmund, the latter of whom he succeeded. He is said to have been weak and sickly in health, but his reign was an active one, and the administration was wisely managed, for Dunstan was his friend and adviser. In 947 the Northumbrians swore allegiance to him, but the next year they revolted, and set up Eric, son of Harold Harfagr, as their king. Therefore Edred overran Northumbria, compelled the expulsion of Eric, and reduced the Danes once more to submission (948). It was not, however, until 954 that the Danish kingdom of York was finally subjected and Eric slain. Archbishop Wulfstan was deposed in

952, and imprisoned at Judanbyrig (? Idbury), perhaps for complicity in the later Northumbrian disturbances; but two years afterwards he was released, and made Bishop of Dorchester. Edred died on November 23, 955, at Frome, in Somersetshire, and was succeeded by his nephew, Edwy. Edred, the "Chosen," or 'Excellent," as he was called, seems to have possessed considerable capacity. He was brave and industrious, and in his reign were begun the administrative and ecclesiastical reforms afterwards worked out by Dunstan and Edgar.

Edric (Eadric) Streona (*d.* 1017), was the favourite adviser of Ethelred, whose daughter Edith he married, and to him all the crimes and treasons of the court are attributed. In 1005 it is said that he treacherously murdered Elfhelm, Earl of Deira, and secured the dispossession or mutilation of other members of his family. In 1007 he was made ealdorman of the Western Mercians; in 1009 he betrayed the English army in a contest with the Danes; in 1015 he murdered Sigeferth and Morkere, two Anglo-Danish thegns of the district of the Five Boroughs; and in the same year, after making an attempt on the life of Edmund Ironside, he openly joined the Danes. At the battle of Sherston, the legend runs that by pretending that Edmund had been slain, he tried to throw the English ranks into disorder, but the promptitude of the English king prevented defeat. Almost immediately afterwards, however, we find Edmund reconciled with Edric at Aylesford, although this was perhaps a move intended merely to prevent Edmund's reaping the advantages of his victory at Otford. At the battle of Assandun (q.v.) Edric deserted with his forces to Canute, who by this means defeated the English; and it is said to have been by his advice that the peace was agreed upon at Deerhurst. Edmund's death in November 1016 is sometimes attributed to Edric's intervention, but there is no proof of his guilt. At first Canute showed favour to the traitor, but before the year 1017 was out he was put to death. His crimes may have been exaggerated by the English chronicler, but although it is improbable that Edric personally wrought all the countless and inexplicable treasons which are laid to his charge, we cannot doubt that he knew how to exercise an extraordinary influence over men's minds, and that that influence was always exerted for evil.

Education in England. Systematic education in England begins with the conversion of the English to Christianity. Most episcopal sees had schools attached to them and learning was almost entirely in the hands of the clergy. Bæda is the "fine flower" of its culture; Alcuin, of the school of York Minster, directed the educational system of Charles the Great. Alfred the Great desired that all the free youth of England, who were rich enough to apply themselves to it, should learn to read English; he set an example in his own court and did much for the perfection and preservation of the Anglo-Saxon language and literature. A principal occupation of some monasteries was the preservation of the country's history; England is especially rich in these monastic chronicles. Disputation was a great feature in the educational method employed in cathedral and monastic schools; we find dramatic entertainments forming part of the curriculum in the Benedictine school at Dunstable. The Norman Conquest introduced a new language; Lanfranc and Anselm transplanted foreign methods from the continent. The University of Oxford appears as a duly constituted body of teachers and pupils in the second half of the twelfth century, Cambridge in the early years of the thirteenth; the ill-defined beginnings of both are to be sought even earlier still. It is said that Oxford in 1209 had 3,000 students; and there is a fable to the effect that in mid-thirteenth century the number reached 15,000. Without accepting these figures, it is probable that the number of scholars in all the early universities, that is, those existing in the twelfth and thirteenth centuries, was considerable. Colleges, where teachers and taught were lodged and boarded, arose in the latter half of the thirteenth century. William of Wykeham founded New College, Oxford (1379), and a great boarding school at Winchester (1382), intended to supply between them the whole curriculum included in the seven liberal arts, grammar, rhetoric, logic, arithmetic, geometry, music, and astronomy. In imitation of Wykeham's establishments, Henry VI founded King's College, Cambridge, and Eton College, near Windsor (1440). In 1447 four London clergymen presented a petition to parliament to found a school in each of their four parishes; Mercers' School traces its origin to this petition. It is possible that Colet was a pupil in the original school (St. Thomas of Acon's Hospital); when Dean of St. Paul's, he refounded (1510) St. Paul's School. The suppression of the monasteries at the Reformation ought to have provided large funds for the support of education, but much of this wealth was squandered by Henry VIII, although some of it benefited Oxford and Cambridge. Edward VI's government suppressed many schools and styled the king the founder of many others, the principal being Christ's Hospital (1553), which owed its existence to the liberality and public spirit of the London citizens. (Shrewsbury is a genuine Edwardian foundation.) Westminster was the most important of the refoundations similarly attributed to Elizabeth. In her reign Judd founded Tonbridge School; Lawrence Sheriff, Rugby; John Lyon, Harrow; and in the next reign Thomas Sutton founded Charterhouse. These various efforts did much for the education of the middle classes and of the higher, but the lower classes were almost entirely neglected. The Society

for Promoting Christian Knowledge (1698) had by the middle of the eighteenth century established 1,600 charity schools, which clothed boys and girls, gave religious instruction, and taught the "3 R's." The number was very insufficient. Wesley's efforts for popular education were confined to his own communion. In 1730 Griffith Jones, a clergyman of the Church of England, effected a great improvement in Wales by establishing "circulating schools"; the work was continued after his death by Madam Bevan, who bequeathed her property for that purpose. Towards the end of the eighteenth century the Rev. Thomas Stock and Robert Raikes, proprietor of the *Gloucester Journal*, awakened public interest in the Sunday schools which they had established in Gloucester. In 1785 was founded "The Society for the Support and Encouragement of Sunday Schools throughout the British Dominions." Dissenters joined it as well as Churchmen. These Sunday schools gave a great impulse to the general education of the poorer classes. A further advance was made by the introduction of the monitorial system by Bell and Lancaster. Bell, who returned to England in 1797, had organized this method of mutual instruction whilst he was president of the military orphan school in Madras. Joseph Lancaster, a young Quaker, employed the same method. He met with great success, and was favoured by the court. Under this impulse the British and Foreign School Society was established in 1814; in this society's schools the Bible was taught "without note or comment." In opposition to this, Dr. Bell gave his countenance to the "National Society for Promoting the Education of the Poor in the Principles of the Established Church," founded in 1811. Bell, at his death, in 1832, left £120,000 for the purpose of promoting national education. Lancaster died in poverty in America in 1838. By the rival efforts of these two societies education was much developed, and in 1833 a proportion of about one in eleven of the whole population was attending school. Up to this time the government had taken no direct part in this movement, but the year 1832 introduced a change in this respect. In that year a committee was appointed to inquire into the matter, and in the following year £20,000 was voted for the education of the people. In order to avoid religious disputes, the sum was divided between the two great school societies, and the grant was continued in succeeding years; in 1839 the committee of the privy council on education was formed to administer this annual grant. To secure independence from State control, the Independents founded the Congregational Board of Education, and the Baptists the Voluntary School Society. The further development of the action of government was hindered by the divergence of party views on the question. One party was in favour of an entirely voluntary system, unconnected with the State. Among the supporters of State education, some were inclined to a gratuitous system; some were for denominational, others for secular education. An important step was taken, February 25, 1856, by which the Education Department was established to serve as the administrative agency of the committee of council on education; to this department was added the previously existing Science and Art Departments, which had been established to encourage the application of art and science to industry. A code of regulations was published in April 1860, now known as the "old code." A royal commission, appointed in 1858, reported in 1861. It gave an unfavourable picture of the state of education in England. In July 1861 a revised code of regulations was issued, chiefly under the influence of Robert Lowe. It appeared in a revised form in May 1862. It virtually reduced the subjects of teaching to "the 3 R's"—reading, writing, and arithmetic—established six standards of proficiency for pupils ranging from 6 to 12 years of age, and asserted the principle of payment by results. The Education Department ceased to augment the pay of the teachers. The revised code was severely criticized in its details, and the history of elementary education from 1862 to 1890 is the gradual undoing of the revised code and of its principle, payment by results. The great measure of W. E. Forster, the Elementary Education Act, which became law on August 9, 1870, authorized the formation of School Boards for the purpose of providing public elementary education under the supervision of elected representatives of the ratepayers. It was followed by the Free Education Act in 1891. This act gave an additional government grant of 10s. per annum for each child between five and fourteen years of age in average attendance at recognized elementary schools, and reduced fees accordingly. As the fees charged ordinarily amounted to less than 10s. per child per annum, the result was to abolish school fees in most cases, and where the abolition was not effected by the act it was frequently carried out voluntarily by the managers. The revised code of 1890 made the "merit grant" dependent on the general efficiency of a school as estimated by the inspector rather than on the number of pupils who passed his examination, and so abolished the "payment by results" of Robert Lowe's revised code. In 1894 Mr. Acland issued a new code for evening continuation schools, giving to the then long-established evening classes a wider opening for usefulness. In 1897 acts were passed granting 5s. per scholar to voluntary schools and some relief also to necessitous board schools, the first-named grant to be distributed by associations of school managers. A commission on secondary education appointed in 1894 reported in October 1895, recommending the creation of a central supervisory authority, with subordinate local authorities in counties and boroughs,

the rearrangement of educational endowments, with further aid from taxes and rates, the registration of teachers, and a system of State supervision and encouragement which might be extended to private and proprietary schools at their option. In 1899, in accordance with the recommendations of this commission, a statute was passed creating "The Board of Education for England and Wales." This board takes the place of the Education Department and of the Science and Art Department, also of the Charity Commission and the Board of Agriculture in matters relating to education; it is therefore the central authority for national education and as near an approximation to a "Ministry of Public Instruction" as the country has ever possessed. Its chief officials are a president and a parliamentary under-secretary. There is associated with the board a consultative committee, whose first task was to frame regulations for forming a register of teachers. It was felt that such a register should include teachers of all grades, and that it would conduce to the greater efficiency of the teaching profession. The committee put forth its regulations early in 1902, proposing to divide teachers into two classes, certificated masters and mistresses serving in elementary schools being placed in A, masters and mistresses engaged in secondary schools and possessed of certain qualifications falling in B. The scheme failed to attract, and their fees were returned to some 500 persons who had paid a guinea each for registration in column B. Teachers "registered" in column A paid no fee, and were not in fact registered, it being held that their individual records at the Board of Education were equivalent to column A of the register. An act of 1907 authorized the institution of a Teachers' Registration Council to form and maintain a register, not of schoolmasters and schoolmistresses only, but of teachers of all kinds. The scheme, which has met with a fair measure of success, registers all qualified persons upon one list, without reference to the type of institution in which he or she teaches. As from July 1, 1927, the Teachers' Registration Council consists of forty-eight members, three-fourths being elected by the registered teachers, the remainder being appointed by the universities; the chairman is appointed from outside the council.

The Education Act (England and Wales) introduced by Mr. Balfour in 1902 was actuated by the same motive as the act of 1899, namely, to promote the co-ordination and efficiency of education in these countries. This act instituted local authorities to control primary, secondary, and scientific education, invested such authority with rating powers, and threw the cost of the maintenance of all elementary schools in part upon the rates. In respect of secondary schools it allowed the local authority to "take such steps as may seem desirable after consulting with the Board of Education to supply or aid the supply of education other than elementary." The "local authority" is the county council in counties, the borough council in county boroughs and in non-county boroughs with a population over 10,000, and the urban district council in urban districts with a population over 20,000. What were formerly known as board schools are now called provided schools, and those previously known as voluntary schools are now termed non-provided schools. In the case of the latter the buildings have been handed over to the State, but the duty of keeping them in repair remains with the managers. In these schools religious teaching is to be under the control of the managers, of whom the majority are to be "foundation managers" appointed under the provisions of the trust deed of the school. Over this arrangement much dispute arose, it being contended by the objectors that rate-supported schools should in all respects be under popular control. The act received the royal assent on December 18, 1902.

In 1903 an unwillingness on the part of numerous members of the Free Churches to pay that part of the education rate allocated to the support of denominational schools led to the formation of a "Passive Resistance Committee," of which Dr. Clifford was president. In spite of the adverse opinion of counsel, "passive resistance" was continued. On October 31, 1903, the Archbishop of Canterbury wrote to Dr. Horton suggesting a conference, but the reply was that the idea could only be entertained if the Church party would as a preliminary admit the principles that all schools should be under absolutely public control, and that all teachers should be appointed without reference to denomination and by the public authority. The archbishop was unable to assent to these terms.

In 1906 a further bill was introduced under a Liberal government, in which it was provided that no school would be recognized as a public elmentary school unless it was a school provided by the local education authority; therefore no elementary school was to receive a penny of public money, either from rates or taxes, unless it became a provided school within the meaning of the Education Act. Voluntary schools receiving rates and grants would at once become provided schools. No catechism or distinctive religious formularies were to be taught, but simple religious exercises and simple Biblical instruction were to be given. After considerable opposition from Churchmen the Bill was withdrawn.

The act of 1918, the most characteristic provisions of which are in abeyance owing to their cost, has as its general policy the removal of barriers between elementary and secondary instruction, and the provision of some form of secondary education for all. Schooling was to be compulsory to the age of 15, the elementary schools to be provided with "tops" for the instruction of children beyond the age of 11 plus. Continuation schools were to be estab-

lished for the part-time attendance of boys and girls over 15 who were in employment, their attendance continuing till the completion of their sixteenth year. The act provides for the extension of continuation-school attendance to the age of eighteen, after these clauses of the act have been in operation for seven years.

G. Balfour, "Educational Systems of Great Britain and Ireland," 1903; A. F. Leach, "Educational Charters and Documents, 598 to 1909," 1911; J. W. Adamson, "A Short History of Education," 1922; C. Birchenough, "History of Elementary Education in England and Wales from 1800 to the Present Day," 1914; R. L. Archer, "Secondary Education in the Nineteenth Century," 1921.

Education in Ireland. (1) The *Celtic Tradition of Education in Ireland.* Knowledge of the pre-Christian culture of Ireland depends almost entirely on the Christian recensions of the Brehon Laws, carried out after the opening of the mission of St. Patrick (A.D. 432). There was a definite measure of literary education, combined with arduous physical and military training, in the case of ruling families: the whole of this course was carried out under a national system of fosterage, an institution which lasted as long as did the Celtic schools of learning, till about 1650. The Patrician documents (A.D. 440–80) contain very definite references to a professional learned class, originally connected with the Druidic worship among the Celtic peoples, and later stabilized as a Bardic organization. From the completion of the work of St. Patrick and his disciples in Ireland (A.D. 500), a new type of school and of education—the monastic—rapidly developed: leading instances are the establishments of Clonard, Clonfert, Clonmacnoise, in the Midlands, and the school of Bangor in the north-east. All these foundations were well known by A.D. 600, and had as their characteristic the combination of Irish and of classical scholarship in literature, history, law, astronomy with geography, and medicine. This use of the vernacular tongue as a vehicle of higher learning distinguished Irish education from that of all Europe down to the decline of the Renaissance movement and the extinction of the Celtic schools, in the seventeenth century. The important issue of the connexion of classical, and especially of Greek learning, with Irish schools was reopened in 1901 by Heinrich Zimmer, and has been worked over by Ludwig Traube (1907) and other continental scholars. While several Celtic scholars in Ireland itself have since 1912 tended to minimize the evidence for it, Dr. Montague R. James (1922) affirms that the evidence for it is too important to be denied. The culture of Romanized Gaul, of Bordeaux, Toulouse, Autun, Lyons, did find a refuge in Ireland, as Zimmer holds, during the destructive wanderings of Alans, Vandals, and Goths. Dr. James concludes that Græco-Latin texts of various types "had made their way to Ireland in very early times," that "literature unknown to the rest of Europe was read in Ireland," and that there are cumulative "indications that in the sixth and seventh centuries a knowledge of Greek was far from uncommon in Ireland, at a period excluding the possibility of influence from Canterbury and England." The exodus of Irish scholarship to the northern and central areas of Europe was mainly caused by the Norse and Danish devastations of the Irish schools (A.D. 800–950), and its significance was well summed up by Traube (1907) in the affirmation that "wherever in western Europe, at the middle of the ninth century, Greek scholarship is claimed, it is either the possession of an Irishman, or of the pupils of an Irishman; any other claim is fraudulent." John the Scot (Eriugena) taught at Paris chiefly; Sedulius Scottus at Liége, at that epoch; Donough and Martin of Laon (*d.* 875) are also prominent, while Dungal was called by Lothair to organize the Imperial school at Pavia (925). An immense amount of manuscript evidence of their work, and of the work of their disciples, survives in continental libraries. "Greek passages that survive in Latin works," says Traube, "are to be set down to Irish influence." The centuries of Norse and Danish inroads into Ireland did much to dislocate the work of schools and of such centres of fine art as produced the magnificent bell-shrines, the Ardagh Chalice, the Cross of Cong, and the Tara and Roscrea Brooches (A.D. 600–1100), not to mention the Books of Kells, Armagh, Durrow, and other monastic centres of learning. The short spell of comparative peace (1040–1170) was followed by the Norman invasions (1170 to 1300); but the Celtic revival in the fourteenth century saw the complete establishment of a system of lay schools of higher learning, all over the area that remained substantially Irish. Important clans, as the O'Donnells of Tirconuaill, assigned lands to teacher-families such as the O'Clerys, with the hereditary duty of providing education for all scholars who sought it from them. In many cases of such learned families, as with the O'Clerys on the River Erne, the MacEgans of Ormond on the Shannon, the O'Davorens of Burren in Clare, twelve and even sixteen generations of teaching power, reaching from 1250 to 1650, flourished. A family like that of MacEgan branched out so as to educate ten clans, north and south; and they did the same service for the Celticized De Burgos in Connaught. The last great monument of the scholarship thus perpetuated is the "Annals of the Four Masters," written at Donegal by the O'Clerys and the O'Mulconrys (1632–6): its value was certified by the chief Legist of Celtic Ireland, Flann MacEgan, at Redwood in Ormond, November 1636. This system of hereditary tenure of lands by scholar families gave learning a unique position among all European peoples. It was ended by the Confiscation of Ulster (1608–20) and by the Cromwellian Settlement (1654–70); but the tradition of scholarship survived in the small local schools of the eighteenth and early nineteenth

centuries, and produced large numbers of highly qualified teachers in the "Hedge Schools" and in Irish towns. Celtic learning, taught in Irish, extended to history, poetry, Brehon law, and to herbal medicine; in Latin, which was fluently and widely spoken to a later date, were taught the Code of Justinian, the usual medical texts of Hippocrates and Galen, and the Greek and Latin classical authors. Attention to these latter works was again developed during the period of renewed contact with European universities, 1570 to 1790: Irish professors were prominent in such Renaissance centres as Rome, Louvain, Paris, and Salamanca.

(2) *The Norman and English Systems of Education.* Efforts to set up an Anglo-Norman university at Dublin (1310) and at Drogheda (1465) never advanced beyond the documentary stage; but there was a definite education on classical and English lines given in several of the Anglo-Norman monasteries in Ireland. The council of state at the suppression of these houses (1539) pleaded unsuccessfully with Henry VIII that six should be spared for the benefit of "the whole Englishrie of this land," with public service as to education in view. "In them yonge men and childer, both gentilmen childer and other, both of man kynd and women kynd, be broghte up in vertue, lernynge, and in the Englishe tongue and behaviour, to the grete charges of the said houses." The Tudor State policy as to education developed instead on very distinctive lines in Ireland. An act of 1537 imposed the maintenance of parish schools, "for to teach English," on the revenues of the Established Church. There were 350 of these schools in 1790, and no fewer than 780 at disestablishment in 1871. An act of 1570 made similar provision for Diocesan Free Grammar Schools: there were sixteen in existence in 1871. Secondary education was developed very fully in the Anglo-Norman walled cities and towns, which (except Dublin) were at once strongly English and strongly Catholic till the advent of Cromwell, 1649–52. Royal Grammar Schools were endowed on the confiscated lands of Ulster, 1608–20, and still flourish. The Tudor educational structure was completed in 1591 by the addition of an "English College near Dublin," the University of Trinity College.

By a succession of laws from 1560 to 1740, the Catholic population of Ireland was debarred from teaching, and from sending children to Catholic schools at home (which were illegal) or beyond the seas. Often, as in the periods 1609–16, 1630–5, 1652–60, 1672–80, 1695–1740, the illegal Catholic schools were totally suppressed; at intervals they were connived at, especially under Charles I and Charles II. The Renaissance curriculum prevailed in all secondary education, legal or illegal, after 1650. The Scots of Ulster brought in their own school system, 1608–30, and developed it considerably after 1700, despite disabling laws affecting Dissenting academies and schools. The Cromwellian administration in Ireland, 1653–9, ejected Royalists from Trinity College, set up a board of control (probably the first education board in Europe) for secondary schools (1654) and devised a wide system of compulsory apprenticeship of the children of the working-class Catholics under Protestant control (1657). This latter plan was substantially revived by Hugh Boulter, primate and lord justice, in the "Charter Schools" (q.v.) inaugurated in 1733, an expansion of the charity-school system of England and Wales and Scotland (1700–30). The charter schools were under royal patronage; and for them an annual parliamentary grant was voted in Dublin, 1745–1800, and from 1800 to 1831 at Westminster. It was for long the only example of the now universal system of modern educational finance; the grants were in all over £1,000,000. Planned to give an industrial and primary education in boarding farm-schools, the Boulter plan anticipated the work of Pestalozzi at Neuhof, 1774–80, by forty years. Severely criticized by John Howard (1782–7), John Wesley (1785), and by several officials, inspectors, and parliamentary committees, this system of enforced apprenticeship was a complete failure educationally, and led to great abuses in almost all the forty-four schools and farms. There were never more than 2,000 pupils in them. The laws against illegal schools were gradually rendered inoperative, or were modified, from 1782 to 1829. Semi-official attempts to administer small grants through various societies were made from 1816 to 1831, with little result. A National Board of Education operated in the primary field from 1831, and, with increasing grants, became almost nation-wide in its effects by 1860. The schools were nominally neutral, with religious instruction given outside school hours: but a denominational managerial system within the schools was practically everywhere in force. A neutral "Queen's" University, with colleges in Cork and Galway and Belfast, was endowed by Peel in 1845, and lasted till 1882: it was substantially successful in Belfast alone. From the funds of the State Church, disestablished in 1871, and from annual votes, secondary schools of all kinds got financial aid, on an examination basis, after 1878. Endowed schools, of the main historic types enumerated above, were reorganized to some extent from 1887 to 1895, and from 1901 to 1920 a widespread system of technical education, with partial local control and financial provision, was set up. The teaching system for it was not helped by the fact that its work was almost always part-time, and mostly done in the evening and night hours. The transition Royal University, on the London model (1882–1909) gave way to the Federal National University (Dublin, Cork, Galway, Maynooth) in 1909. With the new university in Belfast in the same year, the university question was looked on as settled; Trinity College, Dublin, remained intact throughout.

(3) *Autonomous Systems of Education*, 1920–7. Since the establishment of the Free State (1921–2) and of the Northern Ireland government (1920) considerable advances have been made. Administration and teaching in Northern Ireland, with a new Education Act, have tended to approximate to Scotland, as reorganized in 1918. Both in Dublin and in Belfast secondary and primary education have been extensively replanned, and the pressure of examinations on school finance has been altered. Compulsory education is now universal; technical schools are being completely overhauled; faculties of agriculture and dairying, on a liberal plan, have been set up (1926). In the Free State the Irish language has been made a chief educational instrument since 1922, with a view to its restoration as a spoken tongue. The older boards and separate systems for each type of school and school grants have been replaced by two ministers of education, whose heads are in the two cabinets. A complete system of medical inspection for schools was in working order all over Ireland before the end of 1928, as well as salary, increments, and pension schemes for registered teachers of all types and grades.

Joyce, "Social History of Ancient Ireland," 2 vols.; Gougaud, "Celtic Christianity"; M. R. James, in the "Cambridge Mediæval History," 1921–2, vol. iii, cc. 19, 20; Graham Balfour, "Educational Systems of Great Britain and Ireland"; T. Corcoran, "State Policy in Irish Education, 1536–1816," 1916; Reports of the Ministries of Education, Dublin and Belfast, 1926. [T. C.]

Education in Scotland. It is impossible to fix with any accuracy the date of the first establishment of schools in Scotland, but there are indications in the historical records that they existed from a very early period. Learning has in Scotland always been in advance of the arts and refinements of civilization, which in other countries usually precede letters. For the first foundation of her schools, as for the introduction of her earliest arts and industries, Scotland is indebted to the Church, more especially to the early Irish Celtic Church. As early as the twelfth century there is mention of schools existing in certain burghs in connexion with the religious houses in the neighbourhood. With the building of every cathedral church a school would spring up for the education of clergy and *longo intervallo* for the instruction of the choristers, and though the teaching of the latter was mainly intended to fit the scholars for taking part in the religious services, it was not confined to choral singing and chanting; for as the service of the Church was wholly in Latin, a knowledge of Latin was absolutely necessary for all who took part in the service, and the Latin grammar was therefore taught in the choral schools. Thus the cathedral and song schools of the Church easily developed into the grammar school of the burgh. We have no exact information as to the number of these burghal schools or the course of instruction pursued even at so late a date as the Reformation; but while art was still in its infancy, and all the appliances of domestic life were of the rudest, the value of knowledge and the desire for it was felt by the nation, and expressed by a series of Education Acts passed by the Scots parliament. The first official mention of national education is in 1496, when an act of parliament was passed requiring "through all the realm that all barons and freeholders that are of substance put their eldest sons and heirs to the schools, fra they be aught or nine years of age; and to remain at the grammar schools until they be competently founded, and have perfect Latin; and thereafter to remain three years at the schools of art and jure, so that they may have knowledge and understanding of the laws," under pain of a penalty of £20. In 1579 another act ordained that "song-schools be provided in burghs for the instruction of the youth in music." In 1621 an act exempts colleges and schools from payment of a taxation; and in 1633 an act declares that every "plough- or husband-land according to the worth" should be taxed for the maintenance and establishment of parish schools. In spite of these enactments, however, on the re-establishment of the Presbyterian Church it was found that the existing means of education were not sufficient to meet the wants of the people, and that many parishes were without schools. An act, therefore, "for settling of schools" was passed in 1696, which ordered the *heritors* (landowners) of every parish in the kingdom to "provide a commodious house for a school, and settle and modify a salary for a schoolmaster, which shall not be under one hundred nor above two hundred marks." This act was the legal basis of the parochial school system of Scotland, and this system continued in operation till the whole machinery of education was revised in 1872, when it was again found that the existing means of education were inadequate to the population. In the towns this was due in part to the influx of strangers caused by the increase of trade and manufactures. In the rural parishes, too, the heritors had in many instances so neglected their duty that there was no house for either the school or the teachers. The returns showed that 1,000 new schools were required, and that 54,671 children were without accommodation. [In point of fact the parochial system was functioning ineffectually and was not sufficiently elastic to meet the growing needs of the country. Accordingly the Education Act of 1872 was passed, by which two leading principles, put forward as ideals since the Reformation, were carried into effect, namely, that efficient provision should be made for the education of every child in the country, and that each child should be compelled to attend school up to a minimum requirement defined by law. Since 1872 this requirement has gradually been raised. The act of 1872 placed the management of the parish school in the hands of

School Boards elected by the ratepayers with power to levy a rate for education. In a fundamental point it differed from the English Education Act of 1870 in that it was not limited in its scope to elementary education, but was concerned with providing efficient education for the children of the *whole* people of Scotland. Thus certain burgh or grammar schools, most of which were giving an education beyond the elementary stage, came under the management of the newly-created school boards with the title of higher-class public schools. At first they received no State aid, but in course of time government grants were made to them. As the demand for higher education increased, the number of these schools was found to be insufficient and the school boards began to make further provision. Thus another type of school came into existence —the State-aided secondary school. In later years the distinction between these two types has tended to become one of historic significance merely. Since 1872 not a few parish schools have developed into State-aided secondary schools. Down to the Education Act of 1918 the great bulk of the schools in Scotland were managed by school boards, but by this act these bodies were superseded by education authorities elected *ad hoc* for counties and county-burghs. The act of 1918 is the most important Scottish Education Act since 1872. In particular, for the first time in Scottish history, the adequate provision of free secondary education was made compulsory by law. A further landmark in Scottish education since 1872 is the institution of the leaving certificate examination. Its present form is the result of a series of developments extending over nearly forty years. The first definite step was taken in 1888, when a uniform examination was held throughout the country in certain selected school subjects. In its inception this examination had no essential relation to the secondary-school course, since it was merely an examination in individual subjects; nor was it open to pupils other than those attending higher-class schools. In 1892 candidates from State-aided schools were admitted to it; while in 1902 the issue of leaving certificates for individual subjects was abolished and the *group* leaving certificate instituted. In 1925 day-school certificates—the higher for a three years' course and the lower for a two years' course—were instituted in place of the former intermediate and merit certificates respectively. The development of education in the Highlands, the provision of technical colleges, the institution of provincial committees for the training of teachers, the influence of the Scottish Education Department, and not least the relation between the schools and universities, are all features of significance in Scottish education in the twentieth century.]

Graham Balfour, "The Educational Systems of Great Britain and Ireland," 1903; Sir Henry Craik, "The State and Education"; John Edgar, "History of Early Scottish Education," 1893; James Grant, "History of the Burgh and Parish Schools of Scotland," 1876; John Kerr, "Scottish Education, School and University," 1910; John Strong, "A History of Secondary Education in Scotland," 1909; and "Education (Scot.) Act, 1918, with Annotations," 1919. [M. M.] [J. S.]

Edward (Eadward) the Elder, King (*b.* 870, *s.* 899, *d.* 924), was the son and successor of Alfred. He had already distinguished himself in the wars against the Danes, and seems to have been unanimously chosen king on his father's death; but Ethelwald, a son of Ethelred, put forward his claim to the throne, and having failed to excite a rebellion in Wessex, fled to Northumbria, where the Danes made him their king. In 901 he got possession of Essex, and the next year ravaged Mercia. Edward, in return, invaded the Danelagh, and harried it. The Kentish men, against his orders, remained behind, and a battle ensued, in which the Danes were victorious, but their king, Eric, and Ethelwald were slain. In 903 Edward made peace with Guthrum, the son and successor of Eric. In 910 the Danes broke the peace, but were defeated by Edward with great slaughter between Tottenhall and Wednesfield in Staffordshire. Edward now began, with the co-operation of his sister Ethelfleda (Æthelflæd) (q.v.), the "Lady of the Mercians," the systematic reconquest of the Danelagh. He himself operated in the direction of East Anglia, while Ethelfleda undertook the conquest of Danish Mercia. For the defence of the conquered territory a system of "burhs" or fortified centres was established, among the most important being Chester, Tamworth, Warwick, and Hertford. On the death of Ethelfleda in 917 Edward took possession of Mercia, disregarding the claims of his young niece Ælfwyn. Shortly afterwards "all the people in Essex, East Anglia, and the rest of Mercia submitted to him," and in addition the Welsh kings "sought him to lord." Finally, in 919, "the King of the Scots, and the whole nation of the Scots and all those who dwell in Northumbria, as well English and Danes, and Northmen, and others, and also the King of the Strathclyde Britons, and all the Strathclyde Britons, sought him to father and to lord." Edward had thus in some sort gained a supremacy over all Britain. Wessex, Kent, and Sussex were his by inheritance, and Mercia, Essex, and East Anglia by conquest from the Danes. Besides this, Northumbria, Scotland, Wales, and Strathclyde did homage to him as overlord. Edward died in 924, and was succeeded by his son Athelstan. He seems to have had three wives and a numerous family; three of his sons reigned after him, and of his daughters, one married Charles the Simple, King of the West Franks; another (Eadgifu) Louis, King of Arles; Eadhild married Hugh the Great, Duke of the French (the father by another wife of Hugh Capet); while Edith became the wife of the Emperor Otto I. Another daughter was given to a prince near the Alps, and another to Sitric, the Northumbrian king. There is some reason to believe

that it was during the later years of Edward's reign that the territorial reorganization of the Midlands was effected, or at least begun; the conquered territory being divided for administrative purposes into shires upon the West Saxon model. [Counties, the English.] Although the greatness of Alfred overshadows that of Edward, there can be no doubt that the latter was a man of great vigour and ability and of exceptional capacity as a soldier. According to Florence of Worcester he was fully his father's equal as a warrior and a ruler, and was inferior to him only in those literary labours which peculiarly distinguished Alfred among contemporary princes.

E. A. Freeman, "Norman Conquest," vol. i, 1867; T. Hodgkin, "Political History of England," vol. i.

[S. L.] [H. M. C.]

Edward (Eadward) the Martyr, King (*s.* 975, *d.* 978), was the eldest son of Edgar, whom he succeeded at the age of thirteen. His election was opposed by his stepmother, Elfrida (Ælfthryth), on behalf of her own son, Ethelred. Edward, however, appears to have gained the support of Dunstan, and was accordingly elected. His short reign is unimportant, except for the banishment of Oslac, the Earl of Deira, who had been appointed by Edgar. His accession seems to have led to a reaction against the monastic policy of Edgar, but little can be certainly said on this point. He was treacherously murdered in 978, it would appear at the instigation of his stepmother, though the story of the tragedy having taken place at Corfe Castle, and the details of the crime, are only found in the later chroniclers. His cruel and untimely fate gained him the surname of the Martyr, though it cannot be affirmed that he was a martyr either to religion or to patriotism.

Sir C. Oman, "England Before the Norman Conquest."

Edward (Eadward) the Confessor, King (*b.* 1004 ?, *s.* 1042, *d.* 1066), was the younger son of Emma and Ethelred the Unready, and was born probably about 1004. This Emma—or, to call her by her English name, Edith—was the daughter of Richard Sanspeur, great-grandfather of William the Conqueror, who was therefore second cousin to Edward. The early days of Edward and his brother Alfred were spent in Normandy, at the court of their uncle, Richard the Good; for they had been carried there by Emma at the time of Sweyn's success in 1013, and did not return to their native land on their mother's marriage with Canute (1017). Hence the two young Athelings grew up to manhood abroad, and learnt to prefer the Norman-French customs and life to those of England. It is uncertain whether Edward had any share in the invasion of England that led to Alfred's death in 1036; but Robert the Devil seems to have made at least one effort for the restoration of his cousins a few years before this date. When Hardicanute (Harthacnut) succeeded his brother Harold, it was not long before he invited his half-brother Edward to return home, and thus be at hand to assume the throne should any misfortune happen to himself (1041). Accordingly, in the words of the "Chronicle," on Hardicanute's death, in June 1042, "all folk chose Edward, and received him for king," though the coronation did not take place at Winchester till Easter the next year. There seems to have been some opposition to Edward's succession—one party preferring the claims of a Danish pretender, Sweyn Estrithson, Canute's nephew—but the eloquence of Bishop Lyfing and Earl Godwin carried the day in favour of Ethelred's son. A year or two later, Magnus, King of Norway and Denmark, was preparing to make good his pretensions on England, but was prevented from carrying out his project by the attack of his rivals, Harold Hardrada and Sweyn (1045). It may have been for her connexion with Sweyn's party that the witan stripped Emma of her treasures (1043); while the dangers of this Danish element led, a year or two later, to the banishment from England of several great Danish lords, including Osgod Clapa (1046). From this time the new king's throne was secure.

Meanwhile, Edward had married Godwin's daughter Edith, and the power of the great earl's house was growing every day. At the time of Edward's accession there were four great earldoms, of which only one, Wessex, was in the hands of Godwin. Siward held Northumbria, Leofric Mercia, while another earl, whose name is lost, ruled East Anglia. But in 1043 Godwin's eldest son, Sweyn, received an earldom irregularly carved out of the western parts of Mercia and Wessex, including Hereford, Gloucester, Oxford, Berkshire, and Somerset; and his second son, Harold, that of the East Angles (1045). But Edward could never forget the land of his early life, and was constantly bringing foreigners over to hold rule in England. His nephew, Ralph of Mantes, was made Earl of Worcester and Hereford in succession. It was, however, by manipulating the ecclesiastical appointments that Edward found his readiest way of placing the strangers in high office. In especial, a Norman monk, Robert of Jumièges (q.v), was nominated Bishop of London (1044), and some six years later Archbishop of Canterbury (1051); while another Norman, Ulf, was made Bishop of Dorchester (1049). But all the time these and many other Norman strangers were swarming into the land, the house of Godwin was becoming more and more the centre of the national party. In 1051 things came to a climax. In this year the king, who had a few months previously rejected the choice of the Canterbury monks and Godwin for the see of Canterbury, gave the great earl still further offence by requiring him to punish the men of Dover for vengeance they had inflicted on the insolent followers of Eustace of Boulogne, the

king's brother-in-law. This Godwin refused to do; instead he brought a further charge against the king's foreign friends, complaining that certain Norman followers of Ralph of Mantes were harrying the surrounding country from their stronghold of Richard's castle. Godwin, being summoned to attend a meeting of the witan at Gloucester, gathered his own men and those of his sons at Beverstone, not far from Malmesbury, while the rival hosts of Siward, Leofric, and Ralph supported the king at Gloucester. The meeting-place was transferred to London, where Edward's party assembled in full strength. Sweyn was outlawed once more, and Godwin and Harold summoned to appear as criminals. Godwin found his forces melting away, and in these circumstances flight seemed the wisest course: Harold crossed over to Dublin, and Godwin to Flanders, whence they returned next year to drive out the Norman offenders with Archbishop Robert and Bishop Ulf at their head (1052). Next year, however, the great earl died, and was succeeded in his West Saxon province by his eldest living son, Harold; for Sweyn had died on his way back from a pilgrimage to Jerusalem (September 1052). East Anglia was given to Leofric's son Elfgar. In 1054 Siward undertook his expedition against Macbeth, and proclaimed Malcolm King of Scots; and next year he died. His earldom was given to Harold's brother Tostig. In the same month Elfgar was banished from the kingdom, but soon returned to aid the Welsh in their foray upon Hereford. Harold was now the most prominent man in the kingdom, and to him was entrusted the task of beating back the invaders, though in the reconcilement of the leaders he seems to have had the co-operation of Elfgar's father, Leofric (1056) —apparently a token of some approaches to amity between the two great rival houses. On Leofric's death (1057) Elfgar succeeded to his Mercian earldom, and East Anglia was given to Harold's brother Gyrth, while another brother, Leofwine, had Kent and Essex, and the other shires of south-east England. In 1063 Gruffyd of Wales once more invaded England. But Harold and Tostig united their forces for the purpose of harrying his land; the English soldiers were bidden to adopt the arms and tactics of the Welsh, and before the year 1064 was out Gruffyd was dead, and his kingdom divided between two native princes, who swore fealty to Edward. In 1065 Northumberland rose in rebellion against Tostig, and elected Leofric's grandson, Morkere, as its earl. Morkere, in combination with his brother Edwin, who had been Earl of Mercia since Elfgar's death, appeared in arms at Northampton, perhaps meditating a division of the kingdom, and certainly declaring that the Northumbrians would no longer support the tyranny of Tostig. Edward would have pushed matters to extremes, but Harold persuaded the Oxford gemot to confirm the wishes of the Northerners. Accordingly the Northumbrians were promised a renewal of Canute's laws, and Tostig was banished. This was the last important event in Edward the Confessor's reign. At the end of the year 1065 his great church of Westminster was consecrated, and on January 5, 1066, the king died. Edward had no children, and for many years Harold's position in the kingdom had been such that it was scarcely possible, in all the circumstances, to elect any other successor. Pious, meditative, and given up to religious exercises, Edward, as it has been often said, was more fitted for a Norman cloister than the English throne. His virtues earned him popular respect; but he was deficient in practical vigour, and during a large part of his reign the actual business of administration was managed by members of the house of Godwin.

"Lives of Edward the Confessor" (Rolls Series); E. A. Freeman, "Norman Conquest," vol. ii, 1867.

[S. L.]

Edward I, King (*b.* 1239, *s.* 1272, *d.* 1307), was the eldest son of Henry III and Eleanor of Provence. At fifteen he married Eleanor of Castile, and soon afterwards his father gave him, as an appanage, Gascony, Ireland, the towns of Bristol, Stamford, and Grantham, the king's lands in Wales, and the earldom of Chester, where Edward gained his early experience of Welsh warfare. He sided with his father at the time of the Parliament of Oxford, 1258, and was carefully watched by the barons. Although hostile to the baronage, however, he was no enemy to reform, and in 1259 the party calling itself the "bachelorhood of England" (*communitas bacheleriæ totius Angliæ*) found in him a leader. He effected a *rapprochement* with Earl Simon, and the Provisions of Westminster were the result. But the alliance was short-lived; and on the outbreak of the Barons' War Edward espoused his father's cause and became the effective leader of the royalist party. He proved at first no match for his great antagonist. At Lewes (1264) his rash pursuit of the Londoners did much to cause the defeat of the royal army; and Edward was obliged to surrender to de Montfort, whose prisoner he remained until his escape from Hereford in May 1265. In that same year Edward won the decisive victory of Evesham in which de Montfort was killed. The pacification of the country during the next few years was due as much to his wisdom as to his energy. While he was active in reducing the strongholds of the Montfort party and in crushing freebooters, he successfully advocated a policy of conciliation, and in 1267 a final settlement was effected. In 1270 Edward departed on crusade, and distinguished himself by his bravery. In 1272 he narrowly escaped assassination. That same year his father died, and Edward was at once acknowledged as king. He heard the news on his way home. He landed in England and was crowned in 1274. Edward brought to

the service of his people the invaluable experience he had gained during his father's reign. He profited by the example of Earl Simon's career; and strove to found a strong royal authority by associating with him in the work of government the loyal nobles and clergy, and by building up a body politic in which every class of the nation should have its part. He knew the needs of his people and set himself to meet them by good laws. His education had implanted in him French ideas and tastes, which encouraged his innate love of power. The legal turn of his mind made him take advantage of subtleties which favoured his wishes, but he prided himself upon a strict adherence to the letter, if not always to the spirit, of his motto *pactum serva*. His policy was extraordinarily comprehensive. His kingly pride, his love of order, perhaps too his love for his people, caused him to strive for supremacy in this island; but at the same time he did not neglect his French possessions. Immediately after his return to England he set himself to amend the evils of the civil wars. In 1275 parliament passed the first Statute of Westminster, a sweeping ordinance against administrative abuses; and at the same time put the ancient and great custom on wool, wool-fells, and leather upon a statutory basis. Shortly after his landing Edward had instituted an inquiry into the baronial immunities and jurisdictions, which constituted a serious obstacle in the way of orderly government. The returns to this inquiry are embodied in the Hundred Rolls, and its results inspired the Statute of Gloucester (1278), which empowered the royal officials to traverse the land demanding by what warrant (*quo warranto*) the lords of franchises exercised their powers. The attempt to insist in all cases upon documentary proof of royal delegation was unavailing; but Edward, though obliged to compromise, was at least successful in preventing the possibility of any further growth of private jurisdictions. The Statute of Winchester (q.v.), passed in 1285, dealt another blow to feudalism. It brought up to date Henry II's Assize of Arms by reorganizing the national militia and employing it for the maintenance of internal order. That Edward's policy was always consciously and consistently anti-feudal is, however, improbable. In 1279 we find him attempting to safeguard the rights of the feudal baronage and of the Crown as supreme landowner in the Statute of Mortmain (*de Religiosis*) (q.v.), which forbade the granting of land into the "dead hand" of corporations. This statute, though couched in general terms, and against which, under Archbishops Peckham and Winchelsey, Edward waged a determined conflict, was primarily directed against the Church, whose jurisdictional claims he challenged some years later in *Circumspecte Agatis*. In 1285 the second Statute of Westminster (*de Donis Conditionalibus*) was passed, facilitating the creation of entailed states, and thereby perpetuating some of the worst features of mediæval landholding. Five years later came Westminster III or *Quia Emptores* (q.v.), which prohibited subinfeudation, and was devised, like *Mortmain*, to protect the interests of the feudal class. Its ultimate effect was, however, to hasten the decline of feudalism; since by removing all restraints on alienation, it made land a marketable commodity in the full sense of the term, and thus finally destroyed the rigidity of the old order.

If Edward's work as a lawgiver has earned for him the doubtfully apposite title of "The English Justinian," his achievements as an administrator undoubtedly entitle him to be regarded as "the founder of the mediæval constitution." During his reign the administrative system of the Crown was consolidated and the Wardrobe became the special school of the Edwardian statesmen. Simultaneously, the three great courts of common law—Exchequer, King's Bench, and Common Pleas—began to assume a definite form. But Edward's greatest work was the establishment upon sure foundations of the parliamentary system. He converted to the use of the Crown the expedient which had been employed by Simon de Montfort in 1265, and three years after his accession summoned an assembly which included not only the magnates, but also representatives of the shires, cities, and boroughs. The early years of his reign constituted a period of experiment which culminated in the so-called "Model Parliament" of 1295. In this assembly the lower clergy, as well as the knights of the shire and the burgesses, were represented, and from it the continuous history of our parliamentary institutions may be said to date. [Parliament.] Edward's external relationships were no less important than his domestic policy. He completed the conquest of Wales, which had proved too tough a problem for his Norman and Angevin predecessors. Llewelyn, Prince of North Wales, who had been on the side of Earl Simon, was brought to submission in 1277. His brother David was his enemy and was favoured and rewarded by Edward. Subsequently, however, the brothers were reconciled, and in 1282 they rose against the king. Llewelyn was defeated and slain. David was captured and put to death as a traitor at Shrewsbury. By the Statute of Wales of 1284, the newly-conquered country was annexed to the English crown, and to it the English shire-system was extended, although local custom was allowed to persist unless it conflicted directly with English interests. In the case of Scotland, Edward's efforts at absorption were unsuccessful. On the failure of the heirs of William the Lion he was called upon to adjudicate upon the question of the succession to the Scottish throne (1291). He decided in favour of John Baliol; but took the opportunity of defining the relation of the Scottish to the English crown, and of reasserting that overlordship which had been recognized by the Treaty of Falaise (1174).

The ill-judged vigour with which he asserted his rights aroused, however, the indignation of the Scots, and soon resulted in open revolt. In 1296 Edward invaded and conquered Scotland, deposed Baliol, and ruled the kingdom as his own. Meantime, Philip IV of France had taken the opportunity to seize Gascony, and the Scots looked to France for help in their struggle with England. At this juncture a serious constitutional crisis occurred in England. Edward had made heavy demands on the wealth of the Church. In obedience to the bull *Clericis Laicos* (q.v.) issued by Pope Boniface VIII, Archbishop Winchelsey and the clergy now refused to submit to further taxation. The king responded by putting them outside the protection of the law. The merchants were irritated by Edward's heavy taxation and arbitrary seizure of their wool; the earls disliked his whole policy, which threatened seriously to lessen their power—all classes were, in fact, united in opposition to the royal authority. Edward commanded the constable and marshal to lead a force to Gascony, while he went to Flanders, and they flatly refused. The archbishop and the king were reconciled, and Edward set sail, but the position of affairs was so threatening that he was forced to grant the confirmation of the Charters, wherein he promised henceforth to levy no such exactions as had recently been imposed, save by common consent of the realm. This concession marks an important epoch in our constitutional progress. In 1300 by the *Articuli Super Cartas* the king confirmed his pledge afresh, but some irritation still lingered in men's minds, and found expression in the Parliament of Lincoln (1301), as a result of which he was compelled to issue a third and final confirmation.

In the meantime his conquest of Scotland had proved of short duration. Instead of reducing the Scots to submission he had succeeded only in rousing their national opposition. In 1297 a revolt took place in the lowlands under William Wallace, who defeated the English near Stirling. The revolt was crushed next year by the defeat of Wallace at Falkirk. The war, however, lingered on until 1304. Meanwhile, peace was made with France, and Edward married as his second wife Margaret, sister of Philip IV. In 1305 Wallace was taken and put to death. Edward now fully annexed Scotland and issued an ordinance, following the general lines of the Statute of Rhuddlan, for the settlement of its government. But in 1306 Robert Bruce, grandson of one of the claimants of 1291, who up to this time had adhered to Edward, revolted, killed the regent Comyn, and was crowned king at Scone. Bruce was defeated by the Earl of Pembroke, but still remained unconquered. Edward marched northwards against him, but, on his march, died at Burgh-on-Sands in 1307, in his sixty-ninth year.

The founding of our parliamentary system, the organization of the law courts, the series of great statutes, and the general progress of the constitution mark the reign of Edward as of the first importance. Last but not least among the achievements of the greatest of the Plantagenets must be mentioned his military reforms. In the course of the Welsh wars he laid the foundations of that paid professional force which in the fourteenth century finally ousted the obsolescent feudal host, and won for English arms a European reputation on the fields of Crecy and Poitiers.

T. F. Tout, "Edward I"; E. Jenks, "Edward I"; J. E. Morris, "Welsh Wars of Edward I"; General works dealing with the period are: T. F. Tout, "Political History of England, 1216–1377"; Sir J. Ramsay, "Dawn of the Constitution." The legal and constitutional aspects of the reign are dealt with in W. S. Holdsworth, "History of English Law," 1923; Pollock and Maitland, "History of English Law." For the administrative history of the period see T. F. Tout, "Chapters in Mediæval Administrative History," 1920, etc.

Edward II, King (*b.* 1284, *s.* 1307, *d.* 1327), was the fourth son of Edward I and Eleanor of Castile, but the death of his three elder brothers made him heir to the throne when an infant. He received the title of Prince of Wales in 1301. In 1297 he was appointed regent in his father's absence, and in this capacity issued the famous *Confirmatio Cartarum* (q.v.). In 1306 he was solemnly knighted by his father, whom he accompanied on his expedition to Scotland. During this expedition Edward I died, having on his death-bed entreated his son not to recall Piers Gaveston (q.v.), his comrade and favourite, who had just been banished, and to continue the war against the Scots. Both these requests, or injunctions, were disregarded; the Scottish expedition was abandoned, and Gaveston was not only recalled, but created Earl of Cornwall, and during the king's absence in France made "custos" of the kingdom. From this date till 1312 the barons were struggling against the favourite and the king's misgovernment. In April 1308 a parliament of magnates met and demanded the exile of Gaveston; but next year Edward recalled him and won over the barons by timely promises of amendment. His second tenure of power was, however, even shorter than his first. A baronial parliament met under arms in March 1310 and forced upon the king a comprehensive programme of reform. A committee of twenty-one lords was appointed, and these in 1311 drew up a series of ordinances which practically put the royal power into commission. In 1312 Gaveston was seized by the barons, and put to death. The revolution threw all power into the hands of Earl Thomas of Lancaster, the king's cousin, and the baronial party. The defeat at Bannockburn in 1314 destroyed what little influence Edward still possessed, and till 1321 Lancaster was supreme. In the meantime, however, Edward had found a new favourite in the person of Hugh le Despenser, and the high-handed conduct of Lancaster had alienated many of the more moderate

barons from him. A middle party began to form under the leadership of Earl Aymer of Pembroke, and in 1318 the Treaty of Leak was concluded, through their intervention, between the king and Lancaster. Henceforward the power of Earl Thomas steadily declined. The rise of the Despensers led to a temporary revival of the baronial cause in 1321, and the favourites were exiled. Next year, however, the king's opportunity came. Availing himself of a dispute with Lord Badlesmere, he raised an army, and turning upon Lancaster defeated and captured him at Boroughbridge (q.v.). Lancaster was at once beheaded, the ordinances of 1311 were repealed, and the baronial party for the time was crushed. For the next few years the Despensers were supreme, and under their inspiration the royal authority was revived, and drastic administrative reforms were instituted. The greed and selfishness of the new favourites neutralized the good effects of their legislation, and precipitated a further revolution. It would seem that the queen was jealous of the power of the Despensers; at all events, she intrigued with Roger Mortimer (q.v.), now the leader of the barons, against her husband. She had been sent over to France to arrange a dispute between her husband and her brother, and, being followed by Mortimer and others, she collected troops, and in 1326 landed in England, where she was joined by many of the barons. The Despensers were captured and executed and the king himself taken prisoner, and shortly afterwards compelled to abdicate. The fate of Edward is somewhat doubtful, though it is generally accepted that he was secretly murdered in Berkeley Castle on September 21, 1327. The character of Edward II was singularly despicable. He was devoid of self-control, firmness, and dignity, and spent his time in the society of favourites and parasites. His reign is a miserable one; defeat and disgrace abroad, treachery and misgovernment at home: nowhere can we find conduct that is praiseworthy. The people, contrasting the irresolute and weak-minded king with his noble and brave father, were led to believe that he was no true son of Edward I, but a changeling, and not a voice was raised against his deposition. Edward II was the weakest of the Plantagenets, and showed none of the vigour and capacity for government which distinguished most of his family. "An utter want of serious purpose blasted his whole career." By his marriage with Isabella of France he had two sons, Edward and John, and two daughters, Eleanor and Joan.

T. F. Tout, "Place of Edward II in English History," 1914, and "Captivity and Death of Edward II," 1920; J. C. Davis, "Baronial Opposition to Edward II," 1918; J. Griffith, "Edward II in Glamorgan," 1904; Sir J. Ramsay, "Genesis of Lancaster"; T. F. Tout, "Chapters in Mediæval Administrative History," 1920, etc.

[S. L.]

Edward III, King (*b.* November 13, 1312, *s.* January 1327, *d.* June 21, 1377), eldest son of Edward II and Isabella of France, was born at Windsor. On the deposition of his father the young prince was appointed guardian of the kingdom (October 1326), and crowned early the following year. During his minority the government was entrusted to a council of regency, of which Henry of Lancaster was the chief. The administration, however, was really usurped by Queen Isabella and her favourite, Roger Mortimer (q.v.). But the latter was unpopular with the baronage, and had incurred general dislike by the treaty negotiated with the Scots in 1328, by which the independence of Scotland was recognized. In 1330 the king, who deeply resented Mortimer's arrogance, found no difficulty in forming a powerful combination against the favourite. Mortimer was accordingly seized at Nottingham, taken to the Tower (October 1330), and executed a month afterwards; while the queen mother was imprisoned at Castle Rising, where she passed the remainder of her life. Henceforward the government was in Edward's own hands. He immediately renewed the English attempts on Scotland, assisted Edward Baliol in his endeavour to drive out the Bruce dynasty in 1332, and invaded Scotland in 1333. In July of this year he inflicted a great defeat on the Scots at Halidon Hill (q.v.); reduced the south of Scotland to submission, and caused Baliol to be proclaimed king of the portion beyond the Forth. The country, however, was far from subdued, and Edward's nominee, Baliol, was driven from his throne, and obliged to quit the country till restored by the English. In 1336 Edward again led a great expedition into Scotland, and ravaged all the south-east of the country. Meanwhile difficulties with France were arising, chiefly because of the disputes between Philip of Valois and the Flemings, the interruption of the Anglo-Flemish trade, and the aggression of Philip in Aquitaine. In 1337 Edward engaged in an alliance with the Low German princes, and concluded a league with the Emperor Louis V, who next year at Coblenz appointed him vicar-general of the empire. In the late summer of 1339 Edward advanced into France, but the French retreated before him, and the campaign was a fiasco. Late in 1339 Edward came to terms with van Artevelde, the leader of the Flemish burgher party, with whom he had long been in negotiation; and at the beginning of the next year he laid formal claim to the French crown, at the instigation of his new allies. In 1340 the English fleet, commanded by the king, won the first real success of the war—a great naval victory over the French at Sluys, after which the army landed and laid siege to Tournay. A truce was concluded which brought to an end the German or Netherlandish phase of the war; and Edward suddenly returned to England to effect an administrative revolution by displacing the chancellor (Robert Stratford, Bishop of Chichester) and the treasurer (Roger

Northburgh, Bishop of Coventry), and imprisoning several of the judges, under the impression that the corruption of the chief officials of the government had prevented his receiving the proper return from the taxes. Mistrusting clerical influence, Edward appointed a layman, Sir Robert Bourchier, chancellor. The Archbishop of Canterbury, John Stratford (brother of the disgraced chancellor and president of the council in Edward's absence), was, however, the chief scapegoat, and Edward launched a bitter attack against him. The archbishop demanded trial by his peers, and, in face of a widespread opposition, Edward was forced to acquiesce. He summoned a parliament, which extorted from him a statute embodying the most far-reaching principles of constitutional reform. In October 1341, however, the king revoked the statute, confessing that "he had dissembled as he ought" owing to the pressure put upon him. He did not renew his operations in France till 1342, when he again led an expedition against France, this time on behalf of de Montfort, who claimed the succession to the duchy of Brittany against Joan of Penthièvre. Nothing effectual, however, was done till 1346, when Edward landed at La Hogue, in Normandy, although, it would seem, his original purpose had been to join Henry of Lancaster in Gascony. After plundering and burning the rich countryside at will, Edward marched in the direction of Paris, designing to make his way thence to the Flemish frontier. But the French king, with a large army, was between him and Flanders on the right bank of the Seine. By a feint upon Paris Edward crossed the river, and advanced towards the Somme, which he also crossed near Abbeville, and then won the great victory of Crécy (August 6, 1346). Advancing to Calais, Edward blockaded the town, and captured it after a twelvemonth's siege. The exhaustion of his own kingdom was so great that the king was unable to follow up these successes, and he returned to England after concluding a truce, which was renewed from time to time until 1355. In that year the king himself led an army from Calais, but effected nothing, and was obliged to return home to repel a Scottish raid. He advanced into Scotland, laying waste the border districts with great cruelty. In France the campaign of the Black Prince in the south-west was signalized by the splendid victory of Poitiers, and the capture of the French king, John (September 19, 1356). During the truce that followed, the Scottish king, David, taken prisoner at Neville's Cross (October 17, 1346), was released, and peace was made with Scotland (1357). In 1358 preliminaries of peace were concluded with the captive King John in London, but the terms, which were excessively severe, were rejected by the French estates. In 1359 Edward again invaded France, and laid waste Champagne. In 1360 (May 8) peace was at last made at Brétigny, and the English obtained all Aquitaine, including the counties of Poitou, Saintonge, Périgord, Limoges, and Cahors, besides Calais and Ponthieu, and a sum of three million gold crowns as ransom for the French king. The treaty, however, was never carried out, and in 1369 the war, which had continued without interruption in Brittany, once more broke out in the south; the discontented Gascon subjects of the Black Prince (q.v.) appealing against him to the French king. With the later phases of the conflict Edward had little personal concern. Following upon the illness and death of the Black Prince the English fortunes steadily waned. Aquitaine and Guienne were gradually recovered by the French, so that at the end of Edward's reign little remained of all his conquests but Calais and Bordeaux.

The later years of Edward's reign were passed in a state of partial retirement from public affairs. Old before his time, and worn out by the fatigues of his toilsome career, Edward resigned himself to the influence of his mistress, Alice Perrers (q.v.), and allowed the government to be largely carried on by John of Gaunt. Of the struggles between the baronial and clerical parties, and between the reforming party in the Good Parliament, who looked to the Black Prince, and the Lancastrians, the king was an almost passive spectator. In 1376, when Edward the Black Prince died, the king was called upon by the parliament to take action against papal and clerical encroachments. This, however, he refused to do. The following year saw the influence of the Lancastrians restored, and a parliament elected under their influence, which reversed all the measures of the Good Parliament (q.v.). In 1377 the old king, who had now lost all consideration and influence, died almost alone, having been deserted by nearly all his relatives and attendants before his death. The splendid military exploits of Edward's reign in later times threw a false glamour round his reign. But though military glory was the ambition of his life, it can scarcely be said that he was a great general. His successes were due to the splendid fighting material at his command and to the defects of his opponents, rather than to his strategical or tactical ability. Nor can he be said to merit the name of statesman. He was great neither as an administrator nor as a legislator. His financial management was so bad that he was constantly overwhelmed by debt; his conquests were transient and ill-conceived; and he altogether failed to realize the gravity of the constitutional and social crisis which was coming to a head in his reign. And though anxious to shine as the ideal champion of chivalry, he was both cruel and treacherous.

T. F. Tout, "Political History of England, 1216–1377," 1920; W. Longman, "Life and Times of Edward III," 1869; J. Mackinnon, "History of Edward III," 1900; T. F. Tout, "Chapters in Mediæval Administrative History," 1920, etc.; Sir J. Ramsay, "Genesis of Lancaster." [S. L.]

Edward IV, King (*b.* April 28, 1442, *s.* June 29, 1461, *d.* April 9, 1483), the son of Richard, Duke of York, and Cicely Neville, sister of Richard, Earl of Salisbury, was born in the castle of Rouen, when his father was governor of France. He was brought up by Sir Richard Crofte, in the castle of Ludlow. When the Duke of York advanced his claim to the crown in 1460, the young Earl of March was sent to gather troops on the Welsh borders. There he heard the news of his father's defeat and death at Wakefield on December 21. He hastened northwards, but was pursued by Jasper, Earl of Pembroke, on whom he turned, and inflicted a crushing defeat at Mortimer's Cross, near Wigmore, on February 2, 1461. The advance of Queen Margaret's lawless northern troops excited the fear of the Londoners. Edward, therefore, on marching to London, was hailed as king on March 4. Joined by his cousin Richard, Earl of Warwick, he hastened northwards, and met the Lancastrian army at Towton, where he won a bloody battle on March 29. He returned to London, and was crowned on June 29. The parliament, which met in November, recognized Edward IV as succeeding to the rights of Richard II, and attainted Henry VI of high treason. The youth, the handsome appearance, the geniality, and the practical vigour of Edward IV made him at once popular, and gave every expectation of a prosperous reign. Queen Margaret, with foreign help, still held out in Northumberland; but the victories of Hedgeley Moor (q.v.) and Hexham (q.v.) in 1464, and the capture of Henry VI in 1465, seemed to secure Edward IV on the throne, and the Commons recognized the fact by granting him tunnage and poundage for life. But the young king imperilled his position by an imprudent marriage with the Lady Elizabeth Grey of Groby, the widowed daughter of a Lancastrian baron, Richard Woodville, Lord Rivers, who had married Jacquetta of Luxemburg, widow of his former master, the Duke of Bedford. This marriage displeased the Earl of Warwick and the Nevilles, who had planned a French alliance, which would have secured Edward IV's throne from foreign attacks in aid of the Lancastrians. The marriage was celebrated secretly in May 1464, and was not declared till September 29. Soon Edward IV showed an intention of raising his wife's relations to power as a counterpoise to the Nevilles, who tried to keep him dependent on themselves. The breach between the king and the Earl of Warwick rapidly widened, and in 1467 there was an open rupture. Warwick wished for an alliance with France, but Edward IV turned to Burgundy, and at the very time when Warwick was at the French court negotiating with Louis XI he promised the hand of his sister Margaret to the young Duke Charles the Bold. The king's brother, the Duke of Clarence, followed the usual policy of the heir presumptive, and sided with Warwick. The hopes of the Lancastrians revived. Edward IV's popularity had gone, and in 1469 there was a rising in the north of discontented peasantry, led by "Robin of Redesdale." The Duke of Clarence declared his alliance with the Earl of Warwick by marrying his daughter Isabella at Calais. Warwick and Clarence joined the malcontent commons in pressing for reforms. Edward IV was unprepared for resistance, and was made prisoner by Archbishop Neville. But Warwick saw that a division between the Yorkists meant the success of the Lancastrians. Edward IV was released, and a pacification was made. In March 1470 there was a rising in Lincolnshire, headed by Sir Robert Wells, which Edward IV put down with promptitude and sternness. He announced that he had gained proofs that Warwick and Clarence were implicated and were plotting against him. They fled to France, and entered into negotiations with Queen Margaret, who was induced by Louis XI to agree to a reconciliation, based on a marriage between the young Prince Edward and Warwick's daughter, Anne. Edward IV showed unexpected carelessness, and when, in September 1470, Warwick landed in England as the champion of the Lancastrian cause, was not prepared to meet him. Finding himself deserted on every side, he fled to Flanders, and a Lancastrian restoration was easily accomplished. Gathering a few troops, with the reluctant support of Charles the Bold, Edward IV landed on March 14, 1471, at Ravenspur, where Henry of Lancaster had landed in 1399. Like him, he declared at first that he had only come to claim his ancestral possessions, the duchy of York. Soon he was proclaimed king, and pressed on to Coventry, where Warwick was stationed. Warwick, advised by Clarence to await his arrival with reinforcements, refused to give battle. Clarence betrayed his father-in-law and joined his brother, who hastened to London. Warwick pursued, and a bloody battle was fought at Barnet on Easter Day (April 14, 1471), in which Warwick was slain. The victorious king then turned against Queen Margaret, who had landed at Weymouth. He overtook her forces at Tewkesbury, where he again conquered on May 4, and treated his captives with ruthless severity. On May 21 Edward IV returned in triumph to London, and on the same night Henry VI was reported to have died in the Tower. The king was now rid of his enemies. The Lancastrian claimants were destroyed, the powerful nobles had fallen, Edward was secure upon the throne, the people were weary of war, and there was no one to oppose the will of the king. Edward used his victory as a means of extortion. He gathered great sums of money, and his obsequious parliament granted him large supplies. He obtained money by benevolences and was a skilful beggar! One day he called on a rich widow, who gave him £20 for his pretty face, and doubled the sum when he gave her a kiss.

The professed object for which he gathered money was a war against France. He allied himself with Charles of Burgundy, and revived the old claim of Edward III on the French crown. In July 1475 he led an army to Calais. The expedition was a fiasco. The Duke of Burgundy was engaged elsewhere, and did not join him. He sent him a message to advance to St. Quentin; when Edward arrived there he was greeted by fire from the walls. Indignant at such treatment, he listened to the overtures of Louis XI, who was willing to pay a large sum for the friendship of England. The English nobles were open to the bribes of France, and a truce for seven years was concluded, on condition that Louis XI paid 75,000 crowns, gave Edward IV a pension of 50,000 crowns, and betrothed the dauphin to Edward's daughter, Elizabeth. The two kings met, August 29, on the bridge of Pecquigny, which was divided by a lattice-work into two halves. There the peace was sworn, and Edward IV returned with profit if not with glory to England. Edward's policy of peace was, however, wise for England. Commerce flourished, and the king himself was a successful merchant. He was given to pleasure, and loved magnificence. His court was disturbed by the quarrels of his brothers, the Dukes of Clarence and Gloucester. Clarence was wayward, and at last Edward resolved to rid himself of his troublesome brother. Before a parliament, which was summoned in 1478, he accused Clarence of many offences, chiefly of plotting with the Lancastrians in 1470. Clarence was attainted, and met his death in the Tower. For the next five years there was no parliament. Edward preferred to raise money by stretching his prerogative to the utmost. The disturbed state of Scotland under James III gave Edward some hope of extending his power in that direction, and the Duke of Gloucester was sent with an army to help the Duke of Albany against the Scottish king. No permanent result was gained save that Berwick was restored to the English king. Nor was Edward more successful in his scheme for founding a strong dynasty by means of family alliances. He projected marriages for his daughters, but they all failed. Louis XI of France did not abide by the Peace of Pecquigny, but in 1483 contracted the dauphin to Margaret of Austria, rejecting the marriage with Elizabeth of England. Edward was stung by the feeling that he was regarded as an upstart by the courts of Europe. He showed signs of again reviving his military schemes, but was seized by an illness, the result of evil living, and died on April 9, 1483, in his forty-first year. He was a favourer of learned men, cultivated, and magnificent. His personal qualities made him popular to the end. But he was cruel, extortionate, and profligate. The death of Clarence shows that he was without natural feeling, and had all the cold-heartedness of a selfish libertine. In the wickedness of his private character he is rivalled only by John amongst the kings of England.

Sir C. Oman, "Political History of England, 1377–1485," 1906; C. Scofield, "Edward IV"; L. Stratford, "Edward IV," 1910; J. Gairdner, "Introduction to the Paston Letters," 6 vols., 1904. [M. C.]

Edward V, King (*b.* November 1470, *r.* April 9—June 22, 1483, *d.* 1483), the eldest son of Edward IV, was created Prince of Wales in 1471, and in 1479 Earl of Pembroke. In 1482 he was sent to Ludlow, in the Welsh Marches, being under the guardianship of his uncle, Earl Rivers, and attended by other members of the Woodville party. He was at Ludlow when his father died, and almost immediately set out for London. On April 29 he reached Stony Stratford, where he was met the next day by the Duke of Gloucester, who had arrested Lord Rivers and Lord Richard Grey at Northampton. The king renewed his journey under Gloucester's charge, and reached London on May 4. The council proceeded to recognize Richard as protector, and the coronation was fixed for June 22. The young king was lodged in the Tower, his mother having taken sanctuary at Westminster on hearing of the arrest of Rivers and Grey. On June 13 Hastings was arrested and executed without trial, and a few days later Rivers and Grey were beheaded at Pontefract, whither they had been taken by Richard's orders. Shortly after this the queen was compelled to deliver up the young Duke of York to Richard, who sent him to join his brother in the Tower. The king's deposition seems now to have been determined upon. On June 22 Dr. Shaw, brother of the lord mayor, delivered a sermon at Paul's Cross, in which he insisted that Edward V and his brother were illegitimate, Edward IV having been married, or at all events betrothed, to Lady Eleanor Butler previously to his marriage with Elizabeth Woodville. On the 25th a deputation of nobles and citizens of London waited on Richard, offering him the crown, which he accepted, and the next day began to reign as Richard III. Meanwhile, the two young princes remained in the Tower, where, at some time between June and October, they were certainly put to death by their uncle's orders. The mystery in which this crime was involved has led many writers to doubt whether the murder actually took place, but it must be remembered that even on the supposition that Richard, Duke of York, escaped, Edward must have been murdered, and it would have been the height of folly for Richard III to have put one of his nephews to death and allowed the other to escape. Nor are the murderers likely to have done their work so badly as to have suffered the escape of a boy, who, even if not taken by surprise, would have been utterly unable to resist them. Gairdner, who thoroughly investigated the whole circumstances of the case, sums up the details of the murder thus: "Some time after Richard had set out on his progress (August

1483), he sent a messenger named John Green to Sir Robert Brackenbury, the constable of the Tower, commanding him to put his two young nephews to death. This order Brackenbury would not obey, and Green returned to his master at Warwick. Richard was greatly mortified, but sent one Sir James Tyrell to London, with a warrant to Brackenbury to deliver up to him for one night all the keys of the Tower. Tyrell thus took the place into his keeping, and engaged the services of Miles Forest, one of those who kept the prince's chamber, and John Dighton, his own groom, to carry out the wishes of the tyrant. These men entered the chamber when the two unfortunate lads were asleep and smothered them under pillows; then having called Sir James to see the bodies, buried them at the foot of a staircase." The details of the murder were obtained from a confession made by Sir James Tyrell in 1502, when he was imprisoned in the Tower on a charge of treason, and there is no reason for doubting its substantial accuracy; in addition to which, the story was corroborated by a discovery made in the reign of Charles II, when, under the staircase leading to the chapel in the White Tower, the skeletons of two young lads, whose apparent ages agreed with those of the unfortunate princes, were found buried.

J. Gairdner, "Richard III," 1878 and 1898.

[S. L.]

Edward VI, King (*b.* October 12, 1537, *s.* January 28, 1547, *d.* July 6, 1553), was the son of Henry VIII and Jane Seymour, and was born at Hampton Court. He was carefully educated under the attention of reforming divines, and became a zealous adherent of the new views of religion. By the will of Henry VIII he succeeded to the throne under the regency of a council of eighteen members, most of whom were Reformers; and, in defiance of the will, the king's uncle, Edward Seymour, Earl of Hertford, afterwards Duke of Somerset, obtained for himself the title of protector, with the practical control of the government. In religious matters the young king was willing to second the reforming projects of Cranmer, and willingly assented to the publication of the new liturgy in the Prayer Book of 1549 and the Act of Uniformity. As early as 1542 a plan had been set on foot for the marriage of Edward with the infant Princess Mary of Scotland; and it was partly in order to force this marriage upon the Scots that Somerset undertook the expedition in 1547, which culminated in the fruitless victory of Pinkie. The ill-success of Somerset's policy, both in home and foreign affairs, brought about his fall. The king, who had chafed at the studious and retired life to which the protector compelled him, easily yielded to the influence of the Earl of Warwick, afterwards Duke of Northumberland, and was probably no unwilling actor in the series of events which established the latter's ascendancy. Edward, though he now took a lively interest in public affairs, as his literary remains show, was still studious and much interested in religious matters. In 1552 Cranmer issued a revised liturgy, known as the Second Prayer Book of King Edward VI, and the Forty-two Articles, which were of a thoroughly Protestant tendency. [Articles of Religion.] Meanwhile Edward was failing. He was always delicate, and his health, it is said, had been greatly injured by Warwick removing him to Windsor in 1550. Convinced of the necessity of preserving the Protestant Settlement, he allowed himself to be persuaded by Northumberland to alter the settlement of the crown as arranged in Henry VIII's will, and to make a will excluding Mary and Elizabeth from the succession in favour of Lady Jane Grey, the daughter of Henry's niece, Frances, Countess of Suffolk, and daughter-in-law of Northumberland, which was subscribed by the privy council, June 21, 1553. Then Edward failed rapidly, and on July 6 died; Northumberland being supposed by many to have hastened the end by poison. There is, however, no authentic evidence to confirm the suspicion. Edward would seem to have had much of the Tudor talent and some of the Tudor vices. His abilities were considerable. He was an accomplished scholar for his age, and his writings show a sagacity altogether beyond his years.

Nicholls, "Literary Remains of Edward VI," 1857; and biographies by F. G. Lee, 1886, and Sir C. R. Markham, 1907; L. F. Salzmann, "England in Tudor Times," 1926.

Edward VII, King (*b.* November 9, 1841, *s.* January 22, 1901, *d.* May 6, 1910), was the eldest son of Queen Victoria and Prince Albert. He was educated at Oxford and Cambridge and spent much of his early life in foreign travel, visiting Italy (1859), Canada and the United States (1860), Germany (1861), the Balkans and Egypt (1862), France (1862), Denmark (1864), and Russia (1866). On March 10, 1863, he married Alexandra (q.v.), daughter of Christian IX of Denmark. Their eldest son, the Duke of Clarence, died in 1892 at the age of 28; their second son succeeded to the throne in 1910 as King George V (q.v.). In 1871 Edward VII suffered a severe attack of fever, from which he did not recover until February 1872. The national joy at his recovery completely destroyed the unpopularity into which he had fallen in 1870 as a result of his alleged implication in the Mordaunt divorce scandal. He visited Russia again in 1874, and in 1885 he went to Berlin on the occasion of the eighty-fifth birthday of the Emperor Wilhelm I. The Indian and Colonial Institute was founded by him (to commemorate Queen Victoria's Jubilee) in 1886. Two years later he was again in Berlin, and in 1894 he paid his third visit to Russia at the time of the death of the Tsar Alexander III. Meanwhile his second son, George, had married Princess Victoria Mary of Teck (1893), while his eldest and second

daughters Louise and Maud, married respectively the Duke of Fife (1889) and Prince Charles of Denmark (1896). Queen Victoria's Diamond Jubilee was commemorated (1897) by his inauguration of the Prince of Wales's Hospital Fund. In 1900 an attempt was made upon his life at a Brussels railway station, during the wave of British unpopularity which was sweeping over the continent as a result of the Boer War. Queen Victoria died on January 22, 1901, and the prince, who had always been kept by her in a position of filial subordination in which he could not "lead or guide or dictate to" her, became king, with a title different from any before held by British sovereigns—"by the grace of God of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, and of the British dominions beyond the seas, King, Defender of the Faith, Emperor of India." His coronation was postponed owing to his sudden illness, and did not take place until August 9, 1902. He began his reign by a series of state visits in 1903—to Portugal and Italy (April), to France (May), and to Austria-Hungary (August). The most important of these was the visit to France, which President Loubet returned in July, and which successfully dispelled a heavy cloud of Franco-British distrust and paved the way for the Entente of April 1904. The king paid visits also to Scotland and Ireland (1903–4), Kiel (1905), and France again in 1905 and 1908. In 1908 also he visited the Tsar of Russia a few months after the Anglo-Russian Agreement of 1907, to the satisfaction of France and the disapproval of the German Emperor, Wilhelm II. Edward VII and the Kaiser Wilhelm II were never on terms of personal cordiality. Meanwhile at home the king left the conduct of affairs to the prime minister and the cabinet more than Queen Victoria had done, on account partly of his ignorance of the diplomatic details of foreign and domestic policy, and partly of his many and wide interests outside matters of state. He lived in cordial relationship to his three prime ministers—Mr. Balfour (till 1905), Sir Henry Campbell-Bannerman (till 1908), and Mr. Asquith (till 1910); was not disquieted by the fall of the Conservatives in 1905; took an interest in John Burns, the Labour cabinet minister; disapproved of woman's suffrage; feared the possible results of South African self-government; and was uneasy over the Lloyd George budget of 1909. He strongly deplored the raising of the House of Lords reform issue towards the close of his reign, but he abstained from comment when the text of the Commons' Parliament Bill was circulated in April 1910. He died on May 6, before the controversy reached its height, from the effects of bronchitis resulting from a cold which he had contracted at Biarritz in April.

Biography by Sir Sidney Lee, 2 vols., 1925-7; G. Murray, "Reign of Edward VII," 1925; Viscount Esher, "Influence of King Edward," 1915.

[A. C. F. B.]

Edward THE ATHELING (better known as Edward the Exile) (*d.* 1057) was the son of Edmund Ironside, and on the death of his father, in 1017, he was sent by Canute to the court of Boleslav of Poland, whence he was later transferred to Hungary. Here he lived under the protection of King Stephen, who married him to Agatha, a kinswoman of the Emperor Henry III. In 1054 Edward the Confessor sent for him as being the nearest heir to the throne, and he came to England in 1057, but died almost immediately after he had landed. He left three children—Edgar the Atheling, Margaret, and Christina.

Edward THE BLACK PRINCE (1330–76) was the eldest son of Edward III and of Philippa, and was born at Woodstock, June 15, 1330. He was created Earl of Chester in 1333, Duke of Cornwall in 1337, and Prince of Wales in 1343. When only sixteen years of age he was in nominal command of one of the divisions of the English army at Crécy, and throughout the French wars he played an important part. In 1355 he commanded the army which invaded south-eastern France. The next year, marching northwards, he met and defeated the army of King John (Poitiers, September 19, 1356). In 1361 he married Joan, the "Fair Maid of Kent" (q.v.), and in 1362 was created Duke of Aquitaine, and received as his patrimony the possessions of the English crown in the south of France, the government of which he assumed in 1363. In 1367 he undertook an expedition into Spain, to assist Don Pedro of Castile in regaining the throne of which he had been deprived by Henry of Trastamara, aided by the French. Edward crossed the Pyrenees at the head of a large army, and at Navarrete (Najera) the Black Prince won the third of his great victories, and completely defeated Pedro's rival, Prince Henry, with his French allies under du Guesclin. But the prince's army rapidly wasted away by sickness, and, with his own health fatally impaired, he was compelled to recross the Pyrenees. The burden of debt he had incurred compelled him to impose an unpopular hearth-tax upon his restive Gascon subjects, who appealed against him to the French king. Charles summoned the prince to Paris; but Edward returned a defiant answer and war was resumed between France and England in 1369. Next year Edward took Limoges by storm, and mercilessly put to death all the inhabitants, without distinction of age or sex. This was his only conspicuous success, and it reflects small credit upon the victor of Poitiers. Edward's health was now rapidly failing and in 1371 he returned to England, where he took a prominent part in English politics as the champion of the constitutional policy against the corrupt court and Lancastrian party. He supported the reforming measures of the Commons in the "Good Parliament" (q.v.) of 1376, though by his death (June 8 of that year) the work was to a great extent undone. The

prince was a gallant soldier, but his victories were probably due as much to the great superiority of his troops over the enemy as to his own generalship. Though full of the spurious knight-errantry of the day, he was mercilessly cruel in his campaigns. But in his later years he showed some understanding of the political difficulties in England, and was very popular with the commons.

Biographies by L. Creighton, 1876, and R. P. Dunn-Pattison, 1910. [S. L.]

Edward, son of Henry VI (1453–71), was the only child of the king by Margaret of Anjou. In 1454 he was created Prince of Wales; the Yorkists asserting that he was either a bastard or a changeling. In the parliament of 1460 he was disinherited in favour of Richard, Duke of York. After the battle of Towton he accompanied his mother to Scotland and thence to the continent. In 1470 he married Anne Neville, daughter of the Earl of Warwick, who, with the support of Louis XI and René of Lorraine, invaded England on his behalf. In 1471 he fell in the battle of Tewkesbury, or was put to death immediately afterwards; but the story that he was stabbed by Richard of Gloucester is unproved.

Edward, son of Richard III (1473–84), was the only child of this king and Anne Neville. In 1477 he was created Earl of Salisbury, and in 1483 Prince of Wales and Earl of Chester, and appointed lord-lieutenant of Ireland. In February 1484 the members of the two houses of parliament took an oath to support his succession to the throne, but two months afterwards he died.

Edward, Prince of Wales (*b.* 1894), eldest son of King George V and Queen Mary, was born at White Lodge, Richmond. He entered the Royal Naval College, Dartmouth, in 1909, and in 1911 was invested with the Garter and created Prince of Wales and Duke of Cornwall. On the outbreak of the Great War in 1914 he concluded his university career at Oxford and joined the Grenadier Guards. During the war he served in Flanders, Egypt, and Italy. In 1919 he visited Newfoundland and Canada; in 1920, New Zealand and Australia; in 1921, India and Japan, returning in 1922. In 1925 he paid a visit to South Africa, returning to England by way of the Argentine. He was president of the British Empire Exhibition of 1924–5.

Edwin (Eadwine), King of Northumbria (617–33), was the son of Ella, King of Deira. Having been exiled by Ethelfrith he took refuge with Redwald of East Anglia. After the death of Ethelfrith he obtained possession, as a result of the battle of the Idle, of the two kingdoms of Deira and Bernicia, the sons of Ethelfrith having fled to Scotland. He conquered the little British kingdom of Elmet, obtained suzerainty over Man and Anglesey, defeated and expelled Cadwallon of Gwynedd, extended his kingdom to the Firth of Forth, and founded the great northern stronghold of Edinburgh, which derives its name from him. His most powerful rival was Cwichelm of Wessex, who attempted his assassination. This project failed, and Edwin defeated him in 626; but Penda having made Mercia independent of Northumbria, in alliance with Cadwallon of Wales, who had returned from exile, defeated and slew Edwin at Heathfield in 633. Edwin's reign is chiefly important for the conversion of Northumbria to Christianity. His second wife was Ethelburh, daughter of Ethelbert of Kent, who brought with her as chaplain Paulinus, and their influence, aided by Edwin's escape from assassination and his victory over the West Saxons, was the means of his conversion. He was baptized at York by Paulinus, who became the first bishop of that see. So great was the peace and tranquillity of Northumbria during the height of Edwin's prosperity that, according to Bæda, a woman with her new-born babe might have travelled from sea to sea without sustaining injury. Penda's victory, however, exposed Northumbria once more to the horrors of anarchy, and Christianity was well-nigh extinguished.

Edwy (Eadwig), King (955–8), was the son of Edmund, and succeeded to the throne at the age of fifteen, on the death of his uncle, Edred. The account of his reign in the "Anglo-Saxon Chronicle" is extremely meagre, and subsequent writers who attempt to supply details evidently write with strong prejudice. The early biographer of Dunstan tells us that the young king fell completely under the influence of Æthelgifu, a young widow of princely blood, whose daughter Elgiva (Ælgifu) he married. The alliance was probably uncanonical, and seems to have occasioned general discontent, as well as widespread suspicions of immorality. Dunstan, who opposed the marriage, was exiled, and punishment was meted out to all enemies of "the king's wife's mother." In 957, however, the general discontent found vent in a revolt. The Mercians and Northumbrians broke away and chose Edwy's younger brother Edgar (q.v.) as king; and Archbishop Oda pronounced the marriage of Edwy and Elgiva null and void. The next year Edwy died—whether murdered or not it is impossible to decide. Ethelweard tells us that "he was called by the common people the second Pankalus, meaning all-beautiful," and that he was "much beloved"; but by the majority of the monkish chroniclers he is depicted as a model of precocious vice. His lavish grants to monasteries show that he was not altogether hostile to the movement of ecclesiastical reform; but the memory of his services to the Church was obscured by his fatal quarrel with St. Dunstan. [Dunstan, St.]

Egfrid (Ecgfrith), King of Northumbria (670–85), was the second son and successor of Oswy, being preferred to his elder brother

Alchfrid. The chief interest of his reign lies in his relations with St. Wilfrid (q.v.). He was defeated by Ethelred of Mercia (679) and compelled to surrender Lindsey. He undertook in 684 an expedition against the Scots of Ireland, but was slain by the Picts under King Bruide at the battle of Nechtansmere (685) (q.v.), which marks the end of the Northumbrian supremacy.

Egypt, Relations with. The history of British interference in Egyptian affairs starts appropriately with the landing of a British force in 1801 during a quarrel with France about Turkey. Turkish domination followed European evacuation and Mehemet Ali relieved a half-century of misrule. In 1875 Great Britain bought four million pounds' worth of shares in the Suez Canal, and a consequent financial inquiry revealed the bankruptcy of the khedivate. France, Italy, and Austria were represented on the financial commission appointed by the khedive on the public debt, and Baring (afterwards Lord Cromer) became the British commissioner. Disturbances from 1879 culminated in the rebellion of Arabi against the khedive, when a British fleet bombarded Alexandria and Arabi surrendered at Tel-el-Kebir. British control dates from this interference. Trouble in the Sudan, where Hicks was defeated and Gordon's death at the hands of the followers of the Mahdi (1885) was followed by a punitory expedition under Kitchener (1898) and the settlement of the Sudan. Under Cromer Egypt flourished, her finances being restored and irrigation from the Nile systematically extended. The Anglo-French Convention of 1904 defined their relations to each other and to Egypt. After Cromer returned (1907) political agitation for self-government followed. Kitchener's regime (1911–14) was marked by economic reforms and the rise of the fellah to political consciousness. In 1913 a legislative assembly was granted. In 1914 a British protectorate was established, the hereditary sultanate being preserved. During the Great War martial law was proclaimed. In 1919 the Nationalists demanded autonomy and carried out a systematic agitation in Egypt and in Great Britain. On the fall of the premier, Rushdi (1914–19), disturbances broke out. In 1919 a British commission under Milner was appointed and reported in favour of a dualism in government, by which Egyptian independence and integrity were guaranteed by Great Britain, whose interest was to be consulted only in foreign affairs; the capitulations by which Europeans had been beyond the reach of Egyptian law were abolished, and two British officers were appointed to supervise the public debt and legislation as to foreigners.

Lord Milner, "England in Egypt," 1904; Lord Cromer, "Modern Egypt," 1908; A. E. P. B. Weigall, "History of Events in Egypt, 1798–1914," 1915; V. Chirol, "The Egyptian Problem," 1920. [H. R.]

Eldon, John Scott, 1st Earl (1751–1838). [Scott.]

Eleanor, daughter of King John (*d.* 1274), was married first to William Marshal the Younger, and in 1238, secondly, to Simon de Montfort. This latter marriage seems to have been a secret one, and quarrels soon arose between Henry and de Montfort concerning it. After the death of her husband at Evesham (1265), Eleanor retired to the nunnery of Montargis, where she remained till her death.

Eleanor of Aquitaine (1122 ?–1204) was the daughter of William, Duke of Aquitaine, and heiress to Poitou, Saintonge, Auvergne, Périgord, Angoumois, Guienne, and Gascony, besides inheriting claims to Toulouse. In 1137 she was married to Louis VII, thereby uniting the south with the north of France. With him she went on the Second Crusade (1147), but her conduct on the expedition and subsequently was so light that in 1152 she was divorced from Louis, though the nominal ground for the separation was consanguinity. In the same year she married Henry of Anjou, who, two years later, became King of England. From him she became gradually estranged, and in 1173 encouraged her sons to rebel against their father, for which she was seized and imprisoned, and remained in captivity, with but short intervals, for sixteen years. On her husband's death, she was released by Richard, and made regent of the kingdom in his absence; and during his reign she did all in her power to repress the ambition of John and thwart the designs of Philip Augustus. She supervised the collection of the ransom for Richard, and herself joined him in Germany. At Richard's death, she came forward again as John's chief adviser. She used her influence to exclude Arthur, and took command of the army that reduced Anjou to submission, and subsequently went to Spain to fetch her granddaughter, Blanche of Castile, who was betrothed to Louis VIII. To the last moment of her life she was engaged in political affairs, and shortly before her end was striving hard to keep to their allegiance the English barons, while Philip Augustus was attacking Normandy. Her death was followed by the rapid dissolution of the Angevin Empire.

Eleanor of Brittany (*d.* 1241) was the daughter of Geoffrey Plantagenet and Constance, Duchess of Brittany. After the death of her brother Arthur, she inherited his claim to the English crown, but was kept a prisoner by John in Bristol Castle, where she remained for many years, till she was permitted to retire to the nunnery at Amesbury.

Eleanor of Castile (*d.* 1290), wife of Edward I, was the half-sister of Alfonso X of Castile. At her marriage with Edward in 1254, her brother renounced his pretensions to Gascony. She accompanied her husband on his crusade, and legend said saved his life by sucking the poison from his wound, but the

story is certainly apocryphal. She was crowned with him in August 1274, and, indeed, throughout her life seems seldom to have been absent from his side. Her virtue and amiable character made her greatly beloved by the people. The chroniclers relate that if the least complaint of oppression came anyhow to her ears, she endeavoured to redress the wrong, and that her large revenues were so administered that no oppression by her officers was possible. Archbishop Peckham, however, found it necessary on one occasion to intervene on behalf of some of her overburdened tenants; and she seems to have occasioned some scandal by her dealings with the Jewish usurers. She died at Harby, near Lincoln, in November 1290. Her body was conveyed to Westminster, and at each place where the funeral procession halted a richly-carved cross was erected. Thirteen in all of these crosses were raised, but only three, those at Northampton, Geddington, and Waltham, remain.

Biographies of Edward I.

Eleanor of Provence, Queen (*d.* 1291), wife of Henry III, was the daughter of Raymond Berenger, Count of Provence. The marriage of Henry and Eleanor took place in 1236, and the young queen almost immediately obtained a complete ascendancy over her husband, which she used for the purpose of advancing her friends and relatives. Her uncle, Boniface of Savoy, was made Archbishop of Canterbury, and other important offices were conferred on the queen's numerous relatives, who drained the land by their rapacity and extortion. Still, the Provençal marriage was not without its good results. Provence was at this time the most cultured state in Europe; literature and the arts flourished, and the court was the chosen residence of the troubadours and scholars of Europe. Some of this culture found its way into England, but it hardly compensated for the great unpopularity which this influx of foreigners brought on the king and queen. A quarrel with the citizens of London over the abuse of her rights in the port of Queenhithe, and the rigorous exaction of "queen gold," only increased the general hatred of her. During the king's absence from England in 1253 she was appointed with Richard of Cornwall joint governor of the realm. In 1263 the hatred of the Londoners against her culminated, and when she attempted to join her son Edward at Windsor the mob attacked her and forced her back to the Tower. In the Barons' War, which she more than anyone had helped to bring about, she showed great determination and courage, but after the battle of Lewes had to take refuge in France. After the fall of de Montfort, she returned, and had her revenge on the citizens of London, who were fined 20,000 marks for their conduct towards her. A few years after Edward I's accession she retired to the convent of Amesbury, where she died in 1291.

See under Henry III.

Elections, Parliamentary, are held in virtue of writs issued either by the Crown for a new parliament, or in cases of vacancy while the House is in session, out of Chancery by the Speaker's warrant by order of the House. These writs are addressed to the sheriffs. Until 1405 the sheriff had to make the return in person in forty days. The election was made in full county court, at the next meeting of the court after the writ was received. It appears that some persons were specially summoned to the election, for at the beginning of the fifteenth century the county court was no longer generally attended by great people. Much irregularity seems to have prevailed in the election of knights of the shire during the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries. Sometimes a crowd of the lower class attended the court; sometimes the election was made by a few great people or their stewards; sometimes it was managed by lawyers or interested persons, and often the sheriff ordered matters as he liked. To secure the return being in accordance with the election, it was ordered by 7 Hen. IV, c. 15, that it should be attested by the persons electing in an indenture attached to the writ. The indenture, however, was only signed by a few of those who attended the court, and it seems that sometimes the electors chose certain of their number to exercise the common right of voting. When this was the case, the delegates signed on behalf of the whole body. Elections for cities and boroughs were formally made in the county court under the Plantagenet kings. The obligation of payment of members' wages caused the towns to be anxious to escape from representation. When the electors of a borough had made their choice, it was reported to the sheriff in the court. In case they failed to elect, he caused members to be chosen from them along with the knights of the shire. The ceremony which came in later times to be called the nomination, and to be incorrectly regarded as something different from a mere preliminary of the election, was the ancient election itself in the county court. If more than one candidate was proposed, the election was decided by a show of hands. As a seat in parliament became an object of ambition, the custom arose of taking a poll of other electors who might not at the time be present at the court. A poll was taken only when demanded, and it was at first incorrectly regarded as an act of grace on the part of sheriffs to grant the demand. There was no limit to the time during which the sheriff might keep open the court for the purpose of the poll, save the date on which the writ was returnable. Polling in the eighteenth century sometimes lasted for a month, and in cases in which great efforts were made to secure a seat, the whole period was filled with drunkenness and riot. The disgraceful scenes which marked the Westminster election of 1784 resulted in an act, 25

Geo. III, c. 84, limiting a poll to fifteen days, and ordering that the scrutiny of votes should be closed six days before the return was made. In the ninth year of George IV this period was shortened to nine days in the case of boroughs; by 2 Will. IV, c. 45, to two days both in borough and county elections, and by 16 and 17 Vict., c. 15 and 48 Vict., c. 10, to one day in both. By 35 and 36 Vict., c. 33, the Ballot Act [Ballot, Vote by], a poll follows a disputed nomination as a matter of course, without being specially demanded. The use of voting papers in university elections, provided for by 24 and 25 Vict., c. 53, still continues.

Disputed Elections were, up to the time of Henry IV, decided by the Crown. From 1410 inquiry as to the accuracy of the sheriff's return was made by the judges, the ultimate decision still remaining with the Crown. The House gained the right of deciding these questions at the close of the sixteenth century. In 1553 a committee of the House decided against the validity of the election of Nowell, a prebendary of Westminster. It successfully upheld its right of judgment in these matters against the will of Queen Elizabeth in 1586, in the Norfolk election case; and in 1604, in the case of Sir F. Goodwin, it obtained from the king the admission that it was the proper judge of returns. This jurisdiction was exercised at first by committees specially appointed, and then by the Committee of Privileges and Elections. It became the custom to admit members who were either privy councillors or barristers to this committee, though not nominated to it. From this cause the committee, by the end of the seventeenth century, was held to be open; and for the sake of orderly management these cases were soon tried at the bar of the House. Election petitions were thus decided by a trial of the strength of contending parties, without regard to the facts of the case. To remedy this evil, the Grenville Act, 1770, provided for the election of a committee (by a mixed system of ballot and selection) for the adjudication of election cases. Although this act effected an improvement in the practice of the House, it still left election questions within the area of party politics, and by allowing either party to strike out a certain number of the names chosen by ballot, to commit the decision of these cases to the weakest men of both sides. By the Election Petitions and Corrupt Practices Act, 1868, 31 and 32 Vict., c. 125, these questions were placed under the jurisdiction of the Court of Common Pleas, as far as concerns the facts of an election which has been questioned by petition. Such petition must now, by this act, be presented to the Common Pleas Division of the High Court of Justice, and the corresponding courts in Scotland and Ireland. A judge of these courts tries the petition in the county or borough to which it refers. After he has heard the case, he makes a report to the Speaker as to the validity of the election, the prevalence of corrupt practices, the knowledge of the candidate concerning such practices, and the names of those who are guilty of them. The House then acts on the report in the same way as it would have acted on the report of an election committee. It has thus not surrendered its constitutional right of deciding questions involving the right to its seats; but has merely made over the investigation of some of them to a court of law.

Corrupt Practices at Elections.—These, besides direct bribery, include treating and undue influence of various kinds. By the Corrupt Practices Act, 1868, if the judge reports particular persons as guilty of such practices, the report is laid before the attorney-general, who institutes a prosecution against them at his discretion, without the intervention of the House. If the report declares that such practices have extensively prevailed in a constituency, the House generally suspends the writ, and if the report is confirmed by further inquiry, disfranchises the constituency by act of parliament. The various acts which imply undue influence or corruption were carefully defined by the Corrupt Practices Act of 1883, and very stringent penalties enacted against principals as well as their agents found guilty of these practices. [Bribery.] The House is very strict as regards influence, and in 1641 and 1802 made declarations to the effect that any interference in election matters by peers was a breach of privilege. From the scope of the latter declaration Irish peers elected for a seat in the House are exempt. In practice, peers take part until the writ is issued, and frequently lend conveyances for voters. To secure the freedom of election, an act (10 and 11 Vict., c. 21) orders that soldiers shall be restrained in barracks during the day of a poll, except for the purpose of voting or of necessary duty.

Electors.—When the influence of feudalism on the constitution was destroyed, the lesser tenants-in-chief were merged in the general body of freeholders. In the parliament of Edward I the Commons consisted not of the lesser tenants of the Crown mentioned in Magna Carta, Art. 14, but of representatives elected by the freeholders in counties, by certain electors in boroughs, and by the clergy. In counties the original electors were those who composed the county court in which the election was held. By the end of the fourteenth century it seems that many came to, and took part in, an election who were not suitors of the court. While an act of 1406 restrained the undue power of the sheriff in making returns, it did not give the freeholders the sole right of election. This was not secured until 1430, (8 Hen. VI, c. 7), and was then limited to a part of them. This act declares that elections are wont to be made "by persons of small substance and no value," and limits the right of voting to resident holders of free land of the clear annual value of 40s.; and two years

later it was enacted that the qualifying freehold should lie within the county. By these statutes the quality of tenure, and not the quantity of interest, was regarded. For instance, a life estate in a freehold above the specified value conferred a qualification, while no estate in copyhold could do so, even though it were one of inheritance ; and copyholders were expressly excluded from the franchise by 31 Geo. II, c. 14. The franchise in cities and boroughs before 1832 was determined not by any general statute, but by special acts, by charters, or by usage. Thus in London the parliamentary franchise followed the municipal, and was exercised at different periods by representatives of the wards, by the common councilmen, and by the liverymen of the companies. The exclusive policy of corporations tended to restrict the franchise in most chartered boroughs, so that ultimately a co-optative oligarchy alone had any voice in the election. In some others it had a popular character, and, in default of any contrary usage or charter, belonged to inhabitant householders, or else, as in Bristol, which was a county of itself, to the 40s. freeholders. Borough franchise, indeed, was altogether a matter of local law. The representation of the clergy was the same in extent and mode as in the election of proctors for convocation (q.v.). University representation was established by James I, and in this case the right to vote has belonged to all who by their degree constitute the governing body of the universities, even though non-resident. By the Reform Act of 1832, 2 Will. IV, c. 45 [Reform Bills], the qualification was extended in counties so as to include (1) copyholds, of which persons were seised either in law or equity, either of inheritance or for life, of the clear annual value of £10, (2) leaseholds, for the unexpired portion of a term of sixty years of the annual value of £10, or of a term of twenty years of the annual value of £5, (3) an occupation qualification for a tenant of lands, etc., at a clear rent of £50, paid yearly. While, however, it preserved the qualification conferred (4) by freeholds of inheritance, it provided that freehold estates for life, of which the annual value was less than £10, should not confer a vote, unless there was *bona fide* occupation, or where such freeholds had been acquired by marriage, devise, etc. As regards cities and boroughs, the act retained some rights permanently, e.g., those of the freemen and liverymen of London, of freeholders and burgage tenants in cities which were also counties, etc. Some rights were retained temporarily, as those of freemen and burgage tenants in boroughs, of inhabitant householders, etc., and the franchise was extended in favour of the sole occupiers of any premises of the annual value of £10. In Scotland the county franchise was fixed (2 Will. IV, c. 65) at a £10 ownership, and included some classes of leasehold. The borough franchise included £10 householders. In Ireland at the time of the Catholic Emancipation Act, the qualification in counties was raised from a 40s. to a £10 freehold. In 1832 it was extended by the admission of certain leaseholds and £10 copyholds. By the Reform Act of 1867, 30 and 31 Vict., c. 102, the franchise stood thus—in counties, (1) the old 40s. freeholders in fee ; (2) the holders of a life estate from 40s. to £5, if of freehold tenure and with occupation ; (3) of any life estate above £5 ; (4) of the remainder of a lease of sixty years of the value of £5 ; (5) occupiers of land, etc., for twelve months, rated at not less than £12 ; (6) occupiers whose rent was assessed at £50. In cities and boroughs it was extended to (1) all resident householders or rated occupants of dwelling-houses, after payment of one year's rates ; (2) all rated occupants of premises other than houses, of the value of £10 ; (3) all who had for twelve months been in the separate occupation of the same lodgings, which were, if unfurnished, of the yearly value of £10. The lodger franchise was, by 41 and 42 Vict., c. 26, declared to include an office, studio, shop, etc. A change of apartments in the same house was not held to be a change of lodgings. In Scotland, by 31 and 32 Vict., c. 48, the franchise was granted, in counties, to a £5 ownership and a £14 occupation. A household and a lodger franchise were also fixed in boroughs. In Ireland, by 13 and 14 Vict., c. 69, an estate in fee or for life of the annual value of £5, or an occupation of the value of £12, conferred a vote for a county, and a rated occupation of £8 for a borough election. By the Irish Reform Act, 1868, a household occupation rated at £4 and a lodger franchise of £10 were created in boroughs. In 1884 Gladstone introduced a Reform Bill applying to the whole of the United Kingdom, and assimilating the franchise in counties with that in boroughs. By this measure, which was followed in 1885 by a Redistribution Act, the franchise was granted to (1) all resident male householders or rated occupants of dwelling-houses ; (2) lodgers ; (3) certain persons not occupying separate tenements or apartments, but living in houses occupied by others, who were to vote under what was called the "service franchise." Disqualification under all the Reform Bills attached to females, aliens, infants, etc., to all peers except such Irish peers as had been elected to a seat, to certain revenue officers, to those in receipt of parochial relief, and to some few others. The disabilities of the police were removed in 1887. Irish Catholics were admitted to the franchise in 1793, on taking the oaths of allegiance and abjuration. In 1829 Peel carried a new form of oath, by which Catholics were enabled to vote without doing violence to their convictions. A further advance was made by the Representation of the People Act, 1918, which (1) based the franchise upon a six months' residence in a constituency

or six months' occupation of land or premises of a minimum yearly value of £10, (2) accorded a further vote to holders of university degrees, (3) entitled women of 30 years and over to vote, and (4) regulated the amounts of election expenses. By this act the electorate was increased from 8,357,000 men in 1917 to 10,449,820 men and 7,831,583 women in 1923. This number was further increased by the Equal Franchise Act, 1928 [Reform Bills]. By 5 and 6 Will. IV, c. 36, all electoral oaths were abolished. Everyone claiming to exercise a right to vote must see that his name is registered in a list drawn up by the overseers of the parish in which his qualification lies. These lists are afterwards revised in open court by revising barristers, who decide on objections and claims. An appeal lies to the Common Pleas from the decision of these officers.

Persons Elected.—During the fourteenth century the terms of the writs which specified the condition of men who were to be elected were constantly varied. Efforts were made to procure the election of "belted knights," or at least of squires of good position, as county members, and of men of the higher class of burgesses for borough members; and to exclude sheriffs, lawyers, and "maintainers of quarrels." It was important that the representatives of the commons should be of a rank which would make them independent of Crown influence or of private advantage. Notwithstanding these efforts, it was often found impossible to secure men of the position required by the writs. The exclusion of the clergy in 1371 was the result of special circumstances. Lawyers were several times excluded (e.g., 1402) because it was thought they took advantage of their position as members to forward the interests of their clients. By 1 Hen. V, c. 1, residence was declared a necessary qualification. This statute was, however, constantly disregarded, and is expressly repealed by 14 Geo. III, c. 58. A qualification in real estate was adopted (by 9 Anne, c. 5), and was fixed at £600 a year for county, and £300 for borough members. By 1 and 2 Vict., c. 48, personalty might be reckoned in making up the required sum, and now by 21 and 22 Vict., c. 26, all property qualification is abolished. Disqualification attaches to aliens, infants, etc., to all peers, except Irish non-representative peers, to clergy of the Church of England (by 41 Geo. III, c. 63), to Roman Catholic clergy (by 10 Geo. IV, c. 7), to sheriffs and other returning officers as regards their own sphere of office, to government contractors, bankrupts, and those convicted of felony or of corrupt practices at elections under the acts on that subject. Persons holding certain places of profit under the Crown, which do not include those of the various ministers and officials at the head of the great departments of the State, were disqualified by 6 Anne, c. 7. In most cases, pensions held during pleasure entail disqualification. The Catholic Relief Bill, 1829, admitted Roman Catholics to parliament on taking a special oath provided for such cases. Jews were shut out from the House by the terms of the parliamentary oath until 1858, when the oath was so altered that they were able to take it. [Oaths, Parliamentary.] By 29 and 30 Vict., c. 19, religious disabilities were removed, the sole condition of admission to the House of a member not otherwise disqualified being that he take the oath prescribed by that statute. From this obligation Quakers and some other religious bodies have been exempted, and by an act of 1888 the relief was extended to persons of no religious belief. [Bradlaugh.]

Carter's "Rogers on the Laws of Elections," edn. 1880; J. R. Seager, "Parliamentary Elections under the Reform Act, 1918," 2nd edn., 1921; Sir H. Fraser, "Law of Parliamentary Elections," 1922, and "Representation of the People Acts, 1918–21," 1922; J. R. M. Butler, "Passing of the Great Reform Bill," 1914; C. Seymour, "Electoral Reform in England and Wales, 1832–85," 1915.

Elfgar (Ælfgar), son of Leofric, was made Earl of East Anglia on the outlawry of Harold in 1051, but in the next year, Harold being restored, he lost his earldom. In 1053 he was reinstated through the generosity of Harold, who succeeded in that year to his father's earldom of Wessex. In 1055 he was banished, when he allied himself with the Irish Vikings and the Welsh, but was compelled to submit by Harold, who restored him to his earldom. On the death of Leofric he was made Earl of Mercia. In 1058 he was again outlawed and reverted to his former alliance with Gruffyd of North Wales, but he was again pardoned. He died probably in the year 1062, and was succeeded in his earldom by his son Edwin. His daughter Ealdgyth married (1) Gruffyd (Griffith) of Wales, and (2) Harold.

Elgin, James Bruce, 8th Earl of (1811–63). [Bruce.]

Elgiva (Ælfgifu) was the wife of King Edwy (q.v.). She was apparently within the prohibited degrees, and Dunstan and Oda endeavoured to get Edwy to divorce her. At length, in 958, the marriage was annulled. Political faction probably contributed largely to her fall.

Eliot, Sir John (1592–1632), a member of an old Cornwall family, was educated at Exeter College, Oxford, and studied law in London. In 1614 he entered the "Addled" Parliament as member for St. Germans, and at once rose into prominence as one of the foremost orators of the time. In 1623 Eliot came forward as one of the prominent champions of constitutional rights. In the parliament of 1625 he was strongly in favour of putting into execution the laws against the Roman Catholic recusants. In the second parliament of Charles I (1626) Eliot was the recognized leader of the constitutional party. He moved an inquiry into the mismanagement of the government, and was foremost in demanding that the conduct of Buckingham should be investigated. In

consequence (May 11, 1626), he was imprisoned in the Tower, but set at liberty after a few days. In 1627 Eliot was one of those who, with Hampden and Wentworth, refused to contribute towards the forced loan levied by the Crown, and was imprisoned in the Gatehouse. In the parliament of 1628 he was again foremost in the attack on royal misgovernment, and bore the chief share in drawing up the Remonstrance and Petition of Right. [His three resolutions were read on March 2 while Finch, the Speaker, was held down in his chair.] On the dissolution of the parliament he was imprisoned in the Tower (March 1629). He was kept in confinement, and his health was broken by the harsh treatment he received, and on November 27, 1632, he died. During his imprisonment he wrote a treatise called "Monarchy of Man," which embodied his views on the theory of constitutional monarchy. He was one of the ablest as well as the most estimable of the popular leaders of Charles I's reign.

J. Forster, "Sir J. Eliot," 1864. [S. L.]

Eliott, George Augustus, 1st Baron Heathfield (1717–90), began his military career by serving as a volunteer in the Prussian army in 1735. On returning home he entered the ranks of the Engineers at Woolwich, from which he exchanged a few years later into the Horse Grenadiers. With these troops he served in Germany, and was wounded at Dettingen. After taking part in the expedition to Cherbourg and Havannah, he was appointed to the command of the forces in Ireland (1774), but, owing to some difference with the authorities at Dublin, he very soon resigned and returned to England, whence he was dispatched, as governor, to Gibraltar. In 1779 began the siege of that important fort, and for four years the governor's ability and endurance were taxed to their utmost. In every respect did Eliott show himself equal to the occasion, and he has been handed down to posterity as having conducted one of the most stubborn defences of modern warfare. The value of his services was recognized at home, though tardily. He remained at the post he had held so gloriously till 1787, when he returned to England and was raised to the peerage as Baron Heathfield. In 1790 he died of palsy, just as he was about to set out again for Gibraltar.

Elizabeth, Queen (*b.* September 7, 1533, *s.* November 17, 1558, *d.* March 24, 1603), the daughter of Henry VIII by his second wife Anne Boleyn, was born at Greenwich. On the death of her mother, she was sent to the castle of Hunsdon, where she and her half-sister Mary were brought up by Lady Margaret Bryan. Afterwards she shared the studies of her half-brother Edward, who became greatly attached to her. On the accession of Edward VI, she was committed to the care of Catherine, the queen dowager, who soon married Thomas Seymour, the brother of the Protector Somerset. Thomas Seymour showed that he nourished ambitious schemes, and he was suspected of using the opportunities which his marriage gave him of trying to win the affections of Elizabeth. Catherine died in 1548, and Thomas Seymour's conduct towards Elizabeth was one of the charges brought against him, and was the subject of a rigorous inquiry, in which the young girl conducted herself with great dexterity. Seymour was beheaded, and Elizabeth was closely watched at Hatfield. Here she pursued her studies under the direction of William Grindal and Roger Ascham, and acquired a reputation for learning. In the plot of Northumberland to secure the throne for the Lady Jane Grey, Elizabeth took no part, and on Mary's accession was treated by her with consideration. The imperial ambassadors doubted about Elizabeth, and Mary worked hard for her conversion to Romanism. Elizabeth judged it wise to give way, and on September 8, 1553, attended Mass. As Mary's marriage project with Philip of Spain advanced, her suspicions of Elizabeth increased, and in December Elizabeth left the court, and retired to Ashridge, in Buckinghamshire. Mary wished to marry Elizabeth to Edward Courtenay, but Courtenay refused. Wyatt's rebellion brought Elizabeth and Courtenay into suspicion. Elizabeth was arrested in February 1554, and sent to the Tower. Every effort was made to obtain evidence against her, but without success. In May she was released, but was committed to the care of Sir Henry Bedingfield, and sent to Woodstock. Philip of Spain, on his arrival in England, showed more consideration towards Elizabeth. He wished to marry her in such a way as to promote his own political plans. First, a marriage with the Duke of Savoy was proposed, and in April 1555 Elizabeth was summoned to Hampton Court, whence, at the end of the year, she went to Hatfield. It needed all her cleverness to escape the marriage with the Duke of Savoy, which would have sent her away from England. When this was abandoned, there came a proposal for Eric of Sweden, son of Gustavus Vasa, which was also refused. Elizabeth in her early days found herself surrounded by snares. She learned to trust no one, to act circumspectly, to assume an ambiguous attitude which did not commit her to anything definite, and to be prepared for any emergency. Mary on her death-bed, November 17, 1558, nominated Elizabeth as her successor, in the hope that she would maintain the Roman Catholic religion. Philip of Spain trusted that he would find in Elizabeth a complaisant ally, but she had already gained a large experience of the world and the difficulties which beset her. She never forgot that her position must be maintained by herself alone, and her interests were not those of any particular party or system. She never laid aside her skill in balancing herself between opposing parties and husbanding her resources so as to profit by their mistakes.

At her accession England was without money and without resources, and was engaged on the side of Spain in war with France. Philip II wished to maintain the English alliance, and offered his hand to Elizabeth. But the marriage with Philip needed a dispensation from the pope; and Paul IV was under the influence of France. He was ready to impugn the legitimacy of Elizabeth. Whatever doubts she might have had about her policy on her accession, she soon saw that the defence of Protestantism at home and peace with France abroad were necessary for her own security. Her first measures were directed to a religious settlement. In this matter she reverted to her father's plan: freedom of the English Church from the supremacy of the pope, and from beliefs and practices which were unknown to the primitive Church, but a retention of its Catholic foundation. This plan suited neither the Calvinists nor the adherents of the old faith. But Elizabeth appointed a committee of divines to revise the Prayer Book of Edward VI, and parliament in 1559 re-established the royal supremacy, approved the revised Prayer Book, and enforced its use by the Act of Uniformity. Many of the bishops refused obedience, and were deprived of their sees. The new Archbishop of Canterbury, Matthew Parker (q.v.), was the chief helper of the queen in carrying out her ecclesiastical policy, and a body of commissioners who afterwards grew into the Court of High Commission (q.v.) were appointed to exercise the ecclesiastical jurisdiction of the Crown. But the greatest danger that Elizabeth had to face was the fact that the next in order of succession to the English crown was Mary, Queen of Scots. The party in England that was favourable to the old religion would have welcomed her against Elizabeth. Mary was supported by the influence of the Guises in France, and it was possible that Philip of Spain might unite with them to put down heresy in England. Elizabeth was urged by parliament to marry, and she looked round for some foreign alliance. But she clearly saw the difficulties that beset her. If she married a Protestant, she would destroy the hopes of the Catholics in a peaceful accession of Mary; if she married a Catholic, her husband would either be some insignificant person, or her marriage would draw her into political combinations which would sacrifice the independence of her position. Many husbands were proposed, but she refused them all. It was thought that her personal preference was for Robert Dudley, Earl of Leicester; but she abstained from a marriage which would be unpopular and politically useless. She used marriage projects as means of political temporizing, to a degree which was often ludicrous. She encouraged in her court a fantastic devotion to her person, and gloried in the title of the "Virgin Queen." The progress of the Reformation in Scotland gave Elizabeth a means of strengthening herself against Mary. In February 1560 she entered into the Treaty of Berwick, by which she undertook to aid the rebel lords in expelling the French, who, under the queen regent, Mary of Guise, garrisoned Edinburgh. She was rewarded by the withdrawal of the French, and the agreement that Mary and Francis II should lay aside their pretensions to the English crown. In December 1560 Francis II died, Mary refused to sign the Treaty of Edinburgh, and in August 1561 landed in Scotland, the avowed agent of the policy of the Guises. For the next few years the history of England centres on the secret war which was waged with feminine astuteness between the two queens. Elizabeth wished Mary to resign her claim to the English succession, offered her an alliance, and agreed to recognize her as successor. Mary refused to give up her claim for a doubtful boon. She hoped to win back Scotland to Catholicism, and looked about for a husband who would help her. When, in 1565, she married Darnley, it was a great blow to Elizabeth, who aided Moray and the rebel lords, but afterwards disavowed them. The birth of a son to Mary still further strengthened her position; but the murder of Darnley and the marriage with Bothwell destroyed Mary's hold on Scotland, and relieved Elizabeth from some anxiety. Mary's flight to England in 1568 placed Elizabeth in a difficult position. She could not make common cause with rebels against their queen, and thereby give a dangerous example; she could not restore Mary to the Scottish throne against the wish of her subjects; she could not leave Mary at large in England to be a centre for Catholic plots; and she did not wish to send her to France, where she would be an instrument in the hands of the Catholic party. The "Casket Letters" (q.v.) were used to blacken Mary's character; she was refused an interview, and was kept in confinement in England. It was not a magnanimous policy, but it was characteristic of Elizabeth's caution. Still, Mary as a prisoner was powerful for mischief. There was a plan to marry her to the Duke of Norfolk, and there was a dangerous rising in the north in favour of the old religion. The Earls of Northumberland and Westmorland advanced to Durham, and ordered Mass to be celebrated in the cathedral. But the Catholics as a body did not rise; the rebellion was put down with severity by the Earl of Sussex, and England at the end of 1569 was again peaceful.

In 1570 Pope Pius V proceeded to the excommunication of Elizabeth, and religious strife was consequently aroused in England. Parliament in 1571 retaliated by repressive measures against the Catholics. It was declared high treason to call the queen a heretic or to name her successor. The Established Church was more vigorously set up as a standard of orthodoxy, and Catholics and Puritans alike were required to conform. The scheme for the liberation of Mary and her marriage with the Duke of Norfolk was revived by foreign aid.

A Florentine, Ridolfi, negotiated between the English conspirators and the pope and Philip II. Supplies were to be furnished from abroad, and the Duke of Alva, from the Netherlands, was to help with 10,000 men. The plot, however, was discovered by the vigilance of Burghley, who had succeeded in organizing the intelligence department of the government into great efficiency. The Spanish ambassador was dismissed from England; the Duke of Norfolk was imprisoned, and afterwards beheaded on June 2, 1572. Philip II was prevented by the affairs of the Netherlands and the doubtful condition of France from taking any steps against England for the time, and from 1572 to 1576 England was left in peace. In 1576 Philip II's half-brother, Don John of Austria, was sent as governor to the Netherlands. He was ambitious of invading England and marrying Mary of Scotland. He failed, however, to pacify the Netherlanders, and his failure led to his untimely death through disappointment. To obtain foreign help, the Netherlands welcomed as their prince the brother of the French king, the Duke of Anjou. Negotiations were long continued for the marriage of the Duke of Anjou to Elizabeth, which would have marked an alliance of England and France against Spain. If Elizabeth could have been certain of securing this end, she would have consented to the marriage. As it was, she effected great coyness as a means of gaining time. Her doubts were justified. The Duke of Anjou failed in the Netherlands, because he tried to override the constitution. Elizabeth saw that there was no hope of a firm alliance with France. In England she was exposed to the incessant plots of the Catholic party, which tried to raise Ireland against her. In 1579 James Fitzmaurice, brother of the Earl of Desmond, landed with Spanish troops, and took possession of the fort of Smerwick, near Kerry. It was instantly besieged by the deputy, Lord Grey de Wilton, and was driven to surrender, whereupon the Spaniards were massacred by a body of troops under the command of Sir Walter Ralegh. Hatred of Spain had become a principle in the minds of Englishmen, and the Spanish attempt on Ireland was mercilessly put down. More active than soldiers were the Jesuit missionaries who, in 1580, were sent to England to revive the spirits of the Catholics. With unflinching boldness and great dexterity they travelled about England and organized the Catholic party. Chief of these Jesuits was Campion (q.v.), who was taken prisoner and put to death for conspiring against the queen. The Catholics were severely persecuted, and the Protestant spirit of England was quickened by perpetual suspicion. A plot to assassinate Elizabeth, of which Francis Throckmorton (q.v.) was the chief agent, was discovered in 1584, and again the Spanish ambassador was ordered to quit England. The sentiment of loyalty to the person of Elizabeth grew strong among the people, and a voluntary association was formed for her defence [Association to Protect Queen Elizabeth]. Its members undertook to prosecute to death all who should attempt the queen's life, or in whose behalf such attempts should be made. This was a threat against Mary, whose death was thus sure to follow immediately on the assassination of Elizabeth.

Meanwhile, the hostility between England and Spain was becoming more and more apparent. France, under the pressure of the religious wars, had admitted Spanish influence, and had withdrawn all appearance of help from the Netherlands. Elizabeth found it wise to send help to the Netherlands, but she sent as little as she could. She never believed that the Netherlanders would make good their stand against the Spanish power, but with a niggardly hand she helped them to prolong their struggle. At the end of 1585 the Earl of Leicester was sent to Holland with English troops. Leicester did little more than besiege Zutphen, and Elizabeth negotiated with Spain, and was ready to betray the Netherlands if thereby she could have secured peace. Philip II, however, was irritated against England, both on account of the help sent to the Netherlands, and still more on account of the damage done to Spanish trade in the West Indies by the piratical raids of Sir Francis Drake. A Spanish invasion of England was imminent, and plots against Elizabeth's life were resolutely carried on. At the end of 1586 a plot, contrived by Anthony Babington, was discovered by the secretary, Sir Francis Walsingham. He allowed it to proceed till he had obtained evidence which implicated Mary of Scotland. Then Babington was executed, and a commission was appointed to try Mary, who was found guilty. For a long time Elizabeth hesitated to put Mary to death. At last she signed the warrant, but gave no orders that it should be carried into effect. Mary was beheaded in February 1587, and Elizabeth professed that the execution had been carried out without her knowledge. She tried with characteristic duplicity to free herself of personal responsibility, but England rejoiced that it was rid of one who was such a fertile source of danger and disturbance. Mary's death brought the Spanish invasion nearer. So long as Mary lived, Philip II was bound to fight in her name; on her death he put forward his own claim to the English crown. A raid of Drake on Cadiz, in April 1587, stirred Philip II to greater indignation. In May 1588 a large fleet, known as "the Invincible Armada," set sail for England. Its huge ships were ill-suited to the task. The preparations for a junction with ships from the Netherlands failed. The Armada was thrown into disorder by the smaller and swifter craft of the English. A storm completed its discomfiture, and England was saved from a landing on its shores. During the days of peril Elizabeth showed great courage, and addressed in stirring words the volunteers who

gathered at Tilbury. She was personally brave, and knew how to deal with her people. The defeat of the Armada gave an impulse to English seamanship, which had been growing rapidly during Elizabeth's reign. Then for the first time the English showed those qualities which have secured for them the mastery of the sea. An aggressive war against Spain was rapidly planned, and the Portuguese were urged to revolt from Philip II. In 1589 an expedition was undertaken against Lisbon, which failed in its main object, but convinced the English that Spain was not such a formidable foe as they had thought. From this time English privateers cruised the Spanish Main and crippled the Spanish trade. Sir Walter Ralegh was energetic in urging schemes of colonization in opposition to Spain. In 1584 he colonized Virginia, which he called after the Virgin Queen. In 1592 he penetrated to the Isthmus of Darien, and in 1595 to Guiana. Though little was done at the time, the way was prepared for future efforts. Spain was beaten back both in France and in the Netherlands, and Elizabeth, in her old age, was inclined to peace. But the martial ardour of England was aroused, and the Earl of Essex was eager to distinguish himself. In 1596 an expedition was made against Cadiz, which was sacked by Essex. Next year he and Ralegh set out on what was known as "The Island Voyage," which was a failure, owing to quarrels between the two commanders. Elizabeth and Burghley were more and more desirous for peace. But troubles broke out in Ireland, where Hugh O'Neill, Earl of Tyrone, gathered together the tribes of Ulster, and surprised the fort of Blackwater. In Ireland, Elizabeth found occupation for the energy of Essex, whose ambition was boundless and whose popularity was great. But Essex, contrary to his orders, entered into negotiations with Tyrone, and concluded peace. When he returned to England in 1599 he was called to account for his conduct. He had many enemies, and was disgraced, being confined as a prisoner in his own house. At last, trusting to his popularity, he made a desperate rising, in the hopes of getting the queen into his hands. The people refused to follow him. He was taken prisoner, found guilty of high treason, and beheaded in February 1601. Elizabeth sorely felt the necessity of putting Essex to death, and never quite recovered from her grief. As she grew old she missed the homage of her people. The expenses of the Irish war forced her to apply to parliament for money, and parliament attacked the royal grants of monopolies. Elizabeth gave way with good grace, and her last years saw the defeat of Tyrone's forces by Lord Mountjoy, in 1602. Elizabeth had a growing feeling of lack of sympathy between herself and the new generation which she had fostered. Her last days were unhappy, and she died on March 24, 1603, after indicating the King of Scotland as her successor.

Elizabeth lived in perilous times, and the fortunes of England were curiously interwoven with her personal security. She found England discouraged, disunited, and poor; she left it with a strong national spirit, prosperous, and resolute. Her policy was shifty, but her means were scanty. She knew how to choose wise advisers, but she never entirely trusted them. She knew how to play upon human weakness, and she was better served at smaller cost than any other sovereign. England, in her reign, made great advances in every way, and then first assumed the chief characteristics which still distinguish it. Though many of Elizabeth's doings were unworthy, she never forgot the interests of her people, and she never lost their affection. It is her greatest praise that her objects were those of her people, and that England prospered under her rule.

See biographies by E. S. Beesly, 1892, Mandell Creighton, 1899, and B. Marshall, 1916; Lucy Aikin, "Court of Queen Elizabeth," 1818 and 1915; M. Hume, "Courtships of Queen Elizabeth," 1926; H. N. Birt, "The Elizabethan Religious Settlement," 1907; J. R. Seeley, "Growth of British Policy," 2 vols., 1910. [M. C.]

Elizabeth Woodville, QUEEN, wife of Edward IV (1437?–92), was the daughter of Sir Richard Woodville (afterwards Earl Rivers) by Jacquetta of Luxemburg, widow of John, Duke of Bedford. She married first, about 1452, Sir John Grey, son and heir of Lord Ferrers of Groby. He was killed in 1461, at the second battle of St. Albans, leaving her with two sons, Thomas, afterwards Marquis of Dorset, and Richard. The Woodvilles and the Greys were alike strong partisans of the Lancastrian cause, and on the accession of Edward IV the widow of Sir John Grey was deprived of her inheritance, and obliged to remain at her father's house at Grafton in Northamptonshire. Here she made the acquaintance of Edward IV, who privately married her in 1464. The public announcement of the marriage at Michaelmas had political consequences of first-rate importance. [EDWARD IV.] The queen's numerous relations were advanced by Edward as a counterbalance to the power of the Neville connexion. During the period of Lancastrian supremacy, on the flight of Edward IV and the restoration of Henry VI (1470), Elizabeth took refuge in sanctuary, and here her son Edward was born. On the death of her husband she had once more to take sanctuary. In 1484 she was induced to leave her retreat, and went, with her remaining children, to Richard. After the battle of Bosworth Elizabeth gladly wedded her daughter to the victor Henry, herself retiring to the abbey of Bermondsey with a small pension.

Elizabeth of York, QUEEN, wife of Henry VII (1465–1503), was the daughter of Edward IV and Elizabeth Woodville. She was betrothed, under the Treaty of Pecquigny (1475) (q.v.), to the dauphin of France, and later

her uncle, Richard III, is reported to have contemplated marrying her. In 1406, however, she was married to Henry VII, to whom she had been promised as early as 1484, when he first contemplated the dethronement of Richard. Henry was determined not to appear to owe his crown to his wife, and it was probably for this reason that her coronation was delayed until the end of 1487. The queen's goodness, beauty, and liberality earned her popularity; and although, according to Bacon, Henry was towards her "nothing uxorious," she seems to have exercised a beneficent influence upon him.

Ella (Ælle) (*d.* 517?) is traditionally regarded as the founder of the kingdom of Sussex. He is said to have come (in 477) with his three sons, Cymen, Wlencing, and Cissa, to Cymenesora, which has been conjecturally identified with Keynor in Selsey. He fought a great battle with the Britons, the issue of which was doubtful. Having obtained reinforcements, he captured the great fortress of Anderida (q.v.) in 491, and firmly established himself on the narrow strip of coast between the Downs and the sea. Ella is said to have reigned forty years, and to have been succeeded by his son Cissa (q.v.). Bæda writes of him as the first of the Bretwaldas (q.v.), or wielders of the *imperium*.

Ellandune, The Battle of (825), was fought between the Mercians, under Beornwulf, and the West Saxons, under Ecgbert, and resulted in a total rout of the former. It has been identified with Allington, near Amesbury, in Wiltshire, but was more probably Ellingdon (now Wroughton) near Malmesbury.

Ellenborough, Edward Law, Earl of (1790–1871). [Law.]

Elliot, Gilbert, 1st Earl Minto (1751–1814), after having filled the office of president of the board of control, was appointed governor-general of India in 1806. His first task was to deal with the Vellore Mutiny (q.v.), his next to establish order in India, and secure the frontiers of the company's territories by treaties with foreign powers. Marching an army into Nagpur, he compelled Amir Khan to retire. The pirates of Kolapur and Sawuntwarri were attacked and overawed. The growth of the power of Ranjit Singh (q.v.) made him desirous (1808) to check it in the east, and to form an alliance with him. He sent an embassy to Lahore, and after some difficulty succeeded in concluding the Treaty of Amritsar (q.v.), of perpetual amity between the British government and the state of Lahore. About the same time (1810) a treaty was concluded binding the sovereign of Persia to resist the passage of any European force through his country to India, and the government of England to furnish aid in case Persia should be invaded from Europe. Having thus established order and security at home, Lord Minto turned his attention to the hostile colonies of the enemy and his allies. Macao and the Chinese colonies of Portugal were occupied (1809), but were subsequently abandoned, owing to the firmness and threats of the Chinese government. The islands of Mauritius and Bourbon were captured (1810), thus cutting off a great resort for French privateers. The Dutch colonies in the Spice Islands and Java were captured after a gallant defence (1811). Minto was raised to an earldom, and recalled (October 1813).

"Life and Letters of Lord Minto," ed. Countess of Minto, 1874–9.

Elmet was the name of a little British kingdom situated between Leeds and York, which retained its independence till it was conquered by Edwin, and annexed to Northumbria about 625.

Elphinstone, Arthur, 6th Baron Balmerino (1688–1746), was a noted Jacobite. He early entered the army, and held command of a company of foot in Lord Shannon's regiment under Queen Anne; but on the accession of George I he resigned his commission. Elphinstone took part in the Jacobite rebellion of 1715, and fought at the battle of Sheriffmuir. He escaped to France and served in the French army until 1733. He was one of the first to repair to the Young Pretender's standard in 1745. Early in 1746 he succeeded to the title of Balmerino on the death of his brother. Taken prisoner at the battle of Culloden, he was tried for high treason before the lord high steward's court in Westminster Hall, found guilty, and executed. He maintained his principles to the end, and his last words were, "God bless King James."

Walpole's "Memoirs."

Elphinstone, Mountstuart (1779–1859), was sent to India as a writer in 1795. In 1801 he was appointed assistant to the resident at Poona. He was present at Assye, and after the war he became British resident at Nagpur. In 1808 he was sent on a mission to Kabul, and on his return two years later was appointed resident at Poona. He fought the battle of Kirki in 1817, when Baji Rao (q.v.) attacked the British residency. In 1818 he was appointed commissioner of the Poona territory; and he became governor of Bombay in 1819. In 1827 he returned to England. Seven years later he was offered the governor-generalship, but refused. The rest of his life was uneventful, and he died peacefully in his eightieth year.

Elphinstone's "Memoirs," 1884.

Ely, The Isle of, was originally an oasis in the midst of the marshes of Cambridgeshire and the fen land. It owes its chief fame to the great abbey which was founded there by St. Etheldreda in 673. In 970 it was refounded by Ethelwold, Bishop of Winchester, as a Benedictine community, having been, a hundred years previously, destroyed by the

Danes. It was here that Hereward held out against the Conqueror, until the island was finally taken in 1071. In 1109 Ely was made the seat of a bishopric by Henry I. After the battle of Evesham and the surrender of Kenilworth, some of the barons escaped to Ely, but their stronghold was taken by the lord Edward in 1267.

"Victoria County History: Cambridgeshire."

Emancipation, Catholic. [Catholic Emancipation.]

Emancipation, Negro. [Slavery, Abolition of.]

Emigration, in its restricted sense, is used for the departure of persons from a country with a highly organized society and thick population to settle in one with abundance of uncultivated soil. The word is opposed, nevertheless, to colonization, which implies rather the first settlement in a new land, whereas emigration signifies that the country of which it is the object has already made some advance in civilization. Hence emigration in its proper sense cannot be said to have systematically begun in England previous to 1815, on the termination of the great war with the French Empire. In that year the number of emigrants was only 2,081; in the following year it had increased to 12,510, and it was 34,987 in 1819. The average annual number of those who emigrated in the ten years from 1825 to 1834 was 50,304; from 1835 to 1844 it was 75,923, thus showing a steady rise, though there was a drop during the first half of the latter decade. During the five years ending 1853 the average rose as high as 323,002, an exceptional rate, probably due to such extraordinary causes as the Irish famine, the gold discoveries in Australia and California, and the development of the resources of America through the adoption of free trade in England. The average sank to nearly a half during the Crimean War, and in 1860, when the struggle between the Northern and Southern States was raging, the total was only 91,770. In 1870 it was 256,940; in 1879 it was 217,163, and 332,294 in 1880, the increase being chiefly of Irish emigrants. In 1893 the number was 307,633, which depression in the colonies and America reduced by one-half in 1896 (these figures include foreigners in transit via British ports). The twentieth century saw a sudden increase in numbers. The countries to which our emigration is chiefly directed are British North America, the United States, Australia, New Zealand, and South Africa. The first of these was in favour until 1835, after which the outbreak of the Canadian rebellion, the preference of the enormously increasing number of Irish emigrants for American institutions, together with other and more general causes, turned the scale; nor is it probable that even the legislative restrictions on immigration into the States will soon equalize numbers which in 1894 were respectively 159,431 and 23,633. It should be observed that the Scots emigrate less readily than the other inhabitants of the British Isles; the numbers in 1892 were 133,815 English, 52,902 Irish, and 23,325 Scots. The fact that emigration was pioneered by the movements of whole communities driven forth by religious persecution, and bound for unknown and uncivilized lands, is the main cause of the tendency of earlier emigration to base itself on organized schemes. Thus Wakefield's scheme of combined emigration had its prototypes in the Pilgrim Fathers, and afterwards in the ill-fated Darien expedition. Now, however, such precautions are generally unnecessary, except when dealing with a pauperized and helpless class like the Western Irish. All that need be done is to provide for the safe and cheap transit and reception of individuals. This first responsibility was placed in 1831 in the hands of the Emigration Commission, part of whose duties was to distribute useful information, which is now done by the Emigrants' Information Office. It was regulated by law in various Passengers Acts providing for the comfort and protection of emigrants, the first of which was passed in 1835, and those now in force in 1855 and 1863. The welfare of settlers is watched over in the Dominions and the United States by government immigration agents, who supply all information free of cost. State emigration has been frequently adopted as a relief for pauperism, notably by the Poor Law Amendment Act of 1834, and the Irish Land Act of 1881. On the other side, the Dominions have offered advantages in order to secure manual labour. The graver dangers of the introduction into the Dominions of inferior races, such as the Chinese into Australia and British Columbia, have been met by legislation. The problem is no longer merely one of numbers. With self-government the great Dominions have changed from a policy of reckless invitation to one of selective subsidization. Australia, for example, besides tending to exclude all but European emigrants, demands that emigration shall not lower the standard of living. Emigrants must either be skilled workers or farmers with capital. South Africa alone, with the ever-present fear of its colour problem, tends to encourage the influx of Britions *qua* Britons. After the war of 1914–18 the Imperial government passed the Empire Settlements Act of 1922, by which any settlement scheme in the Dominions was to be helped financially to the extent of 50 per cent. All the Dominions have settlement agencies in London and many philanthropic and government organizations co-operate with them.

Statistical and general information can be obtained from the "Statesman's Year Book," the "Colonial Office List," the "Imperial Institute Year Book," and the handbooks and circulars published by the Emigrants' Information Office.

Belcher and J. A. Williamson, "Migration within the Empire" ("Britannique Commonwealth," ed. H. Gunn, vol. 12), 1924; A. Girault, "Principe de Colonisation et de législation coloniale," 1921; I.

Ferenczi, "Migration Movements, 1920–3," 1925; E. W. Wertl, "Settling in Canada," 1924; S. O. Johnson, "A History of Emigration from the United Kingdom to North America, 1763–1912," 1913; H. Merivale, "Lectures on Colonization and Colonies," 1861; E. G. Wakefield, "Art of Colonization," 1849; R. Mayo Smith, "Emigration and Immigration" (with a bibliography), 1890.

Emmet, Robert (1778–1803), was an Irishman whose unhappy fate inspired some of the finest of the "Irish Melodies" of Thomas Moore. Emmet was in sympathy with the objects of the Society of United Irishmen, and for complicity in the rebellion of 1798 he was expelled from Dublin University. He then withdrew to the continent, but returned in 1802, and in 1803, at the head of an undisciplined mob, attempted to seize the Arsenal and Dublin Castle. He was captured, condemned for treason, and executed.

Biography by L. I. Guiney, 1904.

Empire, Relations with the. Cut off from the Roman Empire by the English conquest, Britain began again to have dealings with the "world state," when Christianity and political consolidation had renewed civilization and intercourse with the world. The Mercian overlords of the eighth century corresponded on equal terms with the great house that was soon to restore the glory of the Cæsars. Charles the Great's jealousy of Offa led to his support of the exiled Egbert of Wessex, whose accession to the West Saxon throne must have strengthened the relations of the two powers, and who may have found in the Carolingian Empire a model for imitation. The presence of learned men like Alcuin in Charles's court had a similar tendency. The correspondence of Ethelwulf with Louis the Pious, whose granddaughter he afterwards married, kept up the connexion. Athelstan's sister's marriage to Charles the Simple, and his support of Louis "Ultramarinus," continued the dealings with the Carolingian house, even when empire had almost stepped from it. English dealings with the Saxon emperors were still more intimate. Henry the Fowler married his son Otto to Athelstan's sister, and Giesebracht points out the similarity of Henry's power in Germany and that of the West Saxon overlords in England, and even suggests conscious imitation. With the acquisition of the imperial dignity, Otto aspired to a far higher power than his father. But if Henry copied Athelstan, the second coronation of Edgar at Bath as "Emperor of Britain" suggests that that monarch aspired to rival Otto's crowning by John XII. The assumption of imperial titles by the great early English kings shows that they aimed at least at absolute equality in dignity with the emperors. It is remarkable that in such circumstances good relations were maintained. The innumerable coincidences of law and usage between England and the Empire, though in the main instances of parallel development rather than of influence, may in some cases illustrate the effects of this constant intercourse. The Norman Conquest allied England with the papacy, but the continuity of the national tradition soon tended to reunite English king and Roman emperor in a common hostility to the Hildebrandine papacy. The contest of William I and William II with Anselm is the English reflection of the Investiture contest. But the superior prudence of the English monarch avoided that direct breach with the Church which was, perhaps, inevitable in Germany. Even marriage alliances, such as that between Matilda and Henry V, did not result in joining England with the Empire in its extreme measures, but rather led to the Concordat of Worms, which the agreement between Henry and Anselm had anticipated. With Henry II began another period of still closer relations. Henceforth the imperial alliance became one of the permanent traditions of our mediæval foreign policy. Henry married his daughter to Henry the Lion, and instituted close friendship with the Guelfic house without impairing his friendly relations with the rival Hohenstaufen on the imperial throne. In fact, Frederick Barbarossa's contest with Alexander III necessarily produced close relations with Henry, engaged in his struggle with Becket. Only the prudence of his advisers prevented Henry from being bound by his ambassadors to support Barbarossa's schismatic pope. The Third Crusade was entered into by Frederick as by Richard I, although the English monarch had given a home to his nephew Otto after the fall of Henry the Lion had driven him from Germany. Hence the jealousy of the Emperor Henry VI, Richard's captivity on his return, and the humiliating surrender of the imperial crown of Britain to the German Emperor. Henceforth, hostility to the Hohenstaufen emperors became the great principle of Richard's and John's foreign policy. But the battle of Bouvines (1214) put an end to the hopes of the Guelfic line, and the house opposed to England became undisputed emperors. Gradually the strong bonds of connexion were renewed, and the sister of Henry III became the bride of Frederick II. All England watched with keen interest that emperor's struggle with the papacy, though Henry himself was too much bound by his papal connexion and personal religious scruples to give him any help. But so long as his nephew remained alive as Frederick's heir, Henry refused to join in the papal crusade against the Hohenstaufen. His acceptance of the Sicilian throne for Edmund of Lancaster occurred only when his sister's son was dead. But the great connexion between England and the Empire in this reign is the election of Richard of Cornwall, Henry's brother, as King of the Romans. Though never master of Germany, Richard was yet the most powerful of the claimants during the Great Interregnum. His influence led directly to the close commercial dealings between England and the Hansa. He obtained for his brother great privileges for the

steelyard, and imported Harz miners to work the tin mines of his Cornish earldom. But with the fall of the Hohenstaufen the glory of the Empire had departed; though in its weakness, as in its strength, it adhered to its English connexion. Rudolf of Habsburg had a scheme for renewing the middle kingdom in conjunction with Edward I. Adolf of Nassau served as a hireling in the army of that same monarch; Louis of Bavaria was closely allied with Edward III. They married sisters, and had in the French king and the Avignon popes common objects of hostility. At Coblenz, in 1338, Louis made Edward imperial vicar. But the quarrel for the Hainault succession broke up a friendship which Louis's weakness made unprofitable to England. Even then he found in the Englishman, William of Ockham, a warm defender of his theoretical claims. The Luxemburg house now acquired the Empire, and their alliance with France brought a new coolness between England and the Empire which was not fully ended till Richard II married Wenzel's sister, Anne of Bohemia. [Bohemia, Relations with.] The friendship of Sigismund and Henry V, their common religious and European policy, was a fitting crown to the mediæval dealings of England and the Empire; for after Sigismund's last assertion of the universal power of the Empire at Constance, that splendid theory ceased to have any practical working. England continued the friend of the nominal emperors, but it is with the rulers of hereditary dominions, not with the nominal emperors, that these dealings really occurred. [Burgundy, Relations with.] Charles V, who for a time aspired to a renewal of the imperial power, inherited not only the imperial, but the Burgundian and Spanish alliances of England, and was thus united to her by a triple bond. Even this was sundered by the Reformation, though the old imperial alliance may be regarded as renewed in the dealings of England with the German Protestants. With the rise of Louis XIV the Anglo-Imperial alliance was renewed, and continued with few breaks till the end of the Empire in 1806. [Austria, Relations with.]

Bryce, "Holy Roman Empire," ed. 1904; E. F. Henderson, "Short History of Germany," 1916.

[T. F. T.]

Empson, Sir Richard (*d.* 1510), was the son of a tradesman at Towcester. He devoted himself to the law, and came under the notice of Henry VII, who employed him in public duties, and especially in financial affairs. Together with Dudley, Empson was the chief agent of the illegal or quasi-legal extortion of Henry's reign. He incurred great unpopularity in consequence, and was executed with Dudley at the beginning of the next reign. [Dudley, Sir Edmund.]

Enclosure and Commons since 1801. The legislation on the subject, which was consolidated in 1801, provided that the consent of three-fourths of the freeholders and copyholders of the manor was necessary, that the common should be divided among them in proportion to their holdings, the lord being awarded one-sixteenth. He had also the power of vetoing enclosures. The General Enclosure Act of 1845 established a new principle, that of local inquiry through Enclosure Commissioners, so that the poor could make known their grievances; it also set apart certain portions of land for recreation and garden allotments. Passed, however, before the nation had adopted the doctrine of free trade, it tended to promote rather than check enclosure; the land set apart for recreation was miserably inadequate, and the great commons and forests were threatened everywhere. Accordingly a Society for the Protection of Rural Commons was formed by Henry Fawcett, and one for the Preservation of Commons near London by Charles Shaw-Lefevre (Viscount Eversley). The exertions of the former were successful in preventing the parliamentary sanction of enclosures between 1869 and 1876, and the necessity of such a step was proved by the fact that the area of common land in England and Wales was not, as was imagined, 8,000,000 acres, but only 2,632,000. The question of urban commons was not decided until after a violent struggle in the law courts, owing to the fact that while the right of a village to its green was recognized by law, that of a town to its common was not. The crucial case was that of Epping Forest, over which the Crown has several important forestal rights, which had, until about 1840, prevented enclosure. When the neighbouring landlords began to appropriate the land, an old man named Willingale resisted them on behalf of the villagers of Loughton, and his cause, taken up by the corporation of London, resulted, in 1874, in a complete overthrow of the landlords' pretensions. Soon afterwards a royal commission decided that the enclosures were illegal, and that the forest should be restored to its original condition. In 1878, therefore, an act was passed, directing that Epping Forest should be preserved for ever, open and unenclosed, for the benefit of the people of London. The corporation of London were made its conservators—and subsequently of all common lands within twenty-five miles of London. Finally, the Commons Act of 1876 substituted regulation and improvement in place of the enclosure of common lands, and laid down the principle that no enclosure should be sanctioned by the commissioners without distinct evidence that it would be beneficial to the inhabitants generally. [See Common Lands, Open Fields and Enclosure.] [L. C. S.]

Engagement, The, December 26, 1647, was the name given to a compact made at Newport, in the Isle of Wight, with the Scottish

Commissioners, by which Charles I engaged to support the Covenant and the Presbyterian party, and to repress heresy; the Covenanters, on their side, promising to assist him against the Parliament. An act of oblivion and the complete union of the two countries was to follow the restoration of peace.

England, Church of. [Church of England.]

Englefield, The Battle of (871), fought between the English, under Ethelwulf, ealdorman of Berkshire, and a detachment of Danes, resulted in the victory of the former—Sidroc, one of the Danish jarls, being slain. Englefield is a village in Berkshire, about six miles west of Reading.

English Conquest of Britain, The. A close connexion is discernible between the differing forms of Roman power in the island and the history of this great movement. From the cessation of that power in its temporal form sprang the conditions that gave it birth; with the introduction of the spiritual form it entered upon a new stage, whose beginning may be taken as marking not merely its complete success, but its virtual ending. As an historical landscape, therefore, it may be said to lie between the year 410, the probable date of the cessation of the official connexion between Britain and Rome, and 597, that of the arrival of St. Augustine. But these dates enclose the darkest period of British history; next to nothing that is trustworthy has been recorded of the details of the conquest; and notwithstanding the huge contributions that genius and scholarship have made to the subject of late years, the fraction of solid, or even probable, fact remains extremely meagre. Our best authorities differ widely regarding the value and interpretation of the fragmentary and confused accounts that tradition preserved among the conquerors. The study of archæology has recently thrown much new light upon the period; but anything like an exact account is still impossible. Modern authorities seem agreed that no formal evacuation of Britain by the Romans ever took place. The province was denuded of troops as a result of the rebellions of Magnus Maximus (383–8) and Constantine (407–11), and such was the disorganization of the empire as a whole that the legions were never replaced. The Romanized Britons, left to their own resources, seem at first to have worked with some success the military and political organizations inherited from the Romans. Of the system of defences that Rome had created the most valuable was the line of fortresses that kept guard upon the "Saxon Shore" (q.v.), along which the most persevering, relentless, and formidable enemies of Britain, the Saxons, had been prowling in their "keels" for generations, plundering and ravaging the neighbouring lands. The liberated Britons naturally continued upon this harassed frontier the vigilance their Roman masters had before observed; and the office of Dux Britanniarum is thought to have been retained. Soon, however, the prospect darkened. The awful crisis in the history of the island which Roman valour and skill had so long kept back again approached, and the necessary warlike vigour and civic virtue for coping with it were no longer forthcoming. After a brief quiescence, the old inveterate foes of Romanized Britain swarmed again to the attack; the Picts from the North, the Scots from Ireland, descended on her towns and fields, and spread slaughter and ruin wherever they went. Above all, the German "Nook" sent forth in new abundance its untiring bands of hardy and merciless adventurers—called Saxons, Angles, and Jutes, but soon to bear the common name of English—who sailed up and down the eastern coast, and landing at unguarded places, pillaged and plundered almost unchecked. Then the loose-jointed political and military organization of the Britons fell to pieces. In the period which had elapsed since the withdrawal of the legions, Celtic influences had reasserted themselves. The local magistrate of the Roman period had become the tribal chief. Civil discord paralysed the state; the struggles of rival chiefs—"tyrants," as they are called by Gildas—the rage of factions, wasted the strength of the people; and famine and pestilence thinned their ranks. The fitful efforts of isolated chieftains to stem the torrent of calamity having proved unavailing, it would seem that the southern Britons were tempted to try the course of making allies of one class of their assailants against the other, and applied to the Saxons for help against the Picts and Scots. The Saxons came to their help, nothing loath, and so got within the defences of the Saxon Shore, secured their footing in the land, and after driving back the Picts and Scots, quickly found a pretext for turning their arms against their hosts, and wrested from them a considerable share of the soil they had come to defend.

Whether such was the actual form of the event or not, we may accept as an historical fact that in the middle of the fifth century (450, 449, or earlier), an alien race of German origin seized upon a part of south-eastern Britain with the fixed purpose of keeping it, and thus set an example which, cheerfully and promptly followed by their kinsfolk, led to the complete transfer from a substantially Celtic to a substantially Teutonic population of the greater part of the country that is now called England. Later records give us a few names of men and scraps of incidents belonging to this momentous process, but their authenticity is extremely doubtful. According to our written evidence, Kent, the first-fruits of German cunning and daring, was conquered and occupied by Jutish warriors between 449 and 473; Sussex by Saxon between 477 and 491; Wessex by Saxon and Jutish between 495 and 519; and in part

simultaneously with these, in part after them, and till about 550, the other communities and states of the same origin—Middlesex, Essex, East Anglia, the miscellany of settlements that ultimately coalesced into Mercia, and Deira, and Bernicia—were founded, some by Saxons, some by Angles, and some by both. But shadowy and uncertain as is our knowledge of the foundation of the southern settlements, of the foundation of the northern settlements we know nothing. The first sight that we get of these is after they have become fully established and powerful organizations. Within a century after their first landing in force the terrible strangers had got into their exclusive possession the eastern half of the island south of the Forth. The whole of this land was won by the edge of the sword. The conquest was ferocious in character; fields of slaughter, sackings of cities, massacre and depopulation, spoiling and burning of homesteads, leading into captivity, every conceivable shame and horror that can befall a race make the history of eastern Britain during this time; the indistinct lamentations of the vanquished, the more definite traditions of the victors, concur in proving this. From the British side Gildas exclaims, "Some were caught in the hills and slaughtered, others were worn out with hunger, and yielded to a life-long slavery. Some passed across the sea . . . others trusted their lives to the clefts of the mountains, to the forests, and rocks of the sea." From the English side we learn such facts as that, in 473, "the Welsh fled the English as fire"; that in 491 the South Saxons "slew all that dwelt within" Anderida, "nor was as much as one Briton left alive"; that in 508 Cerdic and Cynric "slew a British king and five thousand men with him." And the name "Flame-bearer," given in Welsh literature to a Bernician king (Ida or Theodric), is fearfully expressive. Not that the career of the conquerors was one of unbroken success. Now and then the frenzied resistance of the Britons checked, perhaps even beat back, the advance of the English. History records the valiant deeds of one Ambrosius (q.v.), who emerged as leader of the Britons towards the end of the fifth century. The historicity of Arthur, who figures so prominently in later legend, is more doubtful; but that a great British rally took place at the opening of the sixth century is beyond question. [Arthur.] The battle of Mons Badonicus (516 ?), whatever its site, whether gained by Arthur or another, was undoubtedly a defeat for the English, and secured the Welsh a breathing-space of some length. But neither devoted courage nor flashes of success could save British civilization from the ruin that was coming upon it like a fate; the onward march of the ruthless German swordsmen was arrested, only to begin anew after a time with undiminished ferocity. This fresh advance, which began about 560, and carried the West Saxon arms to the Severn and the Dee, has this special interest: that the persons and events that belong to it are unmistakably historical. Whatever misgivings we may have about Hengest, Cissa, and Cerdic, we cannot but feel confident that Ceawlin really lived, and that his victory at Deorham (577) was a real achievement. It had its complement in the triumph of Ethelfrith of Bernicia over the Welsh princes of the north at Chester (613), which marked the virtual completion of the work of settlement. "The lands which were added to the area of permanently settled Saxon or Anglian soil after 613 were but of limited extent compared to those which had already been occupied."

The manner of the conquest is described by Stubbs as follows: "The conquest of Britain was the result of a series of separate expeditions, long continued, and perhaps, in point of time, continuous, but unconnected, and independent of one another. It was conducted by single chieftains, who had nothing in common with the nation they attacked, and who were about neither to amalgamate with them nor to tolerate their continued existence." This last statement has been seriously challenged by later historians. The school which postulated the utter effacement not merely of the British nation, but even of the British population throughout the conquered districts has been largely discredited. The more reasonable view now prevailing is that a not inconsiderable portion of the conquered must have been spared and that their descendants ultimately mixed with the descendants of the conquerors; that, in fact, modern England is not an exclusively Teutonic, but largely a Celtic, nationality. But of the substantial effacement of Romano-British civilization there can be little doubt. A widespread work of destruction had been accomplished before the era of settlement commenced; and the conquerors, untouched by Roman influences, had neither comprehension of nor sympathy for the institutions of the conquered. Their "Romanization" was destined eventually to be accomplished through the medium of the Church, which in 597 took up the task abandoned by the Empire in 410.

J. R. Green, "Making of England"; T. Hodgkin, "Political History of England," vol. i; Sir C. Oman, "England Before the Norman Conquest." [J. R.]

Englishry, Presentment of, was a system introduced by William the Conqueror, whereby if a man were found murdered and could not be proved to be English, it was assumed that he was a Norman, and the hundred was fined accordingly. It fell into disuse about the time of Richard I, the two races having mixed to such an extent that it was impossible to say who was an Englishman and who was a Norman. It was not, however, finally abolished till 1341 (14 Ed. III, st. 1, c. 4).

Entente, The Triple, was formed between Great Britain, France, and Russia as a

result of (1) the Franco-Russian treaty of 1894, (2) the Anglo-French agreement of 1904, and (3) the Anglo-Russian agreement of 1907, which united the three powers in common protection against the Triple Alliance which had already been cemented between Germany, Austria-Hungary, and Italy in virtue of the *Dreikaiserbund* of 1872, the Dual Alliance of 1879, and the accession of Italy in 1882. The entente had a difficult beginning. Great Britain and France laboured under a long tradition of mutual enmity. By the opening of the present century their rivalry was apparent in many spheres of world politics: in Tunis and the New Hebrides (1887), in Siam (1893), in Egypt since the period of dual control (1876), in the Congo region, in North Africa and Morocco, and in the Newfoundland fisheries. Similarly a coolness existed between Great Britain and Russia on account of rivalry in India, Persia, Afghanistan, and Tibet, and as a result also of the Anglo-Japanese Alliance of 1902 and the Dardanelles and Dogger Bank incidents during the Russo-Japanese War (1904–5). But the interaction of political ambitions—international rivalries in Africa and the Far East especially—led first to an alliance between France and Russia in 1894 as a safeguard against the Triple Alliance, and afterwards, in virtue of Great Britain's growing realization that she could neither ally with Germany nor, on the other hand, suffer herself to fall into isolation, to the two ententes. Rivalry in Africa, Armenia, the Far East, and world commerce prevented a rapprochement between Great Britain and the Triple Alliance. The alternative policy—of reconciliation to France and Russia—was, therefore, inaugurated early in the century. Of the two ententes, that of 1904 with France was greatly facilitated by the reciprocal visits of King Edward VII to Paris and M. Delcassé to London in 1903, and that of 1907 with Russia was hastened by the financial needs and the democratic reforms of St. Petersburg. Between France and Britain the Moroccan, Siamese, and Newfoundland questions were settled; between Russia and Britain the Pact of Petersburg established an understanding in Persia, Afghanistan, and Tibet. The achievement of the Triple Entente meant that Europe was henceforth divided into two camps, into either of which the smaller nations might enter at a moment of international crisis, with a consequent danger of universal war. These conditions endured for seven years, during which the Eastern question and Anglo-German rivalry held first place in European politics. [See articles on relations with FRANCE, GERMANY, RUSSIA.]

Gooch and Masterman, "A Century of English Foreign Policy, 1815–1915"; J. H. Rose, "Origins of the War," 1915; B. Russell, "Policy of the Entente," 1915. [A. C. F. B.]

Eocha Buidhe, or "The Yellow-Haired," succeeded his father, Aidan, as King of Dalriada, 606. In 629, the year of his death, he fought in the battle of Fedhaeoin, in Ireland, on the side of the Cruithnigh of Ulster, against his own son, Conadh Cerr, in whose favour he seems to have resigned Dalriada on the acquisition of Galloway. [DALRIADA.]

Epidemics. [BLACK DEATH; PLAGUE, THE GREAT; SWEATING SICKNESS.]

Equity. [CHANCERY.]

Erastians, THE, were so called because they held the views of the Swiss theologian Erastus (1523–83) on the inability of the Church to exercise discipline by censure, excommunication, etc.; its province being, according to their theory, confined to teaching. There never was an actual sect of Erastians in England; but their ideas on Church government were advocated by many leading divines, and in the Westminster Assembly (1643–9) were represented by the powerful eloquence of Whitelocke, Lightfoot, and Selden. A proposition, however, condemnatory of their doctrines was carried almost unanimously, and, though the "Chapter of Church Censures" in which it occurs was never formally ratified by parliament, Erastianism failed from that time to take deep root. The word frequently occurs in the history of the disputes which resulted in the secession of the Free Church of Scotland, and is sometimes used by English High Churchmen—in both cases with reference to those who deny the Church the right of self-government. [WESTMINSTER ASSEMBLY.]

Ermine Street. [ROMAN ROADS.]

Errol, FRANCIS HAY, 9TH EARL OF (*d.* 1631). [HAY.]

Erskine, JOHN, 6TH EARL OF MAR (*d.* 1572), the uncle of Moray, regent of Scotland, was governor of Stirling Castle, where he had the charge of the infant James VI. In 1571 he repulsed an attack upon Stirling by the queen's party, and shortly afterwards, owing to the death of Lennox in the fray, he was elected regent, an office which he filled with moderation and ability until his death (October 29, 1572). He was perhaps the only person in the kingdom who could have enjoyed the office of regent without envy, and have kept it without loss of reputation.

P. Hume Brown, "History of Scotland," 1911.

Erskine, JOHN, 7TH EARL OF MAR (1558–1634), son of the regent, made an unsuccessful attempt (1578) to obtain possession of the young king, James VI. In 1582 he was one of the leaders of the Ruthven Raid (q.v.), and had in consequence to take refuge in England, where he resided for some time at Newcastle, in company with other "banished lords." He was one of those who attempted to go to the rescue of the king in the Gowrie conspiracy (q.v.). In 1601 he was sent as ambassador to Elizabeth; he accompanied James VI to

England, and became one of his privy councillors and lord high treasurer of Scotland (1616).

Erskine, John, 11th Earl of Mar (1675–1732), entered public life early in Queen Anne's reign as a Whig, but soon joined the Tory party. His trimming policy obtained for him the nickname of "Bobbing John." He joined the Whigs in advocating the Scottish Union, and in 1706 became secretary of state to the Duke of Queensberry at the last session of the Scottish parliament. In 1710 he became secretary of state and manager for Scotland under the Tory administration. On the accession of George I he was deprived of office, and at once plunged into Jacobite intrigues. The Pretender's standard was raised by him at Braemar on September 6, 1715. He was at once joined by Tullibardine, heir of the Duke of Atholl, the Gordons and other clans, and was at the head of 12,000 badly-armed men. A detachment under Brigadier Macintosh was sent to surprise Edinburgh, and was ultimately defeated at Preston. At Sheriffmuir Mar encountered the royal troops under Argyll, and after an undecided battle Argyll withdrew from the field. In January 1716 the Pretender, after long delay, appeared in Scotland. But his presence infused no energy in the army. They withdrew from Perth to Montrose, and thence Mar and James Edward stole off to France, deserting their followers. Mar continued in favour with the Pretender, and succeeded in inducing him to dismiss Bolingbroke from his councils [St. John, Henry]. In 1724 he retired into private life.

Erskine, Thomas, Lord (1750–1823), the third son of the 10th Earl of Buchan, was educated at the High School, Edinburgh, and St. Andrews University. At the age of fourteen he entered the navy, but after four years he exchanged into the army. After seven years in his new profession, he left it to enter at Lincoln's Inn, and in 1778 both took his degree and was called to the bar. His first brief was held in defence of Captain Baillie, a naval officer who had been doomed by the ministry for daring to expose the abuses permitted by the admiralty. Erskine's fame was made at once, and was confirmed in the following January by his brilliant defence of Admiral Keppel in court-martial, which was followed soon afterwards by his equally powerful speech on behalf of Lord George Gordon. In November 1783 he was returned to parliament for Portsmouth, and did his utmost in support of Fox's India Bill. His fame is specially connected with his constant efforts to establish the rights of juries in libel cases. In 1794 he made a bold stand against the doctrine of constructive treason which it was attempted to lay down in the trials of Hardy, Horne Tooke, and Thelwall. For the next twelve years he was recognized as leader in the courts at Westminster, and in all State trials was to be found retained for the defence. In parliament he was a firm supporter of Fox, and followed him in his temporary retirement from the House. Addington offered him a place as attorney-general in 1801, but Erskine declined it. On the accession to power of the Fox and Grenville ministry in 1806, Erskine received the chancellorship. During his short tenure of that office he had the satisfaction of announcing the passing of the bill for the abolition of slavery. For the fifteen years after retiring from office in 1807, he took little part in politics. On the trial of Queen Caroline, he broke away reluctantly from his long-standing friendship with the Prince Regent, because he felt bound to support the cause of a woman whom he considered to be innocent and injured.

Erskine, "Speeches," 1810 and 1870; and biography by Duméric, 1883.

Escheat (from the Norman-French *eschet*; *escheoir*, to fall) means the reversion of land to the lord. It could happen in two ways: (1) *per defectum sanguinis*, through want of heirs; or (2) *per delictum tenentis*, through the crime of the tenant, in cases of felony; the distinction between it and forfeiture (q.v.) being, that the first was regarded as a natural event, the second as the direct consequence of an illegal act. It affected tenants in fee-simple only. During the Middle Ages it was not unusual for the estates of some great noble to fall to the Crown. They then either continued in the possession of the king, retaining their identity, and being administered as a unit, or they were granted out again as an hereditary fief. In the first case, the subtenants were protected by Magna Carta (c. 43) from being treated as tenants-in-chief to the Crown, and need only pay such dues as they would have owed to their mesne lord. The wanton bestowal of escheated lands upon favourites and relations was a frequent charge against weak kings like Henry III and Richard II, while Edward II in 1309 was accused of depriving of their lands men who had a perfectly good title, a practice which the royal officers of Henry VII carried to a state of great perfection. In *Escheat propter delictum* the land passed to the lord, subject to the right of the Crown to "year, day, and waste" (Magna Carta, c. 32). After being modified by several statutes in the early nineteenth century, the whole law of escheat for felony, together with the king's right to possession for a year and a day, was abolished by the Felony Act of 1870. *Escheat propter defectum* is now most common in cases of bastardy. The land passes to the sovereign, except in the case of copyhold estates, which go to the lord of the manor.

In Scotland there was escheat for debt as well as for treason; it was abolished in 1737. Single escheat, however, by which the prisoner's movables are forfeited to the Crown, still exists as a punishment for crime.

W. S. Holdsworth, "History of English Law," 3rd edn., 1922; Pollock and Maitland, "History of English Law," 2nd edn., 1911.

Essex, Kingdom of. In Celtic and Roman times the district lying to the north of the lower course of the Thames was inhabited by the tribe of the Trinobantes. In this region the Romans founded many of their most important towns, such as Camulodunum, Londinium, and Verulamium; and towards the end of the period of their rule it formed part of the domain of the "Comes Littoris Saxonici," or Count of the Saxon Shore. When the Roman power was weakening, Essex seems to have fallen an easy prey to the Teutonic invaders; but there is no record left to tell us of the exact process or time of this invasion. It seems probable, however, that the attack was made by way of the Stour, the Blackwater, and the Colne, rather than up the Thames valley; and we know that the conquest was achieved by Saxons, and not by Anglian tribes, such as colonized the neighbouring counties to the north. The East Saxons do not seem to have spread far inland, being, in all probability, checked in their onward course by the great wood district lying to the west, whose relics still survive in Hainault and Epping Forest. In the same manner the South Saxons' progress was barred by the Andreadesweald, and for this reason neither Sussex nor Essex ever developed into one of the great kingdoms. But the East Saxons, though they do not appear to have ever had a Bretwalda, as the South Saxons had, were in one respect happier than the South Saxons; for it was into their hands that the great town of London fell. We read in Bæda that by the year 604 it was the "Metropolis" of Sebert, King of the East Saxons, and about the same year it became the seat of Mellitus, who was appointed bishop of the district by Augustine. Bæda tells us how, on the death of Sebert (616), the country relapsed into paganism, from which it was not converted till many years later. Mellitus was driven to Gaul, and seems to have returned only to occupy the metropolitan see of Canterbury, leaving London without a bishop till 654. On the accession of Sigebert, who had been baptized by Finian, Bishop of Lindisfarne, Cedd, brother of St. Chad, was invited to undertake the office of Bishop of the East Saxons, the see of London was renewed, and before the century was out an East Anglian king (Sebbi) had exchanged his crown for the garb of a monk in London. By this time the East Saxons seem to have been in greater or less subjection to Mercia; and though a late legend speaks of their largely increasing their bounds to the north and west, this kingdom seems to have for the future fluctuated between Mercian and West Saxon rule. At last, after the battle of Ellandune (825), the "Chronicle" tells us how the East Saxons "turned to Ecgbert, because they had formerly been forced from his kinsmen unjustly." The old line of East Saxon kings seems to have died out in the person of Sigered, and the people were more willing to have a Saxon than an Anglian ruler. But Essex was not as yet thoroughly merged in the West Saxon kingdom; on Edgar's death it was detached from Wessex, and given, with Kent, Surrey, and Sussex, to Athelstan (839). We have now reached the times of the Danish invasions. When East Anglia was overrun, and St. Edmund martyred by these marauders, Essex seems to have shared the fate of its northern neighbour, and some years later, by the Treaty of Chippenham (878) (q.v.), was, together with London, left in the hands of Guthrum. Later on we find the Essex Danes taking a prominent part in the invasion of 893, and next year the whole Danish army that had already harried North Wales retired by way of Northumberland and East Anglia to the Isle of Mersea, on the Essex coast. With Edward the Elder, however, the tide began to turn against the strangers; in 911 he built two burghs, one to the north and one to the south of Hertford, and in midsummer of the same year brought his army to Maldon, while the fortress of Witham was building; "and a good deal of the folk submitted to him who were before under the power of the Danish men." In 916 the inhabitants of Kent and Surrey, aided by many East Saxons, wrested Colchester out of the hands of the Danes, though not without destroying the town. However, before the year was out Edward had repaired the fortress and permanently taken the district into his power, for the army of East Anglia swore fealty to him at the same time. Towards the end of the century (991) Essex was once more exposed to the ravages of the Danes, and when Ethelred promised them tribute in 1011, Essex is mentioned as one of the districts they had overrun. When England was divided between Canute and Edmund Ironside (1016), Edmund received East Anglia and Essex, together with the district south of the Thames —a sure proof that there was not a very large number of Danes settled in the two first-mentioned provinces. From this time the history of Essex belongs to that of England generally. In the days of Edward the Confessor it formed a part of Harold's East Anglian earldom, and towards the end of the reign part of Leofwine's anomalous earldom, which included Kent, Surrey, and much besides.

Kings of Essex

Escwine	*s.* 527
Sleda	*s.* 587
Sebert	*d.* 616
Seward and Sigebert	616–617
Sigebert the Little	617–650
Sigebert the Good	650–660
Sigehere	(?)
Stebbe	*s.* 665
Sigeheard	*d.* 694
Swœfred	*d.* 704
Offa	*res.* 709
Selred	709–746
Sigered	*d.* 828

Sir C. Oman, "England Before the Norman Conquest." [T. A. A.]

Essex, The Earldom of, does not appear to have come into being before the middle of

the twelfth century. In 1140 Stephen created Geoffrey de Mandeville (q.v.) Earl of Essex, and four years later he secured an amplification of his charter from the Empress Maud. From him the earldom passed successively to his two sons. They dying childless, it was allowed (1199) to Geoffrey Fitz-Peter (Fitz-Piers), the justiciar, husband of a grand-niece of the first earl. Geoffrey again had two sons who succeeded him, but left no issue ; and the title was conferred in 1236 upon a son of a sister of the last earl, Humphrey de Bohun, Earl of Hereford, in whose family it continued until Humphrey de Bohun, Earl of Northampton, Hereford, and Essex, died (1372), without male issue. [Bohun, The Family of.] The latter's elder daugher and co-heiress, Eleanor, then carried the title to her husband, Thomas of Woodstock, son of Edward III, and afterwards Duke of Gloucester. He was murdered in 1397, and his lands and goods were declared forfeit. This sentence was reversed after the accession of Henry IV, and the estates were divided among the three daughters of the former duke. In 1461 the title was revived in favour of Thomas, Lord Bourchier, Count of Eu, son of the eldest daughter Anne, who, alone of the three sisters, left male heirs. With the death of his grandson (1539) it became extinct, and was immediately regranted to the famous Thomas Cromwell. On Cromwell's attainder, in 1540, his honours became forfeit, and in 1543 the earldom was given to William Parr, brother of Queen Catherine Parr, and husband of the only daughter of the last Bourchier, Earl of Essex. Parr was afterwards created Marquis of Northampton (1546), but attainted in 1553. In 1572 the earldom of Essex was once more revived in favour of Walter Devereux, 2nd Viscount Hereford. His son Robert was attainted in 1601, but the honours were restored three years later to his son, Robert, on whose death without issue (1646) the title became extinct. Finally, in 1661, Arthur Capel, 2nd Baron Capel, was created Earl of Essex and Viscount Maldon, and by his descendant the title is at present held. [Bourchier ; Capel ; Cromwell ; Devereux ; Parr.]

W. B. Devereux, " Lives of the Devereux," 1853.

Essex, Henry Bourchier, Earl of (*d.* 1483). [Bourchier.]

Estates, The Committee of the, was appointed by the Scottish parliament of 1640 in place of the Lords of the Articles, to act in permanence during the recesses, both in the camp and at the capital. It was given full power to carry on the war against the king, to levy taxes, borrow money, and deal with all questions relating to the peace and order of the kingdom. It consisted of representatives of each of the three estates, which were now defined to be the nobility, barons, and burgesses ; but included also some who were not members of parliament. The last committee of this period, appointed in 1651, was captured by Monck a few months later, and its members were sent as prisoners to London. It was summoned to meet again in 1660, but in the next year parliament revived the Committee of the Lords of the Articles. The convention which met at the time of the Revolution of 1689 also appointed a Committee of Estates, in accordance with the precedents of the Great Rebellion.

R. S. Rait, " The Parliaments of Scotland," 1924.

Estates of the Realm is a term frequently used to designate the two Houses of Parliament. According to popular doctrine, mediæval society was organized into the three orders or estates of clergy, nobles, and commons —those who prayed, those who fought, and those who worked—and the English parliament was carefully planned to represent and reflect all three. Modern investigations have shown the fallacy of this view. Although it is true that representatives of Church, baronage, and commons all found a place in the parliaments of the Middle Ages, the bicameral form which that assembly assumed sharply differentiates it from true systems of estates such as the representative bodies of Scotland or France. The " House of Lords " was compounded of both the first and the second " estates," and contained in addition an official or conciliar element which belonged to neither ; while the Commons included, besides the burgess class, the knights of the shire or lesser barons who belonged properly rather to the second than to the third order. The term " estate " was, in fact, during the Middle Ages exceedingly elastic in its application ; and it is not until the fifteenth century, when, as a result of the conquests of Henry V, England was peculiarly susceptible to the influence of French analogies, that we find the first official reference to parliament as consisting of " tres status." Thereafter the expression passed gradually into popular use, until, with its adoption by the nineteenth-century historians, it acquired a recognized place in current historical terminology.

A. F. Pollard, " Evolution of Parliament," 1920.

Estates of Scotland, The. In Scotland the representative assembly of the nation had more in common with the French than with the English parliament. It was, " in its origin and throughout its history, definitely and avowedly a parliament of estates." To describe it as an assembly of the three estates of clergy, barons, and burgesses is, however, strictly accurate only in the early period of its history. The lesser clergy, as in England, soon ceased to attend ; while in the seventeenth century, with the disappearance of the bishops and abbots, the clerical estate ceased entirely to be represented. Meanwhile, the estate of tenants-in-chief had broken up in the fifteenth century into the hereditary lords of parliament, and the commissioners of the shires. Thus, in the last years of its existence, the Scottish parliament was composed only of two groups

representing the original estate of the barons, and one group representing the original estate of the burgesses. It included also an official element: the great officers of state attending *ex officio* from the sixteenth century onwards, and the judges of the Court of Session from their formal institution in 1532. The historical council of the Scottish kings can be traced back with certainty only to the reign of David I (1124–53); although there are some faint indications that it was already in being under his predecessor Alexander (1107–24). The technical term *curia regis* does not appear before the time of William the Lion (1165–1214), while the word *parliament* first occurs in the records in 1293, although in a context which suggests that both the expression and the institution were already familiar. The assemblies of this period were, however, purely feudal in character. In the appeal to Edward I of England to adjudge the crown, and in the Treaty of Brigham of 1290, the "community" is mentioned as having a voice in the affairs of the nation; but this cannot be accepted as proof of the existence of any form of popular representation. The parliament held by Robert Bruce at Cambuskenneth in 1326 is traditionally regarded as the first in which the representatives of the third state had a place. It is not clear, however, that burgesses actually sat in that year, although a body of burgess commissioners took part in a national financial agreement made while parliament was in session. It was more probably under David II (1329–71), when the technical term "the three estates" first occurs, that the principle of burgess representation was admitted. By 1424 the third estate had become an essential element in all parliaments, and in all full assemblies of the great council of the realm. But since the burgesses had an assembly of their own in the Convention of Royal Burghs, which developed in the fifteenth century from the court of the Four Burghs of Edinburgh, Stirling, Berwick, and Roxburgh, and which had sovereign authority in all burghal disputes and questions, they were disposed to shirk parliamentary attendance. The number of commissioners to be sent by each burgh remained undetermined throughout the Middle Ages, and was eventually fixed by the convention in 1619 at one only, an exception being made in the case of Edinburgh, which was required to send two representatives. In theory all tenants-in-chief of the Crown were bound to attend the meetings of parliament, but in practice it became increasingly difficult to secure their presence. James I, therefore, in a statute of 1428, drew a distinction between the greater barons, who were to be individually summoned as hereditary Lords of Parliament, and the lesser tenants-in-chief, who were to be exempt from attendance on condition of electing two commissaries in each shire to represent them. This statute never became fully operative, but the principle was re-enforced by the County Franchise Act of 1587, which established a representative system in the shires and conferred the franchise on all tenants-in-chief holding land to the annual value of forty shillings. In spite of this measure, however, there was no regular attendance of the commissaries of the shires in parliament until late in the reign of James VI. The county franchise was widened by statute in 1661 and again in 1681. The commissaries and the members for the burghs were paid for their attendance. An act of 1641 fixed their pay at £5 Scots per day during their attendance and their journey to and fro.

All the work of the Scottish parliament was done by permanent commissions and committees, the practice of debating in full parliament being unknown. When the estates met they elected a committee composed of members from each of the three divisions. To this committee the work of discussing and maturing the measures to be passed was handed over. The estates did not sit while the committee was at work. When the bills were ready they met and passed them. This committee was called the *Lords of the Articles*. An early form of this practice of delegation is found in the reign of David II (1367), when it was adopted to enable the members to go home to get in the harvest. By the reign of James III (1460–88) it had become established as a regular part of parliamentary procedure. There was no fixed rule for choosing the Lords of the Articles, either as regarded their number or the mode of their election. This uncertainty led to a struggle between the estates and Charles I. The Lords of the Articles then numbered thirty-two, and an attempt was made to rob the majority in the estates of its power against the Crown by adroit management in their election. Eight bishops were first elected; they in their turn chose eight barons, and barons and bishops together chose eight commissaries and eight burgesses. Thus the whole committee were picked partisans of the bishops, who were themselves entirely amenable to the royal will. The estates protested, each division claiming in 1639 the right to elect its own delegates. This matter of the election of the Lords of the Articles was again fought over in 1689. The parliament which had put William on the throne demanded the right of discussing measures in plain parliament, after the English fashion. The king at first refused to agree to this, and offered to increase the number of the Lords of the Articles to thirty-three, and to leave the estates perfect freedom of choice; but the estates were firm in their demands. William yielded, and an act of 1690 finally abolished the Lords of the Articles.

The estates were formerly the highest court of justice in Scotland. They possessed and exercised jurisdiction in both criminal and civil cases, and professed to give "remeid of law" in cases of appeal against the justiciars and sheriffs. To manage this judicial business a

committee, called the *Lords Auditors of Complaints*, was appointed from 1341 onwards, but its powers lasted only while parliament was sitting, and it proved incapable of dealing with the vast number of cases which came before it. Under James I, therefore, a court (later known as "the Sessions"), comprising the chancellor and selected members of the three estates, was appointed to supplement the work of the auditors; but its functions were transferred, before the end of the century, to the Lords of the Council. The inconveniences arising from the fact that the council followed the king, combined with the old problem of congestion of business, soon, however, necessitated further reform; and in 1504 a "daily council" was established to sit continuously at Edinburgh, or in some other fixed place. Finally, in 1532 a permanent and professional Court of Sessions was established by parliamentary authority, to exercise its judicial functions in all civil actions.

The history of the Scottish parliament ends with the Act of Union of 1707, which provided for the representation of Scotland in the parliament of the United Kingdom of Great Britain. The influence it exercised on the national fortunes was at no time comparable to that exerted by the English parliament. The representative system on which it was based was narrow and defective, while the practice of delegation of functions made it peculiarly susceptible to royal control. It has been well said that "the thoughts and deeds which give its nobility and its greatness to Scottish history must be sought elsewhere" than in the annals of its parliamentary institutions.

"Acts of the Parliament of Scotland" (Record Commission, 1834–75), 12 vols.; "Records of the Convention of the Royal Burghs of Scotland" (1870–90), 6 vols.; P. Hume Brown, "History of Scotland," 1911; C. S. Terry, "History of Scotland," 1924; R. S. Rait, "The Parliaments of Scotland," 1924; C. S. Terry, "The Scottish Parliament, 1603–1707," 1905. [M. M.] [H. M. C.]

Ethandun, The Battle of (878), was the great victory of Alfred over the Danes after his retirement to Athelney. This led immediately to the treaty with Guthrum at Chippenham. [Alfred.] Ethandun is usually identified with Edington, near Westbury, Wilts.

Ethelbald (Æthelbald), King of Mercia (716–57), was descended from one of the brothers of Penda. He was persecuted by Ceolred, and took refuge in the marshes of the fenland. On the death of Ceolred, he was chosen king, though not perhaps without opposition. His reign was distinguished by several contests with the Welsh. Though he failed to subdue Northumbria, he reduced Wessex, under Ethelheard and Cuthred, to vassalage, and assumed the title of "Rex Britanniæ," with the overlordship of all England south of the Humber. His later years saw, however, a reversal of his fortunes. He was defeated by Cuthred of Wessex at Burford, in 752, and again, in 757, at Seckington, where he is supposed to have been slain by his own bodyguard.

Ethelbald (Æthelbald), King of the West Saxons (858–60), succeeded his father, Ethelwulf, against whom he had successfully rebelled in 856. Ethelwulf made over Wessex to him, but retained until his death Kent, Sussex, and Essex, and a general suzerainty. Ethelbald's marriage with his stepmother, Judith, is the solitary fact we know about him with certainty, as there is a gap in the "Anglo-Saxon Chronicle" at this period.

Ethelbert (Æthelberht), King of the West Saxons (860–6), succeeded his brother Ethelbald. He had already ruled for some years as sub-king of Kent and Essex. The "Anglo-Saxon Chronicle" tells us that "he held the kingdom in good order and great tranquillity." Most of his reign was occupied in repelling the incursions of the Danes, who in 860 were strong enough and bold enough to attack Winchester, the royal city of the West Saxon kings. In 865 the invaders wintered in Thanet, and Kent suffered heavily from their inroads.

Ethelbert (Æthelberht), King of Kent (560 ?–616), ranks as the third Bretwalda, succeeding in that dignity to Ceawlin of Wessex. At first he appears to have been subject to his more powerful neighbour, by whom he was defeated at Wibbandun (? Wimbledon) in 568. In 591, however, Ceawlin was overthrown at Woddesbeorge (? Wanborough in Wilts), and his *imperium* passed to his adversary, the King of Kent, who became suzerain of all the Teutonic states of Britain save Northumbria. Ethelbert's marriage with Bertha, daughter of Charibert, King of Paris, is a most significant event in his reign, as it led indirectly to the coming of St. Augustine and the conversion of Ethelbert to Christianity (597). The earliest code of Anglo-Saxon laws bears the name of Ethelbert of Kent.

Ethelfleda (Æthelflæd) (*d.* 917) was a daughter of King Alfred. She was married to the ealdorman Ethelred, and, together with her husband, ruled over Mercia. She was of great assistance to her brother Edward in recovering north-eastern Mercia from the Danes, and joined him in rebuilding Chester and other ancient towns that had fallen into decay, and in establishing a system of "burhs" or fortified centres for the defence of the conquered territory. In 915 her troops defeated the Welsh at Brecon. Her husband died in 910, and she left only a daughter, Elfwin (Ælfwyn), whom Edward deprived of the government of Mercia, and immured in a nunnery. Ethelfleda's title of "The Lady of the Mercians" is expressive of the power she possessed, and of the relations in which she stood to Edward. Her position is unique among Anglo-Saxon princesses, and suggests that she was a woman of strong personality, and of exceptional capability.

Ethelfrith (Æthelfrith), King of Northumbria (593–617), was the son and successor of Ethelric. He married a daughter of Ella of Deira, and incorporated that state with his own kingdom of Bernicia, having driven Edwin (q.v.), the infant son of Ella, into exile. He was a far-sighted and successful king. He defeated the Scots at Deegsastan (Dawstone) in 603, and the Britons, and captured the city of Chester (613). Bæda tells us that he destroyed the monastery of Bangor Yscoed, and put all the monks to death, asserting that as they prayed for his defeat, they were, though unarmed, fighting against him. Ethelfrith, having learnt that his brother-in-law, Edwin, had taken refuge with Redwald of East Anglia, demanded that he should be given up; and on his request being refused, war ensued, in the course of which Ethelfrith was defeated and slain at the battle of the Idle.

Ethelheard (Æthelheard), King of Wessex (726–40), succeeded his brother-in-law, Ine. He was descended from Cerdic, but belonged probably to a distant branch of the royal house. His election was opposed by the Atheling Oswald, but unsuccessfully. His reign was an unfortunate one; the British recovered something of what they had lost, and the Mercians captured Somerton (733), (perhaps the Somerton in Somerset), and probably also the land of the Chilternsætas; and Wessex was obliged for some years to own the Mercian overlordship.

Ethelhun (Æthelhun), called the "Proud Ealdorman," rebelled against Cuthred of Wessex in 750, but was defeated, and pardoned. In 752 it was chiefly owing to his bravery that the West Saxons won the battle of Burford.

Ethelnoth (Æthelnoth), Archbishop of Canterbury (1020–38), had been one of the chaplains of Canute, and was one of that king's chief advisers. It is to him that we must attribute much of Canute's civil and ecclesiastical policy. He was a man of large views, and being himself a secular, did much to improve the position of the secular clergy. During Canute's absence from England he was one of the regents of the kingdom, and to him the king addressed his famous letter describing his visit to Rome. On Canute's death, in 1035, Ethelnoth refused to crown Harold, and prohibited any of the bishops doing so.

Ethelred (Æthelred) **I**, King of the West Saxons (866–71), was the son of Ethelwulf, and succeeded on the death of his brother Ethelbert. His reign is important for his great struggle with the Danes. At first the invading host attacked the tributary provinces. In 866 they descended on East Anglia. Northumbria, disputed between rival kings, fell an easy prey in the next year, and York passed permanently into Danish hands. The invaders next turned upon Mercia (868). The West Saxon monarch, hastening to the relief of his vassal, Burhred, was unable to dislodge the invaders from Nottingham, which they had seized; but early next year they withdrew to harry the north once more. In 870 East Anglia was completely conquered, and its king, Edmund, put to death. In 871 the Danes attacked Wessex, the last stronghold of the English. They made Reading their headquarters. Thence they sallied forth, and no fewer than nine pitched battles ("folk-fights"), besides numerous smaller engagements, were fought between the Danes, led by Bægsceg and Halfdene, and the English, under Ethelred and his brother Alfred. The most important of these fights took place at Ashdown (q.v.), where the English were completely victorious; but in many of the other battles the Danes got the upper hand. In the midst of the struggle Ethelred died, probably of wounds sustained at Marton (or Marden). He was succeeded by his brother Alfred. [Alfred; Danes.]

Ethelred (Æthelred) **II**, King (978–1016), commonly called the "Redeless," the son of Edgar by Elfrida, was born in the year 968, and succeeded on the murder of his half-brother Edward. During the early part of his reign the government was in the hands of his mother and her party. Dunstan crowned the young king, but appears to have spent most of the remaining years of his life in retirement. We read of incursions of the Danes from the very commencement of the reign, but it was not till after the death of Dunstan, in 988, that attempts at settlement were made. In 991 East Anglia was attacked by a fleet under Olaf Tryggvason, and the great battle of Maldon (q.v.) fought, in which the brave ealdorman Brihtnoth was slain. In this year too, by the advice of Archbishop Sigeric, the fatal plan of buying off the invaders was adopted. In addition to foreign enemies, Ethelred had to contend against treason at home, his two favourites, Elfric, ealdorman of Mercia, and Edric Streona, frequently betraying his plans to the Danes. After repeated raids on England, Olaf of Norway, who had now joined forces with Sweyn of Denmark, was again bought off in 994. A short interval of peace followed, but in 997 the Danes resumed their attack. Devon and Cornwall were ravaged in that year; in 998 Dorset and Hampshire, and in 999 Kent, were harried. During a further brief interlude in 1000 Ethelred led an army into Cumberland, doubtless to punish the Irish and Scandinavian settlers there for assistance given to the invaders. The resumption of the Danish raids found the English no better prepared than before. In 1002 £24,000 are said to have been paid in danegeld. The year is one of great importance in English history. In the first place it saw the marriage of Ethelred to Emma, sister of the Norman duke, and the beginning of that association of Normandy with England that culminated in the Conquest

of 1066–72. In the second place it saw the disastrous massacre of St. Brice's Day—an attempt to safeguard the king by exterminating the Danish mercenaries—which, so far from achieving its purpose, merely led to a renewed invasion in force under Sweyn. He captured Exeter and Salisbury in 1003, and in 1004 attacked East Anglia, where for the first time he met with effective resistance. In 1006 "the great fleet came to Sandwich, and did all as they were wont; they ravaged and burned and destroyed wherever they went." Once more they were bribed to leave England. In 1008 Ethelred got together a fleet to oppose the Danes, but quarrels among the commanders and a great storm ruined this project, and the last chance against the invaders was gone. In 1009 London was ineffectually attacked, and in the next few years the Danes carried their ravages far and wide from their base in Kent, until "at length there was no head man who would assemble forces, but each fled as he best might; nor at the last would even one shire help another." In 1012 Archbishop Alfheah, who had been captured in the previous year, was martyred at Greenwich. In 1013 Sweyn made another great attack on England. The north at once submitted to him, and by the end of the year he was master of the whole country, and was acknowledged king, and Ethelred fled, with his wife and children, to his brother-in-law's court in Normandy. But Sweyn's death, in February 1014, enabled Ethelred to return. With the aid of his son Edmund he drove out Canute, who had been chosen king by the Danish portion of the inhabitants. But Canute returned in 1015, and ravaged Wessex; next year he passed into Mercia and Northumbria, which submitted to him. While he was preparing for the final conquest of Wessex, Ethelred died (April 23, 1016). Of Ethelred the "Anglo-Saxon Chronicle" says, "he held his kingdom with great toil and great difficulties the while that his life lasted." A modern historian has said that Ethelred rendered his greatest service to his people in dying; but even his death came too late to save the crown of England for his house.

E. A. Freeman, "Norman Conquest," 1867–71; T. Hodgkin, "Political History of England," vol. i.; Sir C. W. C. Oman, "England Before the Norman Conquest."

Ethelred (Æthelred), King of Mercia (675–704), was the son of Penda and brother of Wulfhere, whom he succeeded. He married Osthryth, sister of Aldfrid of Northumbria. He defeated Lothere of Kent in 676, and ravaged the whole of that kingdom. After a great battle fought on the Trent in 679, he compelled Egfrid of Northumbria to restore the province of Lindsey to Mercia. He resigned the crown in 704 in favour of his nephew, Cenred, and became a monk in the abbey of Bardney, where he died some years later.

Ethelred (Æthelred), King of Northumbria (774–9 and 790–6), was the son of Ethelwald Moll, and a man of notoriously evil life. In the fifth year of his reign he was compelled to abdicate and fly the country, but the death of his supplanter Elfwald and the bad government of Osred, his successor, afforded an opportunity for his return. He attempted to strengthen himself by the murder of Elfwald's infant sons, and of his rival Osred, whom he captured in 792, but in the sequel was himself assassinated by some of his thegns.

Ethelwald (Æthelwald) **Moll,** King of Northumbria (759–65), succeeded after the murder of Oswulf. His parentage is unknown, but very probably he was one of the thegns who assassinated Oswulf. Civil war distracted his reign, and he was eventually deposed and compelled to retire to a monastery.

Ethelwald (Æthelwald) was the son of Ethelred I, and had been set aside as a minor in 871 in favour of Alfred. On Alfred's death he rebelled against Edward the Elder, and seized Wimborne and Twyneham; but on the approach of Edward he fled to the Danes in Northumbria and was received by them as king. In 901 he subdued Essex, and persuaded the East Anglian Danes to invade Mercia, but in 902 he was slain in a skirmish.

Ethelwulf (Æthelwulf), King of the West Saxons (839–58), was the son of Ecgbert, whom he succeeded. His reign was occupied in great measure in repelling the incursions of the Danes, by whom he was defeated in 842 at Charmouth, and who, in 851, captured Canterbury and London, and drove out the Mercian king. Ethelwulf marched against them, and routed them at Aclea (? Oakley, near Basingstoke); and in 853 he assisted Burhred, King of Mercia, against the North Welsh, "and made them all obedient to him." In 855 the Danes, for the first time, wintered in England, and in this year Ethelwulf made a pilgrimage to Rome, whither he had already sent his youngest son, Alfred, two years previously. On his way home he married Judith, daughter of Charles the Bald, King of the West Franks, and grandson of Charlemagne. During his absence, Asser tells us, his eldest son, Ethelbald, conspired against him, and Ethelwulf, on his return, to avoid a civil war, gave up Wessex to him, retaining Kent, Sussex, and Essex, and a general suzerainty over the rest of his dominions for himself. Ethelwulf is best known for his famous "Donation," which is often erroneously said to have originated the system of tithes (q.v.). In reality, it was merely the tenth part of his private estate that was concerned. Apparently he booked the land to various subjects, lay or ecclesiastical, on the understanding that it should be applied to religious purposes.

Eustace (*d.* 1153), the second son of King Stephen, was heir-apparent to his father by the death of his elder brother, Baldwin. Stephen was extremely anxious that Eustace

should be crowned king in his lifetime, thus ensuring the succession to him, but this the pope refused to allow, on the ground that no innovation was permissible while the crown of England was in dispute. Eustace died in 1153, and thus the way was open for the compromise between Stephen and Henry II, which was effected by the Treaty of Wallingford (q.v.). Eustace married Constance, sister of Louis VII of France, but left no children.

Eutaw Springs, The Battle of (September 8, 1781), was the last serious engagement in the American War of Independence. On the departure of Lord Rawdon for England, Colonel Stewart had succeeded to the command at Charleston. Greene was too strong and too unembarrassed to remain any longer quiet, and he descended from the Santee Hills, with the intention of driving the British into Charleston, and there blockading them. Stewart met him at the Eutaw Springs. At first the British were repulsed along the whole line, but they finally drove the Americans from their positions, and remained masters of the field. Their loss, however, was 700 men, and Stewart was too much weakened to reap any results from his victory. He was compelled to fall back to Charleston Neck, and to look on while Greene overran South Carolina and Georgia.

Evelyn, John (1620–1706), the diarist, served in several official positions during the reign of Charles II. He was one of the council for the management of the plantations (1671), and a member of the board of trade, and in 1695 he became treasurer of Greenwich Hospital. He wrote several works on horticulture, architecture, and general literature. His "Diary," together with his letters, was first printed in 1818, and has been frequently republished. Evelyn's memoirs are of great value for their sketches of persons and society during the latter half of the seventeenth century.

H. Evelyn, "History of the Evelyn Family," 1915.

Evesham, The Battle of (1265), was fought during the Barons' War between Prince Edward and Simon de Montfort. The quarrel with the de Clares and the escape of Prince Edward had arrayed a formidable band of enemies against de Montfort. The royalists were in the Welsh Marches, whither Simon set out against them; but by the capture of Gloucester they cut off his retreat, and having routed the younger Simon at Kenilworth on August 1, Edward marched to Evesham, where de Montfort was waiting for his son. The earl was taken by surprise, and on the morning of August 4 woke to find the town surrounded by the royalist forces. He at once perceived that he had been completely out-generalled. "God have mercy on our souls," he cried, "for our bodies are the lord Edward's!" In vain he attempted to force his way through to Kenilworth, and at length all he could do was to draw his troops round him in a compact ring, and await the attack of the royalists. His son Henry fell at his feet, and at last the earl himself rushed into the thickest of the fight, and was hewn down. With him died also his companion Peter Montfort, the baronial justiciar Hugh Despenser, and many other men of mark. The royalists refused quarter, and terrible havoc was made of the baronial forces. "Such was the murder of Evesham," exclaims Robert of Gloucester, "for battle none it was!" The royalists had distinguished themselves by red crosses on their arms, and the few who fell in action owed their death to neglect of this precaution, being killed by their own comrades in mistake.

W. H. Blaauw, "Barons' War," 1844; biographies of Simon de Montfort.

Exchequer was the name of the court in which, after the Conquest, the financial business of the country was transacted. The name arose from the chequered cloth, like a chess-board, which covered the table of the court. The chequers were probably useful in counting money, for which purpose counters were used as late as the reign of Edward II. The organization of the court dates from Henry I, and it seems to have been originally merely a specialized financial committee of the Great Council. Its principal officers were the great officers of the state and household, with certain others, councillors or judges, appointed by the king, who were called Barons of the Exchequer (*Barones Scaccarii*). The court was generally held at Westminster, but was not fixed there in the twelfth century. Henry II restored the court, and a full account of it as it existed in his reign is contained in the work called "Dialogus de Scaccario" (q.v.). By the thirteenth century the sheriffs made half-yearly payments (the *profer*) at Easter and Michaelmas, and had their accounts audited once a year. These accounts were rendered in two divisions: the *visus compoti*, or statement; and the *summa*, or balance, with vouchers. At a later date there was a third stage known as *the final view*, when arrears were cleared off. All the revenue from the *ferm* or rent of the counties, the danegeld, pleas of the Crown, aids, and other feudal dues, were thus brought into the Exchequer. The accounts with the sheriffs were kept by tallies, or pieces of wood inscribed and notched. These were divided down the middle, and one half was kept by the sheriff and the other by the court. Payment of the ferm of the counties was made in money instead of in kind by the reign of Henry II. Besides the receipt of revenue, the business of the Exchequer included jurisdiction in cases which affected the revenue; it recorded agreements, charters, and feoffments; and it sometimes seems to have acted as a political council of state, especially in matters of foreign treaties. When the office of justiciar became extinct, the place of president at the Exchequer Board, which formerly belonged to the justiciar, was taken by the treasurer. By 4 & 5 Will. IV, c. 15,

the whole position of the Exchequer as regards the receipt of revenue was changed. For this purpose its organization consists of a board, at the head of which is an officer called the comptroller-general. All revenue is paid into the Bank of England to his account, and all payments made by the Exchequer are made in virtue of warrants from the treasury.

The Exchequer must also be considered with reference to jurisdiction. No small part of its judicial business was lost by the separation of the Court of Common Pleas from the King's Bench (Magna Carta, art. 17). It still retained jurisdiction in revenue cases, and in the pleas of all who were in any way connected with the court. Special leave was also given to implead in the Exchequer as an indulgence. Like the other courts, the Exchequer drew business to itself wherever it was possible. This usurpation of jurisdiction was made a subject of complaint, and by the Articuli super cartas (28 Ed. I, c. 4) it was provided that no common pleas except those of privileged persons should be heard in that court. From the reign of Edward II a regular series of chief barons begins. With this separate organization, however, the usurpation by the Exchequer of jurisdiction properly belonging to other courts continued. It drew jurisdiction to itself by means of a writ of *quo minus*, in which it was suggested that the plaintiff was indebted to the Crown, and needed payment from the defendant to enable him to pay the king. Courts of Exchequer were set up in Scotland and in Ireland, when those countries were united to England as regards legislation. The fiction of the writ of *quo minus* was abolished by 2 Will. IV, c. 39—the Uniformity of Process Act—and a proper jurisdiction was given to the Exchequer. An equitable jurisdiction also pertained to this court, which was extended by the same means as those used in its common-law side. While, however, the barons were the judges on the common-law side, the treasurer and chancellor of the Exchequer presided in equity cases. The appointment of the chancellor dates from the reign of Edward II. In his oath of office he bound himself to use the seal of the Exchequer for no writs of other courts while the Chancery was within twenty miles. The last case in which the chancellor exercised judicial functions was in 1735. The equity business of the Exchequer was transferred to the Court of Chancery by 5 Vict. c. 5. The Court of Exchequer has now become, by the act of 1873, the Exchequer Division of the High Court of Justice. The chancellor of the Exchequer has now no judicial functions, and is the member of the cabinet who is at the head of the financial administration and acts as minister of finance.

The *Court of Exchequer Chamber* was erected as a statutory court by 31 Ed. III, c. 12, to decide cases on writs of error from the common-law side of the Exchequer. Its judges were the lord chancellor, the lord treasurer, and the justices of the King's Bench and Common Pleas. This court was reorganized by 27 Eliz., c. 8, which may indeed be more properly said to have created a new court, having jurisdiction in appeal from the King's Bench. By 1 Will. IV, c. 70, a new court was erected, for the judgments of each common-law court were made subject to revision by the judges of the other two courts sitting in the Exchequer chamber. The appellate jurisdiction of this court was transferred to the new Court of Appeal, founded by the Supreme Court of Judicature Act (36 & 37 Vict. c. 66, s. 18).

Madox, "History of the Exchequer"; "Dialogus de Scaccario" (Oxford edition); R. Lane Poole, "Exchequer in the Twelfth Century," 1912; T. F. Tout, "Chapters of Mediæval Administrative History"; "Pipe Roll of 1295" (Surrey Record Society).

[W. H.]

Excise, The, is generally defined as a duty charged before their sale on goods which are manufactured and consumed at home (as distinct from customs-duties levied at the ports upon imported goods); but it is sometimes used of any tax laid upon the retail trade. It is generally supposed that this tax was first levied in England by the Parliamentary party in the time of the Civil War. It was not until July 22, 1643, when an excise was imposed in imitation of the Dutch, by an ordinance of both Houses, and afterwards by the king's rival convention at Oxford, that it became a recognized source of revenue. The first articles levied upon were ale and beer, salt, alum, saffron, starch, silks, and other items of food and clothing. Feeling was strongly aroused against the innovation; particularly in 1647. But under the Commonwealth it was treated as an ordinary source of annual revenue. After the Restoration half the produce of the excise was assigned to the Crown in compensation for the surrender of the revenues derived from feudal tenure, whereby the burdens of the rich were transferred to the whole nation. James II obtained from his first parliament extra excise and custom duties, valued at £900,000 a year, but only £300,000 of this, taken from the excise, was granted to William and Mary, although the revenue granted to Charles II was continued. At the same time parliament declared the excise to be "the most easy and indifferent levy that could be laid upon the people." This view was not shared by the nation at large, and in 1693–4 a struggle was waged in parliament between Sir Edward Seymour and Sir John Lowther on the question of the excise on salt, leather, and soap. The excise long continued to be a most obnoxious tax, the popular prejudices, caused partly by the practice of letting out the duties in farm, and partly by the obscurity of the statutes bearing on the subject, being even entertained by men like Blackstone and Dr. Johnson. Sir Robert Walpole, in 1733, found these prejudices fatal to his Excise Scheme (for which

see Lord Morley's life of Walpole, 1888). He wished to conciliate the country gentlemen by diminishing the land-tax to one shilling, and for that purpose imposed a duty on salt. When the new tax was found to fall short by two-thirds of the required amount, he proposed —not indeed, as had been reported, a general system of excise—but the substitution of excise duties for customs duties on wine and tobacco. By this means smuggling would be lessened, while by a system of warehousing without tax for re-exportation, London would become a free port. The opposition, however, raised a most violent outcry against the measure, and the general dislike to it was so great that it was thought an attempt to enforce it would have been met by armed resistance in some localities, the ministerial party dwindled rapidly away, and Walpole was compelled to withdraw the bill based upon his resolution. The excise was defended as making the poor man contribute to the cost of a benefit which he shared, and as distributing the burden of taxation equally. It was denounced by its opponents as an infamous tax on the necessaries of life of the poor. Subsequent ministries increased the amount of the excise duties, partly to decrease drunkenness (for instance, in 1746 a tax of 20s. a gallon was laid on spirits, and in consequence smuggling increased a hundredfold), and levied them on a large number of commodities. This was especially the case during the great struggle with Napoleon, when the excise included taxes on nearly every conceivable article of home manufacture and consumption—licences to permit persons to carry on certain trades or to shoot game; post-horse duties, duties on sales by auction, and other imposts. A great many of these duties have, however, since been abolished, and others have been transferred to the customs. The excise is now almost confined to British spirits and malt liquors. The management of the excise has also been simplified, notably in 1823, when the separate boards for the three kingdoms were abolished, and in 1848, when the board left Gresham House and was merged with those of stamps and taxes into the Inland Revenue Board at Somerset House.

W. Kennedy, "English Taxation, 1640–1799," 1913; J. F. Rees, "Fiscal and Financial History of England, 1815–1918," 1921; S. Dowell, "History of Taxation and Taxes in England," 4 vols., 1888; Sir N. J. Highmore, "Excise Laws," 3rd edn., 1923.

Exclusion Bill, The, was first brought into the House of Commons in May 1679. It disabled the Duke of York, as a papist, from succeeding to the crown, should he outlive his brother, and proposed that the crown should descend to the heirs of the Duke of York on Charles's demise, in the same manner as if the duke was himself dead. It met with considerable opposition in the Commons, but eventually passed by 207 votes to 128, upon which Charles dissolved parliament. He was, however, soon obliged to summon it again (October 1680), and the Exclusion Bill was again passed by the Commons; but the Lords, chiefly through the influence of Halifax, rejected it by 63 to 30 (November). In January 1681 the Commons voted that no supplies should be granted till the Exclusion Bill was passed, and refused to entertain Halifax's proposal, by which James was to rule only in name, a regent being appointed on his accession to the crown. Again the parliament was dissolved (January 16, 1681), but not before the Commons had voted that the opponents of the Exclusion Bill were traitors bought with French money. In the parliament which met at Oxford in March 1681 the Commons insisted on the passing of the Exclusion Bill. But this parliament was in like manner dissolved, and Charles summoned no more parliaments during his reign, and consequently, the Exclusion Bill fell through. A great deal of opposition to the measure arose from the fear that Shaftesbury and others were desirous of making Monmouth king.

Burnet, "History of His Own Time," ed. O. Airy, 2 vols., 1897–1900; G. M. Trevelyan, "England Under the Stuarts."

Exeter was probably a hill-fort of the Celtic inhabitants of Damnonia. Its ancient name *Caer Wisc* became *Isca*, or *Isca Damnoniorum* in Latin, and *Exanceaster* in Anglo-Saxon. Conquered by the English at an uncertain date, the city was strongly fortified by Athelstan. It was several times besieged by the Danes in the reigns of Alfred and Ethelred II, and captured by Sweyn, owing to the treason of its governor, Hugh the French, in 1003. It was created an episcopal see by Edward the Confessor in 1046. In 1067 Exeter was besieged and captured by William the Conqueror. Baldwin de Redvers held it for Matilda in 1136. In September 1497 it was unsuccessfully besieged by Perkin Warbeck, and in 1549 it successfully stood a great siege against the western insurgents. Throughout the Civil War, Exeter was for the most part Royalist. It was captured by Prince Maurice in 1643, and remained in the hands of the king's adherents till nearly the close of the war, when it was retaken by Fairfax (1646). It was the first important place in England reached by William of Orange, who entered the city November 9, 1688. The cathedral, which was commenced by Bishop William of Warlewast in 1112, or perhaps earlier, was not completed till late in the fifteenth century.

See "Victoria County History: Devonshire"; and E. A. Freeman, "Exeter," 1887.

Exeter, Peerage of. In early times the Earls of Devon were sometimes styled Earls of Exeter. The first distinct peerage deriving its name from the city was the *dukedom* of Exeter, conferred, 1397, upon John Holland, Earl of Huntingdon, third son of Thomas Holland, Earl of Kent (son-in-law of Edmund Plantagenet, Earl of Kent), in 1399; however, the duke was degraded, and his honours

became forfeit. In 1416 Thomas Beaufort, youngest son of John of Gaunt, was created Duke of Exeter for his life. Afterwards, in 1444, John Holland, son of the 1st duke, was created duke, having been restored in blood and honours twenty-seven years earlier. The dukedom, however, again became forfeit on the attainder of his son Henry, 1461. In 1525 Henry Courtenay, Earl of Devon, was made *Marquis* of Exeter, but was attainted in 1539. His son Edward was restored in blood but not to the marquisate of Exeter. In 1605 Thomas Cecil, 2nd Baron Burghley, was created *Earl* of Exeter, and the honour still remains in his family, Henry Cecil, 10th earl, having been advanced to a *Marquisate* of the same style in 1801. [Beaufort; Cecil; Courtenay; Holland.]

Exhibitions in England. (1) The first modern exhibition was held in London in 1756 by the Society of Arts, and renewed in 1761. It was followed by a series of minor exhibitions.

(2) The first exhibition on an international scale was the Great Exhibition of 1851, the idea of which was developed by Whislaw, the secretary of the Society of Arts, and energetically taken up by the Prince Consort, under whose auspices a Royal Commission was issued in January 1850. The Great Exhibition was opened by Queen Victoria in Hyde Park on May 1, 1851. It attained a success beyond all expectation, and remained open until October 15. The buildings of glass and iron were subsequently removed to form the Crystal Palace at Sydenham. Other international exhibitions in different parts of the world followed during the next few years, including one at Dublin in 1853. A second international exhibition was held in London in 1862 (May–November) after being postponed for two years on account of the War of Italian Liberation.

(3) Smaller and less comprehensive exhibitions soon began to multiply. A series was held at South Kensington until 1874, and again from 1883 till 1886. Exhibitions were held at Newcastle in 1881, Perth in 1882, the Crystal Palace (International) and Edinburgh in 1884, at Edinburgh again in 1886 (International), Newcastle and Manchester (International) in 1887, Glasgow (International) in 1888, the Crystal Palace (Mining) in 1890, Chelsea (Military and Naval) in 1891–2, the Crystal Palace (Electrical) and Liverpool (Naval) in 1893, Glasgow (International) in 1901, and Dublin in 1907. Meanwhile the annual exhibitions had begun at Earl's Court (1887–91); they were renewed in 1895. A Franco-British Exhibition was held in London in 1908, and an Anglo-Latin Exhibition in 1912.

(4) Since the Great War several important exhibitions have taken place in Europe; notably those at Strasburg (1919) and Rio de Janeiro (1922), and the colonial exhibitions of France (1922) and Great Britain (1924–5). The British Empire Exhibition at Wembley (April 23—November 1, 1924, and May 9—October 31,1925) was held with a view to fostering inter-imperial trade and understanding, and developing empire raw material.

Exton, Sir Piers, is supposed to have been a relative of Sir Nicholas Exton, who was lord mayor of London in 1386 and 1387. Exton is said to have murdered Richard II in Pontefract Castle, but the whole circumstances of Richard's death are too obscure to allow us to charge him with the crime with any degree of confidence.

H. Wallon, "Richard II," 1864; "Political History of England," vol. iv.

Extradition is the surrender of fugitives from justice by one state to another. No systematic usage in this matter prevailed until the present century. Perhaps the only early treaty containing a provision as to extradition was that of 1174, between William of Scotland and Henry II, wherein it was agreed that persons guilty of felony in England taking refuge in Scotland should be given up, and vice versa. But the other mediæval treaties usually quoted—e.g., the "Intercursus Magnus" with Burgundy in 1494—appear to have contained nothing more than general promises not to harbour rebels. The question of extradition seems to have been first investigated by Grotius and the jurists of the seventeenth century, who laid down the principle that states were bound, either by the law of nations or by reasons of "comity," to give up fugitive criminals; but the earliest distinct statement of English common law was the declaration of the Court of Exchequer in 1749, that "the government may send a prisoner to answer for a crime wherever committed." Yet such dicta, though recognizing the duty of extradition, were of slight authority, and action upon them could have been prevented by an appeal for a writ of Habeas Corpus. England for the first time bound itself by treaty at the Peace of Amiens in 1802, in which it was agreed with France that fugitives charged with forgery, fraudulent bankruptcy, or murder should be surrendered. During the early part of the nineteenth century the law of extradition was rapidly developed in the United States, owing to the need of some arrangement between the States forming the Union and between the United States and Canada. In England, however, the history of extradition really begins with the treaties of 1842 with the United States, and of 1843 with France. In 1852 a new convention was made with France, and in this, for the first time, exception was made in the case of persons charged with political offences. Each of these treaties had been confirmed by act of parliament, the constitutional doctrine being that, though the Crown could make extradition treaties, the executive could not carry them out without

statutory authority. On the other hand, "it may be regarded as certain that England will not surrender fugitives except under a treaty." The Extradition Act of 1870 (amended 1873, 1895, and 1906) empowered the executive to carry out extradition treaties made in accordance with its provisions, viz., that no fugitive should be surrendered for a political offence, nor tried for any but the crime for which he was demanded. Under this statute extradition treaties have been made with almost every European state, and with some others.

E. Clarke, "Law of Extradition," 4th edn., 1903; S. Webster, "Extradition," 1890; Biron and Chalmers, "Law and Practice of Extradition," 1903.

[W. J. A.]

F

Factory Legislation. The great development of English industry towards the end of the eighteenth century, unaccompanied by any State regulation or supervision, led to gross and widespread neglect of the commonest precautions for the preservation of the health of the workers. In the last century a long series of acts was passed designed to protect the health of labourers in factories and workshops, and especially of women and children. The *Health and Morals Act* of 1802 (42 Geo. III, c. 73) was passed at the instance of Sir Robert Peel the elder, and attempted to protect the interests of the pauper children who were supplied in large numbers by the Poor Law authorities to the cotton-mill owners in the north. "Theoretically these boys and girls were apprenticed to their new masters; in practice they became their property, and when one millowner became insolvent his apprentices were put up for sale as part of his stock" (Heaton). It provided for the cleansing and ventilation of cotton factories; but the scandals of the apprentice system had produced the act, and it was mainly directed to limiting the hours of apprentices' work to twelve a day, the prohibition for them of night work, with some arrangements for their clothing, education, and moral well-being. The provisions of this measure were evaded. Finally, as a result of the tireless efforts of Robert Owen (q.v.), the *Second Factory Act* of 1819 (59 Geo. III, c. 56) was passed on the recommendation of a committee of the House of Commons, appointed in 1816. Its operation was limited to cotton-mills. By it children under nine were not to be employed at all. Between nine and sixteen, they were not to work over twelve hours a day, and night work was prohibited. In 1833 *Lord Althorpe's Act* (3 & 4 Will. IV, c. 103) became law. It introduced shorter hours for "children" (i.e., those between nine and thirteen), and made their education out of work hours compulsory. The provisions confined by earlier acts to cotton-mills were made more general, and a new departure was made by some provision for the welfare of "young persons" (i.e., those between thirteen and eighteen). Inspectors were appointed to see the acts carried out, as the justices had proved but inefficient executors of previous legislation. But a more general law was still wanted, and *Sir Robert Peel's Factory Act*, 1844 (7 & 8 Vict. c. 15), was passed. Lord Ashley's long and philanthropic agitation had won two victories over the government in the House of Commons in favour of a ten hours' limit to the labour of women and children. At last, Peel agreed to accept a twelve hours' limit, and the amended bill of Lord Ashley thus became law. Its provisions were that the working hours of children under thirteen should be diminished to six and a half hours per day; that the time during which they were to be under daily instruction in schools should be extended from two to two and a half hours in winter, and three hours in summer; that the labour of persons between thirteen and eighteen, and of adult women (now first brought under the Factory Acts), should be limited to twelve hours a day; that a certificate of baptism should be produced, if demanded, to prove that the child was really of the age required by the law; that the amount of the fines imposed for the violation of the law should be diminished, but that they should be inflicted for each person improperly worked, instead of for each offence, which might include several persons; and that machinery should be guarded, to prevent accident. Inspectors were appointed to carry out the act. In 1847 John Fielden, member for Oldham, introduced and carried a bill which limited the labour of young people between the ages of thirteen and eighteen to twelve hours a day, allowing two hours out of the twelve for meals; and he further proposed that the same restriction should apply to females above eighteen years of age. The principle of State regulation of the labour of women and children was thus fully recognized. The piecemeal method of English legislation rendered it now necessary for the friends of the Factory Acts to get supplemental statutes passed to include the unprotected industries. Among these were the *Mining Act* of 1842, which entirely prohibited female and child labour in mines. In 1845 Lord Ashley's *Print-works Act* was passed. In 1850 a thorough measure for supervising mines was passed (*Coal and Iron Mines Act*). Not till 1860 were bleaching and dye-works included in the acts; not till 1867 were all factories included in the scope of the *Factory Acts Extension and Workshop Regulation Acts* (30 & 31 Vict. c. 103 and 146); and even here small exceptions required subsequent legislation, and the mistake of the act of 1867 in entrusting the working to local authority had to be corrected in 1871 by its transference to government inspectors. In 1878 was passed Sir R. A. (afterwards Viscount) Cross's *Factory and Workshop Act* (41 Vict. c. 16), repealing,

consolidating, and amending all prior acts. There was further legislation in 1891 and 1895. In 1901 an act was passed consolidating, with amendments, all previous acts.

In 1886 Sir John Lubbock's *Shop Hours Act*, amended 1892, limiting the hours of labour for young persons in retail shops, was passed, and a *Shop Assistants (Seats) Act* in 1899. Legislation covering "domestic workshops" was passed in 1891 and 1895, providing for the inspection of out-workers' homes. The regulation of laundries was made effective by an important act passed in 1907 which brought other hitherto unregulated institutions within the meaning of the Factory Acts. Subsequent legislation has paid special attention to the protection of workers in dangerous trades, and great advance has been made in regulative legislation by administrative order under statutory permission. The setting up of an International Labour Organization under the League of Nations has already influenced the factory laws in this country. An act of 1920, governing the employment of women, young persons and children, raised the minimum age for industrial employment to fourteen years. Further statutory changes are pending which will probably abolish the now unnecessary distinction between factories and workshops.

Hutchins and Harrison, "History of Factory Legislation"; Hammond, "The Town Labourer, 1760–1832"; Dunlop, "English Apprenticeship and Child Labour"; Dicey, "Law and Opinion in England"; Cole, "Life of Robert Owen"; Hammond, "Lord Shaftesbury"; Jevons, "The State in Relation to Labour."

Fairfax, Ferdinando (1584–1648), 2nd Baron (of Cameron, in the peerage of Scotland), son of Thomas Fairfax, 1st baron, of Denton, Yorkshire, married Mary, daughter of Lord Sheffield, in 1607. He represented Yorkshire in the Long Parliament, and was appointed, in September 1642, commander-in-chief of the Parliamentary forces in the northern counties. After some successes he was obliged to retreat into the West Riding before the superior forces of the Earl of Newcastle, and suffered a severe defeat at Adwalton Moor, near Bradford (June 30, 1643). With the remainder of his troops he made his way to Hull, which he successfully held against Newcastle's army, until he forced them to raise the siege (September 2–October 11, 1643). He took part in the battle of Marston Moor, and on the capture of York by the combined army (July 1644) was appointed its governor. He resigned in consequence of the Self-Denying Ordinance, and died March 14, 1648.

Fairfax, Thomas, 3rd Lord (1612–71), son of the preceding, was educated at St. John's College, Cambridge, and married Anne, daughter of Lord Vere (1637). He served in the royal army against the Scots, and was knighted by the king for his services. When the Civil War began he acted as his father's lieutenant in Yorkshire. On January 23, 1643, he recaptured Leeds, and on May 21 Wakefield, making on the latter occasion 1,400 prisoners. After the defeat at Adwalton Moor, at which he was present, he made his way to Hull, but during the siege joined Cromwell in Lincolnshire with his Yorkshire horse, and helped to gain the battle of Winceby (October 11, 1643). On January 29, 1644, he defeated the king's Irish troops at Nantwich, and reconquered the county of Cheshire for the Parliament. On April 10 he defeated Lord Bellasis, the governor of York, at Selby, taking 1,600 prisoners. He took part in the siege of York, and commanded the right wing of the Parliamentary horse at Marston Moor, and after the rout of that wing joined Lord Manchester's division. After the victory he was occupied in reducing the Yorkshire fortresses. These successes led the House of Commons to appoint him commander of the New Model Army (January 21, 1645). He took the field at the end of April 1645, with the intention of relieving Taunton, but was recalled from the West to besiege Oxford. On the news of the king's capture of Leicester, he raised the siege of Oxford (June 5), and overtook and defeated Charles at Naseby (June 14). Then he turned westward again, relieved Taunton, defeated Goring at Langport (July 10), and captured Bridgwater, Bristol, Tiverton, and other Royalist strongholds. With the defeat of Sir Ralph Hopton at Torrington, early in 1646 (February 16), the subjugation of the West was completed, and the surrenders of Exeter (April 9), Oxford (June 20), and Raglan (August 17) brought the first Civil War to an end. In the quarrels which took place next year between the army and Parliament, Fairfax, after labouring hard to effect a reconciliation, cast in his lot with the army, and shared the responsibility for the expulsion of the eleven members. On the outbreak of the second Civil War, Fairfax defeated the Kentish Royalists at Maidstone (June 2, 1648), and after ten weeks' siege obliged those who had taken refuge in Colchester to surrender. He seems to have been willing to approve of the trial and deposition of the king, but he refused to sit in the High Court of Justice, and on June 25, 1650, resigned his command rather than invade Scotland. During the Protectorate he took no part in public affairs. In Richard Cromwell's parliament he represented Yorkshire, and after the dissolution of that assembly was appointed by the Rump a member of the council of state (May 1659), but did not act. When Monck marched into England Fairfax raised volunteers, was joined by a large part of Lambert's forces, and occupied York. He openly declared for a free parliament, and for the restoration of the king (January 1660), thus exercising an important influence in bringing about the Restoration. His death took place in 1671. He was an able general and an honest man, but had none of the qualities of a statesman, so that, to use the phrase of

Clarendon, he was throughout "overwitted" by Cromwell.

Fairfax, "Short Memorials in the Antiquarian Repertory," vol. iii, 1808; C. Markham, "Life of the Great Lord Fairfax," 1870. [C. H. F.]

Falconberg, Mary, Countess of (1637–1712), was the third daughter of Oliver Cromwell; she was married in 1657 to Thomas Belasyse, Viscount (afterwards Earl of) Falconberg. Always attached to the Church of England, she exerted herself in favour of the Restoration. During Charles II's reign she frequently appeared at court.

Falconberg, William Neville, Lord (*d.* 1463). [Neville.]

Falkirk was the scene of two important battles: (1) Between the Scots and the English, July 22, 1298. This was fought in the valley between the town of Falkirk and the River Carron, and resulted in a victory for the English, who were commanded by Edward I, the earl marshal, and Anthony Beck, Bishop of Durham, over a far inferior Scottish force, led by Wallace and Sir John Grahame, the latter of whom was killed. Wallace had arranged the Scottish pikemen, on whom he mainly relied, in four circular bodies, connected by archers. The front was defended by palisades, and by a morass beyond them. Behind the main body was marshalled the cavalry, to prevent retreat. Well might Wallace say, "I have brocht you to the king, hop gif ye can." The first attacks of the English, led by the earl marshal, failed through the English becoming entangled in the morass. The Bishop of Durham then attempted a flank charge, to avoid the bog, but was equally unsuccessful. A third attack by the king in person changed the fortunes of the day. The circles were broken by the English archers, and the mounted knights completed the destruction of the enemy. The Scottish army was completely shattered, and Wallace, though he escaped from the field, remained a hunted fugitive for the short remainder of his life.

(2) Between the royal troops of George II and those of the Young Pretender, the former under General Hawley and Lord George Murray (January 17, 1746). The English left and centre failed to gain the upland of Falkirk Muir, though the right wing routed the Scottish left. Neither side had strength enough to take advantage of its success. The battle resulted in the defeat of the English.

Falkland Castle, in Fifeshire, was the scene of the Duke of Rothesay's murder in 1402. In 1592 Lord Bothwell made one of his numerous attempts to seize James VI while he was in the castle.

Falkland Islands, The (6,500 sq. m.), together with the uninhabited island of South Georgia (1,000 sq. m.) form the most southerly colony of Great Britain. The two large islands of East and West Falklands together with about two hundred others now have a population of 3,593. Sighted by John Davis in 1592, and passed by Sir Richard Hawkins two years later, they were visited in 1598 by Sebald de Wert, who called them Sebald Islands. In 1690 Strong, an English captain, named Falkland Sound. In 1764 de Bougainville, a French explorer, found the islands uninhabited and set up a colony of Acadians which was three years later bought by Spain. Meanwhile, Commodore Byron had taken possession for Great Britain and formed a settlement at Port Egmont, whence it was expelled in 1770 by the Spaniards: war was just avoided and the islands restored by Spain to Great Britain. Great Britain ignored her barren sovereignty until the formal occupation by the Republic of Buenos Ayres (1820) and the American destruction of that settlement (1831) forced England to resume occupation in 1832 in order to protect the whale fishery. In 1851 the Falkland Islands Company was granted a royal charter and bought out the 600,000 acres granted in 1845 to Mr. Lafone. In 1867 grazing leases were offered by proclamation to attract settlers, and within a year all the available land was occupied, largely by Scots shepherds. The islands were administered by naval officers until 1843, when a civil administration was instituted. They form, with the dependencies of South Georgia, South Orkney, South Sandwich, South Shetland, and Graham's Land, a Crown colony administered by a governor, assisted by an executive council of three official and one non-official members, and a legislative council of the above three officials and two unofficial members, all appointed by the Crown.

C. P. Lucas, "Historical Geography of the British Colonies," vol. ii, 1900 and 1905; Colonial Reports (annual); J. Goebel, Jr., "The Struggle for the Falkland Islands," Yale University Press, 1927.

Falkland Islands, The Battle of the (December 8, 1914), was a naval action fought in the early days of the Great War, between British and German squadrons under Admirals Sturdee and Von Spee respectively. Sturdee had been sent out on November 5 by Lord Fisher to avenge the battle of Coronel (q.v.). He fought with eight vessels; and Von Spee, unsuspectingly approaching Port Stanley, lost all his ships except the *Dresden* (which was subsequently sunk on March 14, 1915).

J. Irving, "Coronel and the Falkland Islands," 1927.

Family Compact, The, is the name applied to various treaties between the Bourbon Kings of Spain and France during the eighteenth century. The first compact began in 1733, and being specially directed against British trade led, in 1739, to a war between Spain and Great Britain. The second compact, known also as the Treaty of Fontainebleau, was concluded in 1743, and contemplated a French declaration of war on Great Britain. The most famous compact was the third, of 1761, the

object of which was to associate Spain with France in the Seven Years' War. Pitt had timely warning of the agreement, and the refusal of George III to sanction an attack on Spain led to Pitt's resignation. But when the compact became known, war was inevitable.

Famine, The Cotton, is the name generally given to the distress among the cotton operatives in Lancashire, in 1862–4, due to the stoppage of their raw material by the blockade of Southern ports in the American War of Secession. Great efforts at relief were made: in April 1863 the gifts for this purpose, in money and kind, were estimated by the chairman of the Central Relief Committee at more than £2,000,000. By 1864 the distress had been overcome.

Famine, The Potato (Ireland). In 1847 a failure of the potato crop caused the superabundant cottier population of Ireland to experience severe distress, which, coming after several years of scarcity, soon became as serious as an absolute famine. Despite the repeal of the Corn Laws and the exertions of State and private benevolence, many perished, and more escaped by emigrating to America. Among the political consequences of the famine was the revolutionary movement of Smith O'Brien (q.v.) in 1848, but more important was the social and economical revolution which the famine effected. The diminution of the population from eight millions to not much more than five; the disappearance of cottier tenancy in many parts of Ireland; great changes in the ownership and cultivation of land; the introduction of the "English system" of competition and free contract; the raising in some degree of the standard of living; and the creation of a new set of grievances, while old ones were removed—all flowed from the potato famine.

Famines, Indian. The irregularity of the rainfall of a tropical climate, hostile invasion, plagues of locusts, storms, imperfections in the system of transport, and excessive export of grain, have been the many causes of Indian famine. A dense and poor population, whose increase is checked by no prudential restraints, and which has few manufactures as a refuge when agriculture fails, must always be liable to experience the worst forms of such scarcities. The removal of the old positive checks on population by the strong government of the English has, if anything, increased the tendency to famine, though better organization of relief has made their effects often less disastrous. But in the early years of English rule in India (notably in 1770, 1781–3, and again in 1790–2) there were severe famines. The experience of these years led to the beginning of those remedial measures, permanent irrigation works and railways, for instance, which have in recent times made famines much less terrible, although they still recur with disastrous frequency.

"Famosus Libellus" was the title of a document sent by Edward III in 1341 to all the bishops and chapters in the kingdom, containing a recapitulation of the charges which the king had brought against Archbishop Stratford.

Farm. An early form of rent, originally a food rent. "*Firma* was but a latinization of *feorm*, the Anglo-Saxon word for food." An eleventh-century manor might pay to its lord a *firma unius noctis*, provisions for one night's lodging for the lord. Lands held *in firma* in Domesday were the king's demesne lands, and these he taxed, except in a few instances, with a money equivalent of the original food rent. The word "farm" seems in the course of time to have been used more and more for a money payment of a regular kind by an intermediary between the king and the original source of revenue. Thus the *firma comitatus* (farm of the shire) was the machinery by which the sheriff paid to the king a composite sum, while he himself collected the individual rents either from the manors or from sub-farmers, to whom he sold part of his collecting rights. We meet the expression again when the burgesses of the various royal boroughs arrange with the king to exclude the sheriff from their mutual revenue relations and to compound themselves for tolls, profits of justice, and other dues by a fixed money rent paid to the Exchequer. If fixed in perpetuity this *firma burgi* (farm of the borough) became a "fee-farm," a word which was generally adopted for the rent of lands and tenements held perpetually and heritably. In early mediæval times the farming system was not only largely employed in the collection of the king's rents, but it also played an important part in the administration of his tenant's lands.

Pollock and Maitland, "History of English Law"; Stephenson in *English Historical Review*, April 1924.

[A. V. J.]

Farnham Castle, the residence of the bishops of Winchester, overlooking the town of that name in the S.W. angle of Surrey, was built by Henry de Blois, destroyed by Henry III as adulterine, but rebuilt subsequently. It was governed by Denham for Charles I, and captured by Waller in 1642, when its fortifications were finally demolished.

Fast Castle, a famous stronghold on the coast of North Berwickshire near St. Abb's Head, was besieged in 1409 by Patrick Dunbar, and was the place to which the participators in the Gowrie Conspiracy (q.v.) proposed to carry off James VI.

Fastolf, Sir John (*d.* 1459), was an English soldier of some reputation under Henry V and in the struggles for the retention of France under Henry VI. In 1429 he was thoroughly beaten at Patay by the Maid of Orleans. In the "Paston Letters" we have copious accounts of his private life; these

show him to have been hard, grasping, and litigious. It has been suggested that he was the prototype of Shakespeare's Falstaff, with whom, however, he has little in common, except it be in the resemblance between their names, and in certain details of their careers.

J. Gairdner, Introd. to "Paston Letters," 1904.

Fauconberg, Thomas, The Bastard of Falconbridge or Fauconberg (*d.* 1471), was an illegitimate son of William Neville, Lord Falconberg (q.v.). In 1471 he landed in Kent to make a last attempt in favour of Henry VI. He got together some men, and forced an entrance into London, with the design of liberating Henry from the Tower. But when he burned Aldgate and the eastern suburbs, the citizens rose against him, and he was compelled to retire. This attempt made it necessary for Edward to put Henry to death.

Favourite, a word of ill-omen in English history, is generally used to designate a person who, having ingratiated himself with the sovereign, uses his power unworthily and for his own ends, who unduly influences his master, and who, without sharing ministerial responsibility, becomes practically the chief minister of the realm. We can hardly consider such men as Edric Streona (q.v.) in the light of favourites, and besides, the Anglo-Saxon constitution did not afford much opportunity for the favourite. The Norman kings were too wise to endanger their position by favouritism, and the same may be said of the early Plantagenets. Flambard and Falkes de Breauté (q.v.) are unworthy instruments in the hands of unscrupulous kings, and the power of such creatures is not derived from the mere favour of royalty. The real beginning of favouritism in England may be seen in the Poitevins and Savoyards who thronged to the court of Henry III, and of whom the unknown satirist of the day says :

"A paltry set of curs is troubling all the land—
Drive out or let them die, that base ungodly band."

Edward II's favourite, Piers Gaveston (q.v.), is typical of the class—handsome, brave, and high-spirited, armed with all the accomplishments of the age, but arrogant, self-seeking, and utterly reckless of consequences, whether to himself or to his master. The opposition was heightened by the fact that he was a foreigner, but the same objection cannot be urged against the Despensers, who succeeded Gaveston in Edward's affections. Here the opposition was personal, and was directed also against those influences which tended to separate the king from his barons. But the displacement of the Despensers and their weak-minded master only brought on the scene a far more criminal favourite than any that had appeared before. For nearly four years England was under the rule of Roger Mortimer (q.v.), whose criminal intrigue with the queen was the chief source of his power. At the end of Edward III's reign the king fell for a time under the influence of a worthless woman, Alice Perrers (q.v.), who abused her power, not only by obtaining lands and possessions for herself, but by interfering with the course of justice. The next reign was that of a young prince who made a bold attempt to govern by ministers of his own choice; but favouritism crept in, and de Vere must fall into the same category with the Despensers, even if de la Pole does not deserve the title of favourite. Henry VI and his queen, by the power they gave to Suffolk and Somerset, alienated the nobles, and laid themselves open to the charge of favouritism, an accusation which their antagonists were only too glad to take up. The influence of such a woman as Jane Shore (q.v.) in the time of Edward IV was probably not very great, though Richard III thought it worth while to make a severe example of her. The Tudors were far too able and far too determined to desire or need the aid of favourites, and the relations of Leicester and Essex to Queen Elizabeth were rather of a personal than of a political character. James I's nature needed some friend to lean upon, and he found his favourite first in Somerset, and, subsequently, in Buckingham. Charles II was too astute to injure his position by favouritism, and the secret advisers of James II, such as Father Petre, based their influence on religious rather than on personal grounds. The Dutch followers of William III were unjustly stigmatized as favourites, a name more deservedly applied to the Duchess of Marlborough and Mrs. Masham in the next reign, or to the venal mistresses of the first two Georges. Constitutional government made favouritism impossible. Bute was stigmatized as a favourite, but George III's effort to make him supreme in the councils of the nation was mainly part of that king's persistent policy to nominate his own ministers. Favouritism may now be considered extinct, and the methods of government have become of such a character that its revival is hardly likely. [F. S. P.]

Fawkes, Guy (1570–1606), was the agent and most famous conspirator in the Gunpowder Plot. A Yorkshireman by birth, he became a Catholic, and having wasted his patrimony, served with the Spanish army in the Netherlands, whence he returned to attempt to carry out the well-known conspiracy with which his name is inseparably connected. He was executed in 1606. [Gunpowder Plot.]

P. Sidney, "Gunpowder Plot," 1905.

Fealty (Lat. *fidelitas*) is, as its etymology shows, a promise of fidelity, made by one man to another. As used in a technical sense in feudal law it differs from homage, in that it had no necessary connexion with the holding of land, and from allegiance, which comes to be regarded as due to the sovereign only, and was a national, not a feudal obligation. The oath of fealty was taken at the time of doing homage (although it could be exacted in many

cases in which homage was not exigible), and when not taken to the king, in words something like these—"Hear you this, my lord A, that I, B, from this day forward will bear you faith of life and limb, saving my faith to the king and his heirs (i.e., saving the oath of allegiance which was taken by every subject), and the services which belong to you for the fees and tenements I hold of you, lawfully will perform to you, as they become due, to the best of my power, so help me God and the saints." On the continent generally and in palatinate jurisdictions in England, the oath of fealty would be taken absolutely without any saving clause reserving duty to the monarch as above. [FEUDALISM.]

Fearchar Fada (i.e., the Tall), a chief of the Dalriadic tribe of Cinel Loarn, is said to have endeavoured unsuccessfully to throw off the yoke of the Britons and Angles, in 678, in which year three battles were fought. In 683 he joined forces with Brude, king of the Picts, and advanced with greater success against his enemies. In 685 Egfrid of Northumbria was defeated and slain by Brude at Nechtansmere. Fearchar Fada died in 697.

Feckenham, JOHN DE (*d.* 1585), last abbot of Westminster, was under Henry VIII an Anglican, and Bonner's chaplain. He was imprisoned throughout the reign of Edward VI, and rewarded by Mary with the abbacy of the revived monastery of Westminster. He is described as "a man full of tender and gentle humanity," and all parties speak well of him. He attended the first parliament of Elizabeth, but was deprived and imprisoned, and though regaining partial liberty in 1574 by partial conformity, was again imprisoned till his death.

R. W. Dixon, "History of the Church of England," 5 vols., 1902.

Federated Malay States. [MALAYA, BRITISH.]

Feilding, BASIL, 2ND EARL OF DENBIGH (*d.* 1674), son of William Feilding, and Mary, sister of the Duke of Buckingham, was ambassador in Italy from 1634 to 1638. When the Civil War began, he took the side of the Parliament, in opposition to his father and family, and commanded a regiment at Edgehill. In June 1643 he was appointed commander-in-chief in the associated counties of Warwick, Worcester, Stafford, and Shropshire, and exercised his trust with zeal and vigour till the passing of the Self-denying Ordinance. He represented the Parliament at the Treaty of Uxbridge (1645), and in other negotiations. Though he refused to take part in the king's trial, declaring that he would "rather be torn in pieces than have any share in so infamous a business," he became a member of the first two councils of state of the Commonwealth. A zealous Presbyterian, he assisted his party in bringing about the Restoration, and exerted his influence on the side of moderation after that event. He was created Baron St. Liz in 1663.

Countess of Denbigh, "Royalist Father and Roundhead Son," 1915.

Felony. The original meaning of this word is still obscure; but it is probably derived from the Latin *fell* or *fel* meaning gall, hence an offence which is venomous or poisonous. In its original use it applied only to those offences which involved a breach of the obligations between lord and vassal; but in later English law it came to cover all the more serious crimes which, being breaches of the king's peace, fell within the jurisdiction of his courts. The feudal conception of felony left its mark on English law in the rule that the felon's land escheated to his lord. Subsequently we find a distinction drawn between *felonies* and *misdemeanours*, though no clear definition of either word is possible. Not all crimes which involved forfeiture were felonies. Misprision of treason, for instance, ranked only as a misdemeanour. If felony is defined as a crime punishable with death, it excludes petty larceny, which was never capital, and includes piracy, which was never felony. Felony was substantially a name for the more heinous crimes, and originally all felonies were punishable by death, except petty larceny and mayhem (i.e., maiming), which came by degrees to be treated as a misdemeanour. If a crime was made a felony by statute, the use of the name implied the punishment of death, subject, however, to the rules as to benefit of clergy. Thus, broadly speaking, felony may be historically defined as the name appropriated to crimes punishable by death, misdemeanours being a name for all minor offences. Since, however, milder punishments have within the last century been substituted for death, and the Felony Act of 1870 has abolished forfeiture, the distinction between felonies and misdemeanours has become of little practical importance.

W. S. Holdsworth, "History of English Law."

Felton, JOHN (*d.* 1628). A dismissed officer of the army who, partly from private wrongs, partly from fanaticism, assassinated the Duke of Buckingham in 1628, at Portsmouth. He was hanged at Tyburn on November 28.

Fenian Conspiracy, THE. The name is said to be derived from Fion or Finn MacCoul, the Fingal of Macpherson's Ossian. The Fenians formed at one time a sort of standing militia in Ireland. The Fenian "brotherhood" was formed in Ireland and the United States by John O'Mahony, to liberate Ireland from the connexion with England and establish a republic. Secret drillings in connexion with this society began to take place frequently in 1864, but the society is supposed to have been formed as early as 1858. On September 15, 1865, the Irish government of

Lord Wodehouse at last became possessed of information convincing them of the treasonable character of these proceedings. In consequence, between the 16th and 30th of that month, sixty-five persons were arrested in Dublin and about twenty in Cork, while O'Donovan Rossa, who was one of the conspirators, also had his paper, the *Irish People*, confiscated. James Stephens, the "Head Centre," was arrested, but was enabled to make his escape. A commission had been sitting since November in Ireland to try the prisoners, and many of them, including O'Donovan Rossa, were convicted of treason felony, and sentenced to periods of penal servitude varying from five to ten years. Important discoveries of documents had also been made. In May 1866 the American Fenians made a raid into Canada, but were promptly repulsed. Late in the autumn large stores of arms were seized, and the garrison of Ireland largely increased; but no blood was shed. In 1867 the rebellion so long threatened seemed at last to be breaking out. On February 11 came an attempt to surprise Chester, and on the 12th an outbreak in Kerry. The defence of Kilmallock police barracks, however, showed the feebleness of the movement. In March followed an attack on the barracks at Tallaght; it was repulsed, and 208 prisoners were brought into Dublin. The spirit of the Fenians in Ireland was now quite broken; thus 1,000 men who held the market-place at Drogheda fled at the approach of a few policemen. In May a special commission began to sit to try the rebels, and many of them were convicted. None were, however, executed. On September 18 an attack was made on a police van at Manchester, and on December 13 followed the attempt to blow up Clerkenwell prison. In Ireland, in 1868, attacks on isolated martello towers became frequent, and the Habeas Corpus Act was again suspended till March 1, 1869. In 1870 a Fenian raid into Manitoba was driven back by the militia, and in 1871 a similar attempt was roughly put down by United States troops, General Grant having issued a proclamation against the Fenians. In January 1871 most of the Fenian convicts had been released, and were uproariously welcomed in the United States. But the organization of Irish sedition passed into different hands, and the Fenian leaders lost their influence. The French Communist general, Cluseret, who had been in the Fenian service, says, most probably with truth: "Their insurrection was foolishly planned, and still more foolishly executed."

W. O'C. Morris, "Ireland from 1798 to 1898," 1898; O'Leary, "Recollections of Fenianism."

Fennington Bridge, The Battle of (1549), was fought in Devonshire between the royal troops, under Lord Russell and Sir Peter Carew, and the Cornish rebels, who were completely defeated.

Frances Rose-Troup, "The Western Rebellion of 1549," 1913.

Fenwick, Sir John (1645 ?–97), was a zealous Tory member of the parliament of 1685, who became, after the Restoration, one of the most ardent Jacobite conspirators. In 1695 he joined Charnock, Porter, Barclay, and others in designs against the king, which ripened next year into the Assassination Plot (q.v.). His fellow-conspirator, Porter, informed the government of the whole intrigue, and Sir John attempted to escape to France, but was arrested near Romney Marsh. He was committed to the Tower. In order to gain time, he offered to disclose all he knew touching the Jacobite plots. His artful confession, while silent about the real Jacobite plotters, contained a great deal of evidence—mostly true, no doubt—against Marlborough, Godolphin, Russell, and Shrewsbury, who had from time to time intrigued with the court of St. Germains. Furious at the charges brought against their party, the Whigs determined to pursue the subject. Fenwick was examined by William, but refused to make any disclosures. He had heard that his wife, Lady Mary Fenwick, had succeeded in getting Goodman—the only other witness against him—out of the country, and Porter's evidence remained unsupported. But the Whigs, not to be balked of their prey, brought in a bill of attainder against him, which the Commons passed, by 189 to 156. The bill went through its first stage in the Lords without a division. After a violent struggle, the second reading was carried by 73 to 53, and the third by 68 votes to 61. On January 28, 1698, Fenwick was executed. Hallam's opinion on the act of attainder is that, "it did not, like some acts of attainder, inflict a punishment beyond the offence, but supplied the deficiency of legal evidence." Yet, allowing the substantial justice of the sentence, it is questionable whether it was not ill-advised to break from the rigid rules of law, especially for so second-rate a person as Fenwick.

Fergus, Lord of Galloway (*d.* 1161), was contemporary with David I of Scotland, whom he assisted with soldiers at the Battle of the Standard. In 1160 he joined the sons of Malcolm MacHeth against King Malcolm IV, but was forced to submit to the royal power. He retired to the monastery of Holyrood, and died 1161. He married Elizabeth, natural daughter of Henry I.

Fergus Mor (*d.* 501 ?), son of Erc, King of Irish Dalriada, is said to have crossed over at the end of the fifth century with his brothers, Loarn Mor and Angus, and founded in Argyllshire a Scottish colony, which afterwards developed into the kingdom of Dalriada (q.v.).

Ferguson, Robert (*d.* 1714), was a Scottish clergyman who obtained a living in England, but, being a Presbyterian, was expelled in 1662, and became a schoolmaster and Dissenting preacher. He was a man of

bad character, and constantly involved in plots. Being a furious Whig, he was expelled from England after the failure of the Rye House Plot (q.v.). He went to Holland, instigated and took part in Monmouth's rebellion, escaped after Sedgemoor, and joined William III's expedition. Disgusted, however, at his inadequate reward, he turned Jacobite, and shared in Montgomery's Plot and the Assassination Plot (q.v.). Notwithstanding his connexion with so many conspiracies, he escaped every danger and died a natural death.

Ferozeshah, The Battle of (December 21, 1845), was fought between the Sikhs under Lall Singh and the British under Sir Hugh Gough. The Sikhs were finally put to flight. This battle was the most severe ever fought in India.

J. D. Cunningham, "Sikhs," 1849 and 1919.

Ferrar, Robert, Bishop of St. David's (*d.* 1555), was deprived of his see by Mary, having previously been imprisoned by Northumberland (at the instance of some of his clergy who accused him of neglect of duty), and was condemned for heresy, and burnt at Carmarthen, March 30, 1555. He was a man who, with excellent intentions, was quite unable to cope with the difficulties of his position.

W. H. Frere, "Marian Reaction," 1897.

Ferrers, John Grey, 8th Baron (*d.* 1461). [Grey.]

Ferrers, George (1500 ?–79), a lawyer, dramatist, and poet of some celebrity, is remembered mainly for his connexion with a famous case of privilege of parliament. In 1542, while member for Plymouth, he was imprisoned for debt. Parliament took up his case, compelled the sheriff of London, with his officers and the creditor as well, to appear at the bar, and sent them all to prison. A remarkable trial followed, leading to Ferrers's release by virtue of his privilege. Henry VIII, in whose service Ferrers was, warmly took up his cause.

Ferrybridge, The Battle of (March 28, 1461), was fought just before the battle of Towton. The Yorkists who were at Pontefract attempted to secure the passage of the Aire at Ferrybridge; but a body of light cavalry under Lord Clifford was detached by the Lancastrians, attacked and defeated the Yorkists, and slew Lord Fitzwalter their leader. The Yorkists, however, succeeded in crossing the Aire at Castleford, three miles higher up the river, and in attempting to regain the main body of the Lancastrians at Towton, Clifford was defeated and slain.

R. B. Mowat, "Wars of the Roses," 1914.

Fethanleag, The Battle of (584), was fought between the West Saxons under Ceawlin and Cutha and the Britons. Cutha was slain, and Ceawlin, though he took many towns and countless booty, says the "Chronicle," returned in anger to his own country. The site of the battle is unknown, although both Faddiley (Cheshire) and Frethern (Gloucestershire) have been suggested. All that is clear is that a definite check was delivered to the West Saxons, and that the westward advance to which the battle of Deorham had so materially contributed was interrupted.

Feudalism (for etymology see Fief) is in its most general sense defined as an organization of society based on land tenure. It is applied specially to the system which arose in western Europe after the dissolution of the Carlovingian Empire, and also less fully to special and analogous systems which sprang up among the Germanic peoples not directly included in that empire—as England or Sweden—but where similar tendencies afterwards manifested themselves. We must distinguish feudalism in its legal, political, and even in its vaguer social aspects. Legal feudalism indicates a certain method of land tenure. Political feudalism followed when every regalian right became attached to ownership of land by a feudal tenure. The social ideal of a feudal society necessarily followed at a later stage. The main source of feudalism, both in England and on the continent, is to be found in the primitive German constitution. The settlement of the wandering nations had made that primitive personal polity a territorial one, and its essentially unprogressive character on the old lines necessitated a new system to meet the varying needs of a progressive society. Contact with dying Imperialism precipitated but did not create this process out of which feudalism sprang. In the Frankish Empire Charles the Great bound together the national German state of the Franks, the traditions of Roman law and empire, and his own gift of a powerful administrative system. Under his feeble descendants this system broke down. After the anarchy which this process occasioned, the organized anarchy of feudalism arose, from the beneficiary system, the practice of commendation, and the grants of immunity which were superadded to them. The king was in the habit of granting lands out of his own vast estates to followers on the special promise of fidelity, and lesser proprietors in full sovereignty surrendered their nominal *alod* to a great church or noble, to receive it back as a tenant protected by a powerful patron. These lands were the *beneficia*, the territorial source of feudalism, and the condition on which they were very commonly held was military service. Commendation was personal, and consisted in a man submitting himself to a lord, whose vassal and man [Homage; Vassalage] he became. "The union of the beneficiary tie with that of commendation," says Stubbs, "completed the idea of feudal obligation." The third element arose as follows. The national courts had become stereotyped or ineffective, and it became customary to unite to the grant of a beneficium a grant to its lord

of power to exercise full jurisdiction within it. Thus the fief or benefice was withdrawn from the national system, and when these grants of immunity from the courts of the *gau* became general, and when political functions followed judicial ones, we have the complete feudalism of eleventh-century France—when, though ties of feudal dependence united the meanest vassal to the Crown as supreme overlord, the national system had become obliterated, central power nominal, and all real power in the hands of a multitude of landowners, who had every regalian right in their own estate. This was the system which the barons of Normandy lived under, and which they would fain have brought to England with them.

In England, however, a similar but independent process had set in. The *Comitatus* of the old Germans, which had died out in Gaul, became in England the source of a new organization of society. The king's *thegns*, the *comites* in a later stage, received with grants of land grants of immunities from the jurisdiction of the popular courts, which resulted in the establishment of practical feudalism on these *soken* or franchises. The free man bowed his neck for bread or protection. Everything became territorialized. What was originally the exception rapidly tended to become the rule. The great earls, as on the continent, gradually threw off their neutral character. Harold suggests the parallel of Hugh Capet, and continental feudalism found a soil ready to receive it. William I and his sons brought with them feudal theory and feudal practice. To him, as to his barons, no legal theory of tenure was possible but the feudal one; and the generation after the Conquest saw feudalism in its legal aspect established universally in England. But William had seen how feudalism as a system of government meant mere anarchy in Normandy, and did his best to prevent its introduction into England. The barons naturally desired as much power here as at home; but save in the Border Palatinates [Counties Palatine; Borders], and then in Wales and Ireland, which the barons won as independent adventurers, the Norman kings refused them this. Rebellion after rebellion broke out and was crushed. At last Henry I's defeat of Robert of Belesme settled the question for his reign. Under Stephen the barons won the day, and then alone did feudal government prevail in England. Henry II, in 1174, put down the final revolt of the feudal party. His administrative system rendered his triumph permanent. Only under Henry III's minority were there some slight tendencies to a feudal revival. Edward I destroyed the political importance of land tenure. Henceforth the barons fought, not to abolish the central state in favour of feudal localism, but to get the machinery of the central state into their own hands. They fought, not to get rid of the crown, but to put the monarchy in commission. The chivalry of the fourteenth century, though the result of a feudal ideal, was powerless to bring back real feudalism. The baronial power perished with the Wars of the Roses. The legal theory remained, with its obligation of fealty and homage, its incidents of aids, wardships, marriage, its military service, and other effects.

James I unsuccessfully attempted to abolish feudal tenures. An act of 1660 actually effected this. The very indefinite sense in which feudalism is sometimes used as indicating the power of the landed aristocracy need not be dealt with. Yet the English land law remains full of vestiges of feudalism. Every copyholder still owes to the lord of the manor the feudal incidents. Lands of the intestate and kinless deceased still escheat to the next lord.

Stubbs's account of the development of English feudalism in his "Constitutional History" has been superseded in many respects by later writers. Among recent works on the subject there may be particularly mentioned: G. B. Adams, "The Origin of the English Constitution," 1912; J. H. Round, "Feudal England," 1909; P. Vinogradoff, "English Society in the Eleventh Century," 1908; F. W. Maitland, "Domesday Book and Beyond," 1907; from the legal standpoint, Pollock and Maitland, "History of English Law," 1898, and W. S. Holdsworth, "History of English Law," 1922. [T. F. T.]

Feversham, Louis Duras, Earl of (1640 ?–1709). [Duras.]

"Fidei Defensor." [Defender of the Faith.]

Fief, or **Fee** (Lat. *feudum*, *feodum*), is possibly derived from the old German word *fehu* in its sense of "wages, payment for service"—old French *fiu*—but it is hard to establish a connexion between the mediæval Latin *feodum* (introduced at the Conquest) and any word in the vernacular. Before the Conquest the word *feoh* was used for cattle in general and cattle in particular. It is very doubtful whether the second syllable has any connexion with *od*, also meaning property. The word first appeared in the ninth century, and acquired the meaning of land held of a lord by feudal tenure [Feudalism] or military service, "but very soon (after the Conquest) it was so widely used as to imply no more than heritability."

Pollock and Maitland, "History of English Law," vol. i, bk. ii.

Field of the Cloth of Gold. [Cloth of Gold.]

Fielden, John (1784–1849), originally a labourer, became master of a factory, and from 1832 until 1847 was M.P. for Oldham. He is chiefly remembered by his exertions in favour of the Factory Acts, especially the Ten Hours Bill of 1833.

Fiennes, James, Lord Saye and Sele (*d.* 1450), was treasurer of England from 1449 to 1450, and a strong supporter of the Duke of Suffolk. Hence he gained great unpopularity, and, when the insurgents under

Jack Cade reached London, he was seized and after a mock trial beheaded.

G. Krieln, "The English Rising of 1450," 1892.

Fiennes, Nathaniel (1608–69), second son of William, 1st Viscount Saye and Sele, was educated at Winchester and at New College, Oxford. He was elected member of the Long Parliament for Banbury, and became a leader amongst the "Root and Branch" party (q.v.). He was appointed in 1641 one of the committee to attend the king to Scotland. In 1642 he accepted a colonel's commission in Essex's army, and took part in the battle of Edgehill. In the following year he surrendered Bristol to Prince Rupert (July 1643), in circumstances which made him suspected of either treachery or cowardice. For this he was accused by Walker and Prynne, tried by court-martial, and sentenced to death. His former services, and his family interest, however, secured him a pardon, but he was obliged to abandon public affairs, and leave the kingdom for several years. He returned, regained the confidence of his party, and became, in January 1648, a member of the Committee of Safety, but was expelled from parliament by Pride's Purge (q.v.). In Cromwell's first parliament he represented the county, in the second the University, of Oxford. He became a member of the council of state (1654), commissioner of the great seal (1655), one of Cromwell's lords (1657), and was among the principal speakers in the discussions concerning the offer of the crown to the Protector (1658). He assisted in proclaiming Richard Cromwell, and adhered to his party till the re-establishment of the Long Parliament deprived him of his office. After the Restoration he retired into private life, and died in 1669. Fiennes was an eloquent speaker, and a man of decided opinions, but irresolute in action, and constitutionally timid.

Fiennes, Thomas, Lord Dacre of Hurstmonceaux (*d.* 1541) (Lord Dacre of the South), was a young nobleman who, in company with several friends, had engaged in a deer-stealing expedition to the park of an unpopular neighbour. During the affray which ensued one of the foresters was killed, and the whole party were brought up for trial, and a verdict of wilful murder was returned. Despite all the efforts of Dacre's friends, Henry VIII would not consent to spare the young man's life, saying he would deal out equal justice to all ranks. Lord Dacre was accordingly executed in 1541.

Fiennes, William, 2nd Lord Saye and Sele (*d.* 1471), son of James Fiennes (q.v.), fought on the Yorkist side at Northampton. He was subsequently made lord high admiral by Edward IV, fled with the king in 1470, and, returning in the next year, was slain at the battle of Barnet.

Fiennes, William, 1st Viscount Saye and Sele (1582–1662), educated at New College, Oxford, succeeded his father, Richard, as Lord Saye in 1613, and was created viscount in 1624. He was a strong Puritan, "for many years the oracle of those who were called Puritans in the worst sense, and steered all their counsels and designs" (Clarendon). He was one of the founders of the colonies of New Providence Island (1630) and Connecticut (1632), and thought of emigrating himself. He was also one of the foremost opponents of ship-money, but the government preferred to try Hampden's case rather than his. In 1639 he was committed to custody for refusing to take the military oath against the Scots required by the king. He was appointed in May 1641 master of the Court of Wards, when the king thought of winning the popular leaders by preferment, but remained firm, voted for the exclusion of the bishops, became a member of the Committee of Safety, and raised a regiment of foot for the Parliament. He continued to sit in the House of Lords until its abolition. In 1648 he acted as one of the parliamentary commissioners at the Treaty of Newport, and voted in favour of an accommodation with the king. He lived in retirement until 1660, when he took part in the intrigues to bring about the Restoration, and was rewarded by being made lord privy seal. His contemporaries charged him with duplicity, and nicknamed him "Old Subtlety."

Fifteenths and Tenths. Taxation of movables is said to have originated with the Saladin Tithe imposed by Henry II in 1188. In the thirteenth century taxes upon personal property became increasingly common, the amount levied being normally some definite fraction of each person's movables. The inhabitants of cities, boroughs, and the royal demesne were ordinarily taxed at a somewhat higher rate than the rest of the country. By the fourteenth century the grant of a tenth and fifteenth had become usual, the tenth being contributed by the cities, boroughs, and demesne lands, the fifteenth by the counties. At first a special, though not necessarily an exact, assessment was made for each grant. In 1332 an inquiry of such exceptional rigour was instituted that widespread discontent was aroused; and when, two years later, a new grant was made, the Crown was obliged to conciliate opinion by authorizing composition. Thereafter no new assessment was made, the returns for the taxation of 1334 being used as the basis for all subsequent levies. Later it became the practice to add to the grant of tenths and fifteenths a general subsidy on land and goods. In the course of time changes in the distribution of wealth necessitated a readjustment of the burden of taxation, and a drawback of first £4,000 and later £6,000 was allowed on each fifteenth and tenth in favour of waste and impoverished places. By Coke's day the value of a grant had diminished from £39,000 to roughly £29,000. The whole system of

taxation was altered during the Commonwealth, and fifteenths and tenths were levied for the last time in 1626.

Fifth Monarchy Men, The, were an extreme sect of the period of the Puritan revolution, formed chiefly of soldiers. They supported Cromwell in the belief that his government was the beginning of the "Fifth Monarchy," during which the millennial reign of Christ on earth would take place. The previous four monarchies were the Assyrian, Persian, Grecian, and Roman. But such fanatics could not but be in opposition to any established government, and Cromwell had some difficulties with them. In 1661 the revolt of Venner was supported by this sect.

L. F. Brown, "Political Activities of the Fifth Monarchy Men," 1913.

Fiji Islands, The (pop. 157,266, area 7,083 sq. m.), or Viti Islands, a volcanic group of 200 or more islands, the chief of which are Viti Levu and Vanua Levu, form a British colony. They were sighted by Tasman (1643), visited by Cook (1769–73) and Captain Bligh (1789), who encountered hostility from the natives. Escaped convicts from New South Wales helped to ferment native wars, and Wesleyan missionaries arrived from Tonga about 1835. In 1859 the chief Thakombau offered sovereignty to Great Britain to save himself from American claims, but in spite of Colonel Smythe's advice the Duke of Newcastle refused. A sudden influx of whites from Australia led to a premature effort at self-government, and again Great Britain refused, as did also the United States, to assume sovereignty. In 1874 Great Britain accepted the unconditional cession of the Fijian chiefs, after Sir Hercules Robinson, governor of New South Wales, had endorsed the wishes of Australia and the report of Commander Goodenough in favour of annexation. Thus a port of call was secured between Australia and Panama and regulation of Polynesian labour traffic made possible. It was created a Crown colony and is ruled by a governor assisted by an executive council of 5 official and 3 unofficial members and by a legislative council of 11 nominated officials and 3 elected members and 1 native member.

In 1900 New Zealand made overtures to absorb Fiji, but the Imperial government refused after receiving a protest from the Aborigines Society. Rotumah, the dependency, was discovered in 1793 and annexed on cession by her chiefs in 1881. It is administered by a European high commissioner under the governor.

L. Fison, "Tales of Old Fiji," 1904; B. Thomson, "The Fijians," 1908; Peace Handbook No. 144, "British Possessions in the Pacific Islands"; C. B. Fletcher, "The New Pacific," 1917; G. H. Scholefield, "The Pacific," 1917. [H. R.]

Filmer, Sir Robert (*d.* 1653), was a gentleman of Kent, who matriculated at Cambridge (1604), fought for the king during the Civil War, and wrote in defence of monarchy. His chief works were "The Freeholders' Grand Inquest" (1648, published 1679) and "Patriarcha" (published 1680). Filmer started by denying the doctrine that mankind is naturally endowed and born with freedom from all subjection, and at liberty to choose what form of government it pleased; and that the power which any one man has over others was at first bestowed according to the discretion of the multitude. He went on to derive regal authority from the authority of a father over his family, as it was exercised by the patriarchs. From the patriarchs, by hereditary descent, this authority was transmitted to different royal houses. The royal authority, therefore, resembled the natural authority of a father over his children. The kingdom and its head, like the family and its head, existed by divine ordinance. The king received from God "his royal charter of a universal father," and ruled, therefore, by divine right. The subject was, in consequence, bound to absolute obedience, and had no right to depose a king or alter the line of succession. Filmer's book was published in the midst of the discussions on the Exclusion Bill, and his theory supplied a powerful argument to those who denied the competence of parliament to exclude James from the throne. It was replied to by John Locke (q.v.).

Finch, Daniel, 2nd Earl of Nottingham (1647–1730), eldest son of Heneage, 1st earl, entered early into public life. In 1679 he was placed on the admiralty commission. Under James II he rigorously opposed the abrogation of the Test Act. In 1687 he entered into negotiations with Dykvelt, envoy of the Prince of Orange. He and Danby were representatives of the Tory party in those proceedings. He followed Sancroft's ideas on the settlement of the Revolution question, and advocated a regency to be exercised in James's name and during his life, but gradually abandoned the idea before the opposition of the Commons. He was appointed secretary of state under William and Mary, thereby acquiescing in the king *de facto*, and bringing a large body of Tory supporters to the ministry. He was soon involved in quarrels with his Whig colleague, Shrewsbury. In 1689 he carried his Toleration Bill, by which Nonconformist divines were allowed to preach after signing thirty-four out of the Thirty-nine Articles. He also moved a Comprehension Bill, but was compelled to drop it on account of the opposition it encountered. On the departure of William for Ireland, he was placed on the Council of Nine. The resignation of Shrewsbury had made him sole secretary of state. It was to his timely discovery of the intended invasion, and his vigorous measures to confirm the loyalty of the fleet, that the victory of La Hogue (q.v.) was in great part due. At the close of that year (1692) he bitterly inveighed against the subsequent mismanagement which had neutralized the victory. Nottingham and Russell became mortal enemies.

A vague vote of censure was passed on the former in the Commons by a majority of one, but he was warmly supported by the Lords. William, wishing to reserve for himself the services of Nottingham, induced Russell to accept a place in the household. But on the appointment of Russell as first lord of the admiralty, Nottingham had to resign. In 1694 he vigorously opposed the establishment of the Bank of England. On the accession of Anne, he became secretary of state. But his ideas were quite at variance with the schemes of Godolphin and Marlborough. In 1704 he declared that the ministry must be purged of the Whig element, and resigned. In opposition he raised the cry of the "Church in danger." In 1707 he proposed a motion to the effect that the English Church was threatened by the Union. He was struck off the privy council. As Harley neglected to give him office (1710), he joined the Whigs. They agreed to support his Occasional Conformity Bill if his Tory followers would oppose all ideas of peace. He therefore proposed and triumphantly carried a resolution "that no peace was honourable if Spain or the West Indies were allotted to any branch of the house of Bourbon." He was placed on the privy council by George I, but in 1716, disapproving of the condemnation of the leaders of the Jacobite rebellion, he was dismissed, and virtually quitted public life.

Burnet, "History of His Own Time," ed. O. Airy, 2 vols., 1897–1900; "Political History of England," vols. viii and ix.

Finch, Heneage, 1st Earl of Nottingham (1621–82), was called to the bar in 1645, but his Royalist sentiments prevented his becoming prominent till the Restoration, when he was appointed solicitor-general. He conducted the prosecution of the regicides with great fairness and judgment. In 1670 he became attorney-general, and in 1673 lord keeper, which title he exchanged for that of lord chancellor in 1675. He held the great seal till his death in 1682, having in 1681 been created Earl of Nottingham. He figures in Dryden's "Absalom and Achitophel" under the name of Amri. "From his persuasive powers he acquired the titles of 'the silver-tongued lawyer' and 'the English Cicero,' and from his graceful action that of 'the English Roscius.'"

Finch, John, Lord (1584–1660), was the son of Sir Henry Finch, an eminent lawyer. He was a member of Charles I's first two parliaments, and was chosen Speaker of the third, which met in 1628. He speedily showed himself a decided partisan of the king, and on February 25, 1629, he refused to read a remonstrance against tunnage and poundage after the king's message for the adjournment of parliament had been delivered. A tumult occurred, during which the Speaker was held down in his chair, and Holles read the protestation to the House. In 1634 Finch was made chief justice of the Common Pleas, in which capacity he delivered judgment against Hampden in the case of ship-money. In 1640 he was made lord keeper, but, fearing the vengeance of the Long Parliament, he fled from England, at the end of the same year, to Holland, where he remained till 1660, when he returned to England, and took part in the trials of the regicides. The character of "an unprincipled lawyer and a time-serving minister," which Foss gives him, seems to be only too well deserved, and he died universally despised.

Fines, The Statute of, an act of the fourth year of Henry VII, was based on a similar one of Richard III and on the "De Finibus" statute of Edward I. It enacted that a fine, levied with proclamations in a public court of justice, should, after five years, be in ordinary circumstances a bar to all claims upon lands. Its main object was to give security of tenure to existing tenants by fixing a short term of prescription; a measure very necessary just after the Wars of the Roses. It did not, as some have thought, give liberty of alienation with the view of luring on a spendthrift nobility to ruin.

A. F. Pollard, "Henry VII," 3 vols., 1914.

Finglen, The Battle of (719), near Lochavich in Argyllshire, was fought between Selvach, King of Dalriada, and his brother, Aincellach, whom he had driven out in 698. Aincellach made a desperate effort to recover his kingdom, but was slain.

Finlay Question, The. George Finlay (1799-1875), the Greek historian, had settled in Athens when Greece became independent. Some of his land had been seized for the purpose of rounding off the new palace gardens of King Otto, and Finlay had declined to take the terms offered him, which had been accepted by all the other landowners in a similar position. He appealed to the British government, and his case was associated with the Pacifico and the Fantôme cases into one grand grievance, for which Palmerston demanded compensation (1850). [Pacifico.]

"Annual Register," 1850; Ashley and Dalling, "Palmerston," 1870–4.

Firbolgs. One of the legendary or fabulous tribes of the earliest period of Irish history. They may, it has been thought, correspond to the pre-Aryan inhabitants of Ireland.

Fire of London, The (September 2–7, 1666), broke out accidentally in a house near London Bridge, but a strong east wind caused it to spread with great rapidity, and for five days London was given up to the flames. Two-thirds of London was destroyed—eighty-nine churches, including St. Paul's Cathedral, and more than 13,000 dwelling-houses. But the fire, though destroying so much, was most beneficial in thoroughly eradicating the plague.

The fever dens in which it continually lurked were burnt, and the new houses which were erected were far more healthy and better arranged. The fire was attributed to the hated papists; and on the Monument, which was erected to commemorate it, the Romanists were directly charged with being the authors of the terrible conflagration.

W. G. Bell, "The Great Fire of London," 1920; Defoe's "Works," vol. v.

"First of June," THE BATTLE OF THE (1794), was a naval engagement fought off Ushant during the wars of the French Revolution. The French had collected a fleet of 26 ships at Brest, which put out on May 20 to meet a convoy of corn ships expected from America. On the 28th Lord Howe with the Channel fleet (also 26 ships), brought them to a partial engagement; but it was not till June 1 that he was able to bring about a decisive encounter. Having the wind of the enemy, he resolved to break through the French fleet, and fight it to leeward. The enemy lay in close line of battle, stretching from east to west, and Howe's object was not to come down on it directly, but to sail abreast of it until each ship got an opportunity of breaking through the line. It was impossible, however, to carry out the manœuvre in detail, and five only of the ships, besides the flag-ship, succeeded in passing through, while the rest engaged the enemy on the windward side. But in whatever position the British ships closed with the enemy, their mode of fighting was too fierce to be long resisted, and after a few hours the French ships which were able began to move off; nor was the pursuit vigorously carried out. As it was, however, six ships had been lost to the enemy, and 8,000 men, while the English admiral returned his losses at 1,150 in killed and wounded; but the corn ships escaped to Brest. The moral effects of the victory were greater than the material. [HOWE, RICHARD; HOOD, ALEXANDER.]

W. L. Clowes, "Royal Navy," vol. iv, 1899.

Fisher, JOHN, Bishop of Rochester (1459–1535), was born at Beverley. After a distinguished Cambridge career, in which he took a prominent part in bringing the studies of that university abreast of the new learning, both in Greek and theology, he was chosen in 1504 Bishop of Rochester, and was also from 1505 to 1508 master of Queen's College, Cambridge. A man of honesty, piety, and determination, but of strict conservative principles, he became one of the leaders of the party opposed to Henry VIII's divorce, listened to the Nun of Kent, opposed the royal supremacy, and was imprisoned in 1534, and attainted. His untimely appointment as cardinal by Paul III led to his execution, after trial by a special commission, on June 22, 1535.

Biography by A. M. Stewart, 1880.

Fishguard (ABERGWAUN) is a small town in Pembrokeshire, on a land-locked haven in the north of that county. Near here, at Llanwnda, 1,400 French soldiers landed on February 22, 1797; but they were the scum of every jail in France, and showed little power of resistance. Frightened, as the story goes, by the red coats and tall hats of the old Welsh women, they surrendered on February 24, to the ill-armed local militia under Lord Cawdor.

D. Rowlands, "The Fishguard Invasion," 1893.

Fitton, ALEXANDER (*d.* 1699), a barrister of no reputation or character, was made lord chancellor of Ireland by James II in 1687. He had been detected in forgery, and his only recommendation was that he had recently become a Roman Catholic. After Tyrconnel's death he became one of the lords justices appointed to govern Ireland.

R. Bagwell, "Ireland Under the Stuarts," 1909–16.

Fitz-Alan, EDMUND, 12TH EARL OF ARUNDEL (*d.* 1326), was one of the Ordainers appointed in 1310. He joined the king in 1321, and was one of the few nobles who remained faithful to Edward II after the landing of Isabella and Mortimer. He was captured in Shropshire, and hanged at Hereford.

Fitz-Alan, HENRY, 24TH EARL OF ARUNDEL (*d.* 1580), was in 1547 appointed one of the twelve councillors who, under the will of Henry VIII, were to assist the executors in carrying on the government during the minority of Edward VI. He was one of the chief promoters of the attack on Somerset, which ended in his downfall; and having given an unwilling assent to the alteration of the succession of Edward VI in favour of Lady Jane Grey, he was regarded with suspicion by Northumberland, who endeavoured to prevent his leaving London. However, he managed to escape to Baynard's Castle, and at once, with the rest of the council, declared for Mary; shortly afterwards he arrested the Duke of Northumberland at Cambridge, and conveyed him to London. After the accession of Queen Elizabeth, Arundel became one of her councillors, "feared by all men, trusted by none," and was even named as a probable suitor for her hand, a fact which led to a bitter quarrel with Leicester in 1561. In 1568, as the leader of the old nobility and the Catholic party, he showed himself violently opposed to Cecil and the Reformers, and was present at the Westminster Inquiry as a partisan of Mary, Queen of Scots; in the following year he was placed under arrest for complicity in the northern rebellion, and in 1571 was privy to the Ridolfi conspiracy.

J. A. Froude, "History of England," 3rd edn., 1870.

Fitz-Alan, RICHARD, 15TH EARL OF ARUNDEL (*d.* 1397), was the son of Richard, Earl of Arundel, and Eleanor, daughter of Henry, Earl of Lancaster. He succeeded his father in 1376, and served in the French and Scottish wars; but he was chiefly remarkable for his valour and conduct at sea. He was for several years admiral and captain of the east,

south, and west, gained several naval victories, and captured Brest. He joined Gloucester against de la Pole and de Vere, and was one of the lords appellant. In 1397 he was involved in Gloucester's fall, and was seized, tried, and beheaded.

Fitz-Alan, Thomas, 22nd Earl of Arundel (*d.* 1524), was one of the chief nobles attached to Henry VII's court. On the occasion of the shipwreck near Weymouth, in January 1506, of the Archduke of Austria, Philip, and his wife, the Earl of Arundel was the royal messenger sent to congratulate Philip upon his escape, and to welcome him to England. Arundel had also done the king good service as a soldier in Flanders, during the wars in aid of Maximilian.

Fitz-Aldhelm (or Audelin), William de, was sent by Henry II, in 1171, to treat with Roderick O'Connor. He was again in Ireland in 1173, as Henry's envoy, with the bulls of Adrian IV and Alexander III. In 1176 he became Strongbow's successor as governor of Ireland. He was strongly opposed to the Geraldines, and defrauded Maurice Fitzgerald's sons of part of their inheritance in 1177. In the same year he was recalled, not having signalized himself in any other way.

G. Orpen, "Ireland Under the Normans," 1911, etc.

Fitz-Athulf, Constantine (*d.* 1222), was the leader of a riot in London in 1222, which, though it originated merely as a brawl between the Londoners and the men of the abbot of Westminster, became most serious in its results, and is supposed to have been secretly fomented by Louis of France. It was, however, summarily put down by Hubert de Burgh; Fitz-Athulf was hanged and his followers fined or mutilated.

Fitzgerald, Family of. Their ancestor was William Fitz-Other, castellan of Windsor, whose son Gerald married the Welsh princess Nesta, by whom he became the father of William and Maurice Fitzgerald. Both his sons participated in the Norman conquest of Ireland. William became the ancestor of the Carews; Maurice was the founder of the Geraldine family. He secured from Strongbow large grants of Irish land, including the lordships of Naas and Wicklow. The grant of Wicklow was not continued to his heirs, but his eldest son William became Baron of Naas. His second son, Gerald, secured the barony of Offaley in right of his wife, Eva de Bermingham; and his descendant, the 5th Lord Offaley, was created Earl of Kildare in 1316. In the meantime Maurice's third son, Thomas, had obtained the lordship of Shanid in Limerick, c. 1179, to which his son John added Decies and Desmond. Their descendant, Maurice Fitz-Thomas, was created Earl of Desmond in 1329. From this time the Fitzgeralds became the virtual rulers of Ireland, or at least of the English part of it. The destruction of the houses of de Burgh and de Lacy left the Butlers as their sole rivals. From the defeat of Edward Bruce to the reign of James I, the history of Ireland largely consists in the feuds of these two great families. The sixteenth century saw, however, the overthrow of the Geraldine connexion. The Kildare branch of the family is still represented in our own day by the ducal house of Leinster, to whom the honours passed through Henry, a brother of Gerald, the 11th earl, who died in the Tower in 1585.

Fitzgerald, Lord Edward (1763–98), was a younger son of the Duke of Leinster, and married the reputed daughter of Philippe Egalité. In 1784 he was a member of the Irish parliament, and opposed the address. In 1793 he was compelled to apologize for words reflecting on the lord-lieutenant. Just before, he had gone to Paris as envoy of the United Irishmen. In 1796 he took their oath, and again went over to the continent, met Hoche in Switzerland, and settled on a French invasion. On his return to Ireland he kept up a constant correspondence with France through his wife at Hamburg. In October 1797 a "person," as he is called, gave information of this to Pitt, and allowed himself to be employed as a spy, but he refused to come forward as a witness, and the government could not, therefore, arrest Lord Edward. On March 12, 1798, he escaped, while his fellow-conspirators were seized. A reward of £1,000 was offered for his apprehension, but he continued undiscovered in his hiding-place in Dublin. Finally, however, he was betrayed by a man whose name never transpired, and on May 19 between five and six o'clock he was seized on his bed. He stabbed Ryan and Swan, two of the officers, but was disabled by a pistol-shot and was captured. The seal of the United Irishmen and a plan for the surprise of Dublin were found on him. Before he could be tried, he died of his wounds (June 4, 1798).

Biographies by Thomas Moore, 1831, and Ida A. Taylor, 1903.

Fitzgerald, Gerald, 8th Earl of Kildare (*d.* 1513), was thirty-three years chief governor of Ireland. In 1487, as lord deputy, he actively assisted at the coronation of Lambert Simnel as Edward VI at Christ Church, Dublin. His brother, the chancellor of Ireland, fell at Stoke. However, when the earl made his submission to Edgecumbe, the king's controller, and had an interview with Henry VII at Windsor, he again became lord deputy. After Warbeck's landing in Ireland, however, his office was taken from him, and Sir Edward Poynings had him attainted. He was then sent over to England and confined in the Tower. Many stories are told of his conduct there, and his frank avowal that he burnt the cathedral at Cashel because he thought the archbishop was in it, is said to have convinced Henry that he was no conspirator. The Bishop of Meath,

his chief accuser, concluded his charges by saying, "You see what a man he is—all Ireland cannot rule him." "Then," said the king, "it is meet that he should rule all Ireland." Accordingly he was again made lord deputy, and remained so till his death. From this time, however, he was a loyal subject, and waged incessant war against the natives, who were again encroaching on the Pale, till he fell in battle against the O'Moores (1513).

R. Bagwell, "Ireland Under the Tudors," 1885–90.

Fitzgerald, Gerald, 9th Earl of Kildare (1487–1534), became lord deputy after his father's death in 1513, and remained so till 1519, when, in spite of his successful administration, he was superseded by the Earl of Surrey. The hereditary feud with the Butlers meanwhile assumed such dimensions that, though he was again made lord deputy in 1524, he was summoned to England and kept a prisoner in the Tower from 1526 to 1530. In 1532, though the struggle with the Butlers was still going on, he was again lord deputy, but in 1534 he was once more summoned to England, though he was allowed to appoint a deputy during his absence. Gerald appointed his son, Lord Thomas (q.v.), and after supplying his own castles with artillery and ammunition from the royal magazines, he left for England. He was at once thrown into the Tower, where it is reported he was beheaded.

R. Bagwell, "Ireland Under the Tudors," 1885–90.

Fitzgerald, Gerald, 11th Earl of Kildare (1525–85), was brother of Thomas, the 10th, and second son of Gerald, the 9th earl. On his father's death he was only twelve years old; but in spite of all the efforts of the government to capture him he was conveyed from Ireland to the continent. Cardinal Pole, a relation of his mother, Lady Grey, sent for him into Italy, in which country he was educated. His estates were restored under Edward VI, and under Mary he was reinstated in all his honours. The attainder, however, was not really reversed till the reign of Elizabeth. He was active in suppressing Irish insurrections, and died in 1585 in the Tower, where he had been sent on suspicion of being connected with the Geraldine rebellion in the south. All his sons died early, without issue, and the family honours descended through a brother to the present house of Leinster.

R. Bagwell, "Ireland Under the Tudors," 1885–90.

Fitzgerald, Gerald, 15th Earl of Desmond (*d.* 1583), was the head of the great house of the southern Fitzgeralds, who were all-powerful in Munster. Sir Henry Sidney had recommended that this province should be made into an English presidency and English colonists introduced. But the queen, who had set herself against this plan, demanded that Desmond's influence should be attacked in another way. He was consequently arrested for treason. In 1568 he submitted to Elizabeth, and surrendered his property into her hands. But in 1574 he broke out in rebellion again, and once more in 1579. Next year he was trapped with the Spaniards by Lord Grey at Smerwick, but escaped the horrible fate of the garrison. Finally, after he had wandered about for more than two years, his hiding-place was betrayed to the English, who surrounded his cabin and murdered him in his bed.

Fitzgerald, James, 1st Duke (second creation) of Leinster (1722–73), 20th Earl of Kildare, was in 1747 made Marquis of Leinster in the English peerage, in 1761 Marquis of Kildare, and in 1766 Duke of Leinster in the Irish peerage. Individually the most powerful and popular nobleman in Ireland, he refused to act with any other party. Hence it was that only once was he lord justice. In 1769 he joined the Patriots, and raised and commanded the first regiment of volunteers. When the trade restrictions were taken away he refused to embarrass the government, but again took the lead against them after the Mutiny Bill had been passed. He was one of the deputation to the Prince of Wales with the Regency Bill. He signed the "Round Robin" (q.v.), but refused to recede from that engagement; in consequence he lost the mastership of the rolls. He was father of Lord Edward Fitzgerald.

Fitzgerald, James Fitzmaurice (*d.* 1579), was the brother of the 16th Earl of Desmond, and far superior to him in address and military skill. When the head of the family was made a prisoner by Sidney, he roused the Geraldines, and, uniting with other chiefs, he took Kilmallock (1570). He went over to Spain to get help, but on his return, had to submit to Sir John Perrot in 1571. He then again went abroad, and in vain tried to induce France and Spain to come to the aid of the Irish Catholics. Pope Gregory XIII, however, entrusted him with a force of a few hundred men, and he set sail with them in 1579, and landed at Dingle, co. Kerry. Not finding the support he expected, he went off into Tipperary, where he was soon afterwards slain in battle.

Fitzgerald, Sir John, of Desmond (*d.* 1581), was the brother of Gerald, 15th Earl of Desmond. In the hope of compromising his brother with the English he murdered two English officers at Tralee (1579). The whole clan then sprang to arms. Sir John was taken prisoner at the fall of Kilmallock, in 1580, but as he spoke English fluently, he managed to escape. In December 1581 he fell in with Sir John Zouch on the Avonmore River, and was slain. His head was later sent to Dublin.

Fitzgerald, Maurice, one of the Norman conquerors of Ireland, was a son of Nesta (daughter of Rhys the Great, King of South Wales, and former mistress of Henry I) and Gerald of Windsor, castellan of Pembroke. He landed at Wexford in 1169 in company with Fitz-Stephen, to render assistance to Dermot

of Leinster against the High King of Ireland. He is mentioned as a leader of the expedition against Dublin in 1170, and he was besieged there by O'Connor in the next year. He participated in the bold sortie which dispersed the besieging army and saved the beleaguered city. He was with John de Lacy when O'Rourke was killed (1172), and got Wicklow and Naas as a fief. He died in 1176. Giraldus says of him that he died leaving no man behind him stronger in constancy and faith. His sons were deprived of Wicklow, but retained Naas. He is the ancestor of the houses of Kildare and Desmond, and of the Fitzgerald family generally.

G. Orpen, "Ireland Under the Normans," 1911, etc.

Fitzgerald, Lord Thomas (1513–37), son of Gerald, 9th Earl of Kildare, and vice-deputy for him. On his father's arrest by Henry VIII, Lord Thomas excited in 1534 a somewhat formidable revolt in Ireland, which for a time was very successful. But the storming of Maynooth, the great stronghold of the Fitzgeralds, by Skeffington, led to the ruin of the rebel cause. After a long period of wandering, Thomas surrendered to the English, and was hanged with his five uncles at Tyburn on February 3, 1537.

Fitzgerald, Sir Thomas Judkin- (*d.* 1810), was high sheriff of Tipperary during the rebellion of 1798. He committed and encouraged the most frightful barbarities. One man named Wright was flogged nearly to death for having a note in French in his pocket, and proceeded after the Revolution to take legal action, which secured him £500 damages. But the government paid the money, and in 1801 made Fitzgerald a baronet. His severities prevented an outbreak in Tipperary.

P. F. Kavanagh, "Rebellion of 1798," 1913.

Fitzgerald, William Vezey, Baron Fitzgerald and Vezey (1783–1843), an Irish Tory politician of some mark, represented Clare in the House of Commons from 1818 till turned out by O'Connell in 1828 on seeking re-election after appointment to office. From 1828 to 1830 he was paymaster and president of the board of trade; and from 1841 to 1843, president of the board of control.

Fitzgibbon, John (1749–1802), was created Baron Fitzgibbon in 1789, Viscount in 1793, Earl of Clare in 1795. He distinguished himself greatly at Trinity College, and was even then the rival of Grattan. He soon made a name at the bar. In the year 1787 he first signalized himself as Tory member for Dublin, by speaking against the vote of thanks to the volunteers, then at the height of their popularity. His second great speech was directed against Flood's Reform Bill, which was lost. In 1784 he became attorney-general, and as such had the courage to attack the sheriff of Dublin, as he was assembling the freeholders to elect representatives to a new illegal congress. In 1785 he fought a duel with Curran. On January 31, 1787, he brought in a Conspiracy Bill, and he was one of the few Irishmen who opposed the Regency Bill in 1788. In 1789 he became a peer and lord chancellor. During Lord Camden's administration he was virtually governor of Ireland, and was the mainstay of the government during the rebellion of 1798. The insurgents hated him more than any other man. Lord Cornwallis, though he came out to Ireland prejudiced against him, declared later that he was "by far the most moderate and right-headed man in the country." He defended the Union in a great speech on February 10, 1800, in the Irish parliament. In the following year he made a bitter attack on the absentee Whig lords in the English parliament. In 1802 he died, and his burial was nearly interrupted by a furious mob.

J. A. Froude, "The English in Ireland," 3 vols., 1872–4.

Fitzharris, Edward (1648 ?–81), was an Irish adventurer, who in 1681 concocted a libel upon the king and the Duke of York, in which he advocated the deposition of the one and the exclusion of the other. This manuscript he probably intended to place in the study of one of the prominent Whig statesmen, and then, by discovering it himself, earn the wages of an informer. He was, however, betrayed by an accomplice, and sent to the Tower, where he invented a popish plot for the murder of the king, and the boiling down of the leading Whigs into a jelly, to be used for anointing future popish kings. Fitzharris was impeached by the Commons, but the Lords declared that they had no power of trying a commoner, as that would be a violation of Magna Carta, while the Commons asserted their right of impeachment. On the dissolution of parliament he was tried for high treason before the King's Bench, and executed (July 1, 1681).

Fitzherbert, Maria Anne (1756–1837), was a Roman Catholic lady, with whom George, Prince of Wales, went through the ceremony of marriage in 1787. If the Royal Marriage Act had not invalidated this marriage as contracted without the royal consent, the Act of Settlement would have deprived George of his rights of succession. To get his debts paid by parliament, George (there is reason to believe) persuaded Fox publicly to deny his marriage with Mrs. Fitzherbert, though he denied that he had instructed Fox to do so. Mrs. Fitzherbert parted from George in or about 1803.

W. H. Wilkins, "Mrs. Fitzherbert and George IV," 1905 and 1908.

Fitz-James, James, Duke of Berwick (1670–1734), was the natural son of James II, by Arabella Churchill, the sister of the Duke of Marlborough. At an early age he was sent to learn the art of war under Charles of Lorraine, and was present at the siege of Buda in 1685. In 1687 he was created Duke of Berwick. After the Revolution of 1688, Berwick fought for his

father in Ireland, and was present at the battle of the Boyne. He accompanied James to France, and served under Marshal Luxemburg in Flanders. He was taken prisoner at Neerwinden, but exchanged. In 1696 Berwick took a very prominent part in the unsuccessful plot for a Jacobite insurrection, which was to have been aided by a French force; but it is probable that he knew little of the darker schemes of some of the plotters, who aimed at removing William III by assassination. [Assassination Plot.] In 1704 Berwick, whose military talents were now highly esteemed, was appointed to the command of the French army in Spain. In 1705 he suppressed the Camisard insurrection in Languedoc. In 1706 he was again sent to Spain, and he did much to restore the French cause, which previously appeared almost desperate. In 1707 he completely routed the British and Imperialists at the great battle of Almanza, in which his opponent was a Frenchman, Ruvigny, Marquis of Galway. In 1709, and the following years, he was employed in Dauphiné, and conducted a skilful defensive campaign. In 1713 he returned to Spain and captured Barcelona. In 1716 he was appointed commandant of Guienne; and in 1718 he once more led a French army into Spain, this time in opposition to Philip V, whom he had done so much to place on the throne. At the conclusion of the interval of peace, which terminated in 1733, Berwick was called to superintend the operations on the Rhine. He was killed by a cannon-ball at the siege of Philipsburg. Berwick was created a peer of France and a grandee of Spain. One of his sons was created Duke of Liria, in Spain, and the other Duke of Fitz-James, in the peerage of France. Berwick's military talents were of a very high order, and perhaps not altogether unworthy of comparison with those of his celebrated uncle. In some other respects his characteristics were not unlike those of Marlborough. He had the same coldness, and could be disturbed neither by excitement nor by danger. His integrity, piety, and high sense of duty were unquestioned, and his character has been very highly praised by Montesquieu. Bolingbroke called him the best great man that ever lived.

Berwick's "Mémoires," written by himself down to 1716, and continued to 1734 by the Abbé Hook, were published in 1778, with an "Eloge Historique" by Montesquieu; also biography by C. T. Wilson, 1883. [S. L.]

Fitz-Jocelin, Reginald, Archbishop-elect of Canterbury (*d.* 1191), was the son of Jocelin, Bishop of Salisbury, and was elected Bishop of Bath and Wells in 1173. On the death of Archbishop Baldwin, the monks of Canterbury, in opposition to King Richard and Earl John, each of whom had his own nominee, chose Reginald to fill the vacant see. Almost immediately after his election he was seized with illness, and expired in less than a month.

Fitzmaurice, Henry Charles Keith Petty, 5th Marquis of Lansdowne (1845–1927), eldest son of Henry, 4th marquis, was governor-general of Canada from 1833 to 1888, and viceroy of India from 1888 to 1893. From 1895 to 1900 he was secretary for war, and secretary for foreign affairs from 1900 to 1906. In 1911 he led the House of Lords in resisting the Parliament Bill until the threat to create peers, and opposed the Home Rule Bill. He retired from office on the fall of the Asquith Coalition in 1916.

Fitz-Nigel, Richard, or Fitz-Neal (1133–98), was the son of Nigel, Bishop of Ely, and great-nephew (or grandson) of Bishop Roger of Salisbury. He was treasurer of England as early as 1160, and this office he seems to have held till his death, having also been made Bishop of London in 1189. He was probably the author of the "Gesta Henrici," one of the best sources for the reign of Henry II; but his more famous work is the "Dialogus de Scaccario" (q.v.) (written between 1177 and 1179), which his position and connexion with Nigel and Roger made extremely important and trustworthy. The treatise describes in detail the working of the exchequer, which was the centre of the Norman system of administration.

R. L. Poole, "The Exchequer in the Twelfth Century"; Hughes, Crump, and Johnson, "Dialogus de Scaccario," 1902.

Fitz-Osbern, William (*d.* 1071), was a Norman baron, somewhat distantly connected with the Conqueror. He was largely instrumental in obtaining the sanction of the Norman nobles at the council of Lillebonne to the invasion of England, and commanded one of the wings at the battle of Hastings. He received the palatine earldom of Hereford as his reward. During the king's absence in Normandy he acted as regent in conjunction with Odo of Bayeux and, in 1069, assisted in suppressing the insurrections in the north and west of England. In 1071 he went to Flanders to support the cause of the widowed Richildis. There he was slain at the battle of Cassel.

"Political History of England," vol. ii; H. W. C. Davis, "England Under the Normans and Angevins."

Fitz-Osbert, William (*d.* 1196), known also as William Longbeard, the first demagogue in English history, served in the Third Crusade, and is described as a man of great eloquence. He opposed the system of assessment adopted in the levy of the aid to ransom Richard I in 1194 and is said to have secured a following of more than 50,000 men. He held meetings, denounced the oppression of the governing bourgeoisie, and proclaimed himself the saviour of the poor. The justiciar, Hubert Walter, collected troops, and speedily awed the city into submission. Fitz-Osbert took sanctuary in St. Mary-le-Bow, where he was attacked by fire, and eventually captured. He was at once tried, and put to death as a traitor. Of his character and aims it is difficult to judge, as contemporary writers express such very opposite views. William of Newburgh says: "The

contriver and fomenter of so much evil perished at the command of justice, and the madness of this wicked conspiracy expired with its author; and those persons, indeed, who were of more healthful and cautious dispositions rejoiced when they beheld or heard of his punishment, washing their hands in the blood of the sinner." On the other hand, Matthew Paris says: "So perished William Longbeard, for endeavouring to uphold the cause of right and the poor. If it be the cause which makes the martyr, no man may be more justly described as a martyr than he."

Fitz-Peter, Geoffrey (*d.* 1213), was the younger brother of Simon Fitz-Peter, one of Henry II's justices. He himself acted as an itinerant judge and as sheriff, and Richard I placed him on the council which was to act, with the justiciar, during the king's absence on the Crusade. In 1198 he was appointed justiciar, which office he contrived to hold till his death. His administration was characterized by great sternness and rigid impartiality, and he did what he could to restrain the excesses of John, who, on hearing of his death, exclaimed, with an oath, "Now, for the first time, am I King of England." Fitz-Peter secured the earldom of Essex on the death of William de Mandeville, in right of his wife Beatrice.

Fitzroy, Augustus Henry, 3rd Duke of Grafton (1735–1811), son of Charles, 2nd duke, after being educated at Westminster and Peterhouse, Cambridge, succeeded his father at the age of 22. He attached himself to the Whigs, and was one of the three peers who, for their independence in censuring Bute's peace with France in 1763, were dismissed from their lord-lieutenancies (Grafton had been lord-lieutenant of Suffolk). When Rockingham came into office in 1765, the duke was appointed one of the secretaries of state, but resigned in the following May, having become a disciple of Pitt. When the ministry resigned a few months later, the duke was appointed first lord of the treasury, while Pitt nominally received for himself the privy seal only, but was in fact prime minister. The duke did, however, become really premier, when Chatham fell ill and retired from active business; and so he continued until January 1770, when he retired and made way for Lord North, after being outvoted in his own cabinet. In June 1771 he "was induced to accept the privy seal, but, with a kind of proud humility, refused a seat in the cabinet of Lord North"; and in October 1775, as he could not convince his colleagues of the need of conciliating America, he resigned. He then joined his old leader, Lord Chatham, in his protests against the policy of the government in America, and was in opposition during the remainder of Lord North's tenure of office. He was appointed privy seal when Lord Rockingham took office in 1782. On the succession of Shelburne to the premiership, he did not resign, but distrusted the new premier. Soon after this he retired from politics to the quiet enjoyment of field sports, which had always occupied most of his thoughts. Eventually he became a Unitarian and wrote in favour of revising the Liturgy. He is best known to posterity from the striking though exaggerated picture drawn of him by the powerful pen of "Junius," whose chief victim he was. A man of promise and ability, endowed with fortune and high position, upright and disinterested in his public conduct, the Duke of Grafton was yet a failure. He was lacking in application, and was both vacillating and obstinate. The conspicuous manner, too, in which he paraded his personal immorality gave offence even to his lax age.

Grafton's "Autobiography and Correspondence," ed. Sir W. Anson, 1898.

Fitzroy, Sir Charles Augustus (1796–1858), second son of Augustus Henry, 3rd Duke of Grafton, was governor of New South Wales (1846–8). His tenure of office was chiefly remarkable for disputes between the home and the colonial governments as to the proposed change of constitution in New South Wales. He was governor-general of Australia from 1850 to 1858.

Fitzroy, Henry 1st, Duke of Richmond (1519–36), was a natural son of Henry VIII by Elizabeth Blount, afterwards wife of Sir Gilbert Tailbois. Before he was seven years of age he was made a knight of the Garter, and created successively Earl of Nottingham and Duke of Richmond and Somerset (1525). At the same time he was appointed warden of the Marches towards Scotland, and placed in possession of many great estates. He was also subsequently raised to the dignity of lord-lieutenant of Ireland (1529), the actual duties of his position being performed for him by his deputy, Sir William Skeffington. He was married to Mary, daughter of Thomas Howard, 3rd Duke of Norfolk, but died before the consummation of the marriage. Had he lived he would almost certainly have been nominated in Henry's will to follow Edward VI in the succession to the crown.

A. F. Pollard, "Henry VIII," 1902, etc.

Fitzroy, Henry, 1st Duke of Grafton (1663–90), was the second son of Charles II by Barbara Villiers, Countess of Castlemaine (q.v.). He married Isabella, daughter of Henry Bennet, Earl of Arlington, and was created Duke of Grafton in 1675. He became vice-admiral of England on the death of Prince Rupert, and saw military service at the siege of Luxemburg (1684) and at Sedgemoor (1685). In 1688 he deserted James II with Churchill, took the oath to William III, and helped the Dutch in the battle of Beachy Head (q.v.). He was killed in Ireland in 1690, during the siege of Cork.

Biography by Sir A. W. Fitzroy, 1921.

Fitz-Stephen, Robert, a Norman conqueror in South Wales and Ireland, was a son

of the notorious Nesta (the former mistress of Henry I), by Stephen, constable of Cardigan. When Dermot came to Wales to collect succours, Fitz-Stephen was the captive of the Welsh prince Rhys ap Griffith, but on his release, in 1169, he led thirty knights, sixty men-at-arms, and three hundred archers to Ireland. With this force he took Wexford; but, in 1170, he was induced by treachery to surrender at Carrick. When Henry II landed, in 1171, Fitz-Stephen was delivered up to him at Waterford as a traitor by the men of Wexford. He was, however, shortly released, although he received no grant of lands in Ireland until 1177. He followed Henry abroad, in 1174; was sent over to Ireland in 1176 with Fitz-Audelin, again recalled, but finally, in 1177, invested with a moiety of the kingdom of Cork and the command in southern Munster. In 1182 he was besieged in Cork, but rescued by Raymond le Gros. He died without heirs and was succeeded by his nephew, Raymond le Gros, from whom the lands passed to the Carew family.

G. Orpen, "Ireland Under the Normans," 1911–20; E. Curtis, "History of Mediæval Ireland," 1923.

Fitz-Urse, Reginald, was a knight in the service of Henry II, and one of the murderers of St. Thomas. [Becket.]

Fitz-Walter, Milo (Miles of Gloucester) (*d.* 1143), was one of the itinerant justices in the reign of Henry I and sheriff of several of the western counties. On that king's death he assisted Stephen in his attempt to gain the crown, but before long he deserted the king, and strenuously supported the Empress Matilda, who in 1141 gave him the title of Earl of Hereford, together with considerable lands and privileges. He was accidentally killed in 1143.

Fitz-Walter, Robert (*d.* 1235), lord of Dunmow and Baynard's Castle, was a bitter opponent of John, and was selected by the baronial confederacy as the leader in the struggle that finally resulted in the grant of Magna Carta. He was one of the twenty-five executors appointed to see that the provisions of the charter were duly observed, and he it was who in 1216 offered the throne of England to Louis of France. He was defeated and captured at the battle of Lincoln in May 1217, but was speedily released. From 1219 to 1221 he was on crusade, and after his return he lived peaceably in England till his death in 1235.

Fitz-William, Roger, Earl of Hereford, was the younger son of William Fitz-Osbern. In 1075 he entered into a plot with Ralph Guader, Earl of Norfolk (q.v.), against William I, the immediate cause being the king's opposition to the marriage between Ralph and Fitz-Osbern's sister. Being defeated and taken prisoner, he was sentenced to deprivation of his lands and titles and perpetual captivity. [Norwich, The Bridal of.]

Fitz-William, Sir William (*d.* 1542), was a famous naval commander of Henry VIII's time. In 1513 and in 1522–4 he defeated the French, and in 1537 was made Earl of Southampton and privy seal.

Fitzwilliam, William Wentworth, 2nd Earl (1748–1833), was of the distinguished Yorkshire Whig family, and nephew of Rockingham, and opposed the American War and Pitt's earlier ministry. Taking panic at the French revolutionary excesses, he deserted Fox. He was made lord-lieutenant of Ireland in 1794, but recalled next year because too Liberal and succeeded by Cornwallis. This alienated him from the government, and he became president of the council under Grenville, in 1806, and lived to share in and see the success of the Reform Bill agitation. He was one of the best specimens of the Whig grandee of the eighteenth century.

Five Boroughs of Mercia. A confederacy of Danish boroughs comprising Derby, Lincoln, Leicester, Stamford, and Nottingham. They were each ruled by their "jarl," with twelve hereditary lawmen administering Danish law, in whom was vested supreme judicial authority. The Five Boroughs were conquered by Edward the Elder; and reconquered (in 942) by Edmund, who seems to have allowed them full enjoyment of their local privileges. [Danelagh.]

Five Members, The. In January 1642 Charles I, believing that the Parliamentary leaders intended to impeach the queen, resolved to prevent them by impeaching her assailants. He selected, as the chief offenders, five members of the House of Commons, John Pym (Tavistock), John Hampden (Buckinghamshire), Denzil Holles (Dorchester), Sir Arthur Haselrigg (Leicestershire), and William Strode (Dorchester). Lord Mandeville was included in the same impeachment on January 3. Sir Edward Herbert, the attorney-general, laid the charges before the House of Lords, who at once appointed a committee to inquire whether his procedure had been according to law. On the same day the king sent the sergeant-at-arms to the House of Commons with orders to arrest the five members. Charles was urged on by Lord Digby and the queen to arrest the members himself, and about three o'clock on the afternoon of January 4 started from Whitehall with about three hundred armed men to apprehend them. The accused members had been warned by a message from Lady Carlisle, and escaped by the river into the city. The king entered the House, leaving about eighty armed men in the lobby, and made a speech in which he said that since they had disobeyed his orders, he had come to arrest the members himself. He commanded the Speaker to tell him whether the accused members were present; and when Lenthall refused to do so, and the king saw with his own eyes that "the birds were flown,"

he retired. The House adjourned till the 11th, appointing a committee to sit in the interval at the Guildhall. This committee voted, on the 6th, that the impeachment, the personal issue of the warrants by the king, and the attempt to arrest the impeached members were alike illegal. Addresses and petitions on behalf of the accused members poured in from the city and the country. On the 11th the Commons returned in triumph to Westminster, and two days later the king announced that, as the legality of the impeachment of the members had been doubted, he would now abandon it and proceed against them "in an unquestionable way." The justifiable distrust caused by this attempt induced the leaders of the Parliament to demand substantial securities from the king, and so led to war.

J. Forster, "The Five Members," 1860.

Five-Mile Act, The (1665), enacted that no nonconforming clergyman should come within five miles of any corporate town or any place where he had once ministered (except when travelling), nor act as a tutor or schoolmaster unless he first took the oath of non-resistance, and swore to attempt no alteration of the constitution in Church or State. It was one of the series of repressive measures popularly known as the "Clarendon Code" (q.v.), and was aimed at depriving the ejected clergy of their means of livelihood, both preaching and teaching.

Flag, Honour of the. From very early times the English required foreign ships to salute English vessels within the narrow seas by lowering their flag. This question was vehemently contested by their commercial rivals, the Dutch, and was one of the smaller points of the chronic dispute between the two nations in the middle of the seventeenth century. The Dutch admitted the claim in 1673.

Flagellants, The, were a sect of fanatical enthusiasts of the thirteenth century, who formed special fraternities for the observation of flagellation as a solemn and public religious ceremony. Founded in 1210 by St. Anthony of Padua, this order became widespread through the teaching of Rainieri of Perugia. In the reign of Edward III, 120 of them crossed into England, but their long processions and self-immolation did not produce a single convert.

Flags, The National, are of several kinds. (1) *The Royal Standard* of England is descended from the arms of William the Conqueror—two leopards on a red field—which persisted until Henry II substituted for them three lions. Edward III first quartered the royal arms, placing the *fleur-de-lis* in the first and fourth quarters as a symbol of his claim to the French crown. On the accession of James I in 1603 the lion of Scotland and the harp of Ireland were added. William III further added a central shield bearing the arms of Nassau, for which George I substituted the arms of Hanover. These were removed in 1837 on the accession of Victoria. (2) *The Union Jack,* the national flag of the British Empire, comprises the red crosses of St. George (England) and St. Patrick (Ireland), and the white cross on blue ground of St. Andrew (Scotland). The cross of St. Andrew first appeared on the Union Jack in 1603, on the accession of James I; and that of St. Patrick in 1801, on the Union with Ireland. The Union Jack is the most important and most universal of all the British ensigns. (3) *The three Ensigns,* originating in the navy: the *red* ensign is the flag of the British merchant service, according to orders issued in 1707; the *white* ensign is the flag of the Royal Navy, and may be flown only by vessels of the Royal Navy (with the exception that in 1829 the privilege of flying it was granted to the Royal Yacht Squadron); the *blue* ensign is the flag of the public service other than the Royal Navy, and of the Royal Naval Reserve. (4) *Two other naval flags*—the admiralty flag (red, with a yellow anchor in the centre), and the flag of the master of Trinity House (the cross of St. George, with a ship in each quarter and a shield surmounted by a lion in the centre). (5) *Colonial and Dominion flags* (with the exception of the Union of South Africa) are the same as that of the mother-country, bearing in addition the badge of the colony.

S. Eardley-Wilmot, "Our Flags," 1901; W. C. Perrin, "British Flags," 1922. [A. C. F. B.]

Flambard, Ralph or Ranulf (*d.* 1128), was a Norman of obscure origin, who after Lanfranc's death became the chief minister of William Rufus. To his malign influence may be attributed much of the tyranny and oppression of this reign. He devised new impositions, and enriched himself as well as the king, by keeping the sees and abbeys vacant. Under him the position of justiciar gradually became a definite office. In 1099 he was made Bishop of Durham. On the accession of Henry I he was at once arrested and imprisoned in the Tower, from which, however, he very soon managed to escape, and took refuge in Normandy with Robert, whom he encouraged in his invasion of England. Henry subsequently allowed him to return to his bishopric, where he remained peaceably till his death, occupying himself chiefly in architectural and ecclesiastical works. His character is painted in the darkest characters by the chroniclers. William of Malmesbury says, "If at any time a royal edict was issued that England should pay a certain tribute, it was doubled by this plunderer of the rich, this exterminator of the poor, this confiscator of other men's inheritance. He was an invincible pleader, as unrestrained in his words as in his actions, and equally furious against the meek or the turbulent. Wherefore the king used to laugh and say, 'that he was the only man who knew how to employ his talents

in this way, and cared for no one's hatred so long as he could please his master.' "

E. A. Freeman, "William Rufus," 1882; H. W. C. Davis, "England Under the Normans and Angevins."

Flammock, Thomas, was a Cornish attorney, whose harangues incited the Cornishmen to revolt, in 1497, against Henry VII's taxation for the Scottish war. He led them on their march to Blackheath, and on the suppression of the revolt was hanged as a traitor.

G. Temperley, "Henry VII," 1917.

Flanders, Relations with. Nominally a fief of France, Flanders was very early of sufficient importance to have close dealings with England. The name "Baldwinsland," given by the early English to the country, suggests the frequency of the dynastic relations between the courts. The first Count Baldwin married Judith, the Frankish widow of Ethelwulf of Wessex, and their son married Ælfthryth (Elfrida), a daughter of Alfred the Great. Dunstan found in his exile a refuge in a Flemish monastery. Godwin, in 1051, was warmly welcomed by the great Baldwin, whose dealings with England were singularly intimate. He died soon after his son-in-law, William I, had conquered the kingdom. Later in William's reign, Gerbod of Chester and William Fitz-Osbern found captivity and death respectively through warlike intervention in Flemish quarrels. Another Baldwin supported William FitzRobert against his uncle Henry I. Flemish mercenaries and William of Ypres fought for Stephen. Count Philip joined in 1173 the great confederation which the younger Henry had excited against his father Henry II. But gradually the old changing relations settled down into a general friendship, when not only dynastic accidents, but a common policy of alliance against the encroachments of the French kings, and the growing pressure of economic necessities, firmly bound together the two countries. Count Ferdinand joined John and his nephew, Otto IV, in the confederacy that was dissolved by the battle of Bouvines (1213). Edward I ended, by the Treaty of Montreuil (1274) with Count Guy, the hostilities between his father and Margaret of Flanders. Guy, on the whole, gave Edward efficient support against Philip the Fair. But the growth of the cloth trade in Flanders had bound its great towns to England, whence came the raw wool which Ghent or Ypres made up into cloth, and the Hanse factories of London and Bruges may have added a further link. On the other hand, the rising power of the towns compelled the Flemish counts to rely on French help; and thus, while the alliance of England and the towns was strengthened, her relations with the counts grew cool. At last, in 1339, Jacob van Artevelde, the Ghent leader, concluded a firm alliance with Edward III against Count Louis and Philip VI, which continued till Artevelde's death, in 1345. The renewed disturbances at Ghent, under Philip van Artevelde in 1381, were in close analogy and direct connexion with the contemporary revolutionary movement under Wat Tyler, and even Bishop Spencer's crusade against the Clementists practically turned to the help of the Flemish townsmen. But the accession of the Burgundian house to Flanders restored the old friendship of the princes, though partly at the expense of the popular party. In 1496 the treaty styled *Magnus Intercursus* expelled Perkin Warbeck from Flanders, and allowed full freedom of trade between the two countries. But henceforth Flanders is only a fragment of a larger state. [T. F. T.]

Flavia Cæsariensis was one of the districts into which Roman Britain was divided after the reorganization of the Empire by Diocletian and Constantine. It possibly comprised the North.

Fleet Prison, a famous London jail, a king's prison since the twelfth century, was situated on the east side of Farringdon Street, on the bank of the Fleet rivulet. The Fleet was burnt down by Wat Tyler, and became of great historical interest, as the prison of religious offenders on both sides, under Mary and Elizabeth, and of the victims of the Star Chamber. On the abolition of the Star Chamber, it became a prison for debtors and those committed for contempt. It was burnt during the Fire of 1666, and again in the Gordon riots (1780), and abolished in 1842. In the eighteenth century the Fleet became famous for the irregular marriages contracted there by clergymen of abandoned character, and in prison or within the precincts for debt. Lord Hardwicke's Marriage Act (1753) put an end to this abuse.

J. S. Burn, "History of Fleet Marriages," 1833; J. Ashton, "The Fleet," 1888.

Fleetwood, Charles (*d.* 1692), the son of Sir Miles Fleetwood, was one of the gentlemen of the Inns of Court who enlisted in the body-guard of the Earl of Essex. He also served in the army of the Eastern Association under Oliver Cromwell. In the New Model he commanded a regiment of horse, and after the capture of Bristol was appointed governor of that place. In May 1646 he became member for Marlborough. He took no part in the king's death, though his brother George sat amongst the judges. In 1650 Fleetwood was lieutenant-general of the army under Cromwell which invaded Scotland. As such, he shared in the victory of Dunbar, and played a very important part in the battle of Worcester. On the death of Ireton, Fleetwood married his widow, Cromwell's daughter Bridget; and, after the commandership-in-chief in Ireland had been refused by Lambert, Fleetwood was appointed to that post (July 1652). In August 1654 he became lord deputy, but was recalled to England in the summer of 1655, probably because he was not sufficiently active in pushing on the transplantation of the Catholics and suppressing the exercise of the Catholic religion.

On his return, he took his place as a member of Cromwell's council, and as one of his major-generals. Notwithstanding his relationship to the protector, he opposed his taking the crown, but accepted a place in his House of Lords. Fleetwood had some expectation of being nominated Cromwell's successor, but, nevertheless, accepted the appointment of Richard Cromwell. However, he headed the party among the officers which wished to make the army independent of the civil power. Their plan was to make Fleetwood commander-in-chief, independent of the protector, and practically a co-ordinate power with him. Not succeeding in this, he and the council of officers forced Richard to dissolve parliament. The Rump, directly it was restored, appointed him commander-in-chief of the land forces in England and Scotland, and one of the Commission of Seven, who were to appoint officers (May 1659); but as they attempted to subject the army to the parliament, he broke up the House (October 1659), and established the "Committee of Safety." Monck's advance, and the spread of disaffection among army and people, obliged Fleetwood to recall the parliament, though Whitelocke very nearly persuaded him to bring back the king instead. He was deprived of his office by parliament, and, after the king's return, perpetually incapacitated from public employment. He died on October 4, 1692.

S. R. Gardiner, "Commonwealth and Protectorate," 3 vols., 1903 edn.

Fleming, Sir Thomas (1534–1613), a prominent member of the parliaments of 1601 and 1604, was recorder of London (1594), and solicitor-general the following year. He took part in the trial of the Earl of Essex, and became chief baron of the Exchequer in 1604. Coke calls him "a man of great judgment, integrity, and discretion."

Flemings in England. At various times, large colonies of Flemish settlers have been brought over to England. The close commercial and political relations of the two countries largely occasioned this emigration. Henry I is reputed to have settled Lower and Southern Dyfed with Flemings. He certainly thoroughly expelled the Welsh, and planted the country with Teutonic settlers, who speedily became English, and have remained so to the present time, without any tendency to amalgamate with the surrounding Celts. Not to mention the Flemish mercenaries of Stephen's reign, we find large numbers of Flemish weavers settling in England, especially in the eastern counties, where Norwich became the great seat of the clothing industry. These Flemings taught the English to make up their own wool into cloth, instead of exporting it to the looms of Flanders. Later still, the Reformation led to a large emigration of Flemish Protestants into England.

Fleta is the name usually given to a work on English law based mainly on Bracton and written some time in the reign of Edward I (possibly about 1290). It derives its name from the fact that it was written in the Fleet prison. The intimate acquaintance with the royal court and officials which is displayed by the author suggests that he may have held some office in the king's household.

Fletcher, Andrew, of Saltoun (1655–1716), was educated by Bishop Burnet, then minister of Saltoun. He first appears as commissioner for East Lothian in the Scottish parliament; but his opposition to the court occasioned his outlawry and the confiscation of his estates. In 1685 he engaged in Monmouth's rebellion, but quarrelled with a fellow-officer named Dare, and shot him. Monmouth was obliged to dismiss Fletcher, who withdrew to the continent, and entered the Austrian service against the Turks. In 1688 he joined William of Orange at The Hague, and after the Revolution his estates were restored to him. He soon joined the "Club" (q.v.), a body of politicians who were dissatisfied with the Revolution Settlement in Scotland. Proud of his good family and theoretical Liberalism, Fletcher hated monarchy and democracy: and desired to make Scotland an oligarchical republic, of the Venetian or Bernese type. At this time he published two "Discourses" concerning the affairs of Scotland, in one of which he recommended predial slavery as a remedy for pauperism. He formed a friendship with Paterson, the originator of the Bank of England, and supported his Darien scheme. In Anne's reign he led the "Patriots" in their opposition to the Union. In 1703 he introduced his "Limitations" for Queen Anne's successor, some of which strangely anticipate modern Liberalism, and was a prime mover of the "Bill of Security," which passed in 1704, while the "Limitations" were accepted in 1705. But, finding he could not withstand the Union, he exerted his influence more practically to secure freedom of trade. This attitude, rather than any real connexion with the Jacobite conspiracies, led to his arrest in 1708. On his release he disappeared from public life.

Lord Buchan, "Life of Fletcher," 1792.

Fletcher, Richard (*d.* 1596), Bishop of London, "a comely and courtly prelate," was made Dean of Peterborough (1583), in which capacity he attended Mary, Queen of Scots, at her execution. He was a great favourite of Elizabeth, by whom he was advanced successively to the sees of Oxford, Worcester and London, but lost her regard on his marriage, for which he was suspended. He was the father of Fletcher the dramatist, and the uncle of Phineas Fletcher the poet.

Fleurus is a small town, fifteen miles west of Namur, famous for several battles, and especially those in 1690 and 1794. In the former engagement (July 1, 1690), the Duke of Luxemburg gained a well-contested victory over the Dutch and Imperialists under the

Prince of Waldeck. The latter (June 26, 1794) resulted in a victory for Marshal Jourdan over the Prince of Coburg.

Flodden Field, The Battle of (September 9, 1513), was fought between James IV of Scotland and the English under the Earl of Surrey. The most noteworthy circumstances of this engagement are: (1) The skilful movement by which the Earl of Surrey succeeded in crossing the river Till, and cutting off all communication between King James and Scotland. (2) The omission of the Scots to take advantage of the favourable moment for attack presented by the passage of the English army over the river. (3) The utter defeat of the English right wing under Sir Edward Howard, and the loss of this success to the Scots through the misconduct of the troops of Earls Huntly and Hume, who, instead of following up their victory, abandoned themselves to pillaging the baggage of both armies. (4) The prowess of the English archers, whose murderous volleys threw the Scottish right, led by Lennox and Argyll, into complete confusion, and rendered their subsequent defeat and ruinous flight a comparatively easy matter. (5) The desperate resistance against overwhelming numbers made by the Scottish centre, and the death of James IV during the heat of the contest. (6) The indecisiveness of the conflict. Notwithstanding reverses elsewhere, and the death of their king, the Scots succeeded in holding Flodden Hill during the night, and only abandoned their position at the dawn of the next day on learning the real state of affairs. Meanwhile, on the English side, the contest had so nearly resulted in a defeat that Surrey was quite unable to prosecute the war with any vigour. The loss of the Scots in this battle was from 11,000 to 12,000 men; that of the English under 2,000. At the commencement of the battle the contending armies mustered respectively 30,000 and 32,000 men.

P. Hume Brown, "History of Scotland," 1911; C. H. Williams, "England Under the Early Tudors," 1925.

Flood, Henry (1732–91), was an illegitimate son of Warden Flood, chief justice of the King's Bench in Ireland. He studied at Dublin and at Oxford, and in 1759 entered the Irish parliament as member for Kilkenny; and about 1761 he became the idol of the Irish patriots. In 1767 he successfully opposed an attempt made by the government to increase the Irish army. In 1773 he was the most vigorous supporter of the Absentee Tax, and the real leader of the opposition to the Castle. In 1774, however, he came to terms with Lord Harcourt, the lord-lieutenant, and finally contented himself with a vice-treasurership, a sinecure of £3,500 a year. In 1779 he again deserted the government, and advocated free trade. In 1781 he attacked the Castle expenditure. His name was now struck off the list of privy councillors, and he lost his place. He then tried to supplant Grattan, and recover his old position, but was twice defeated. In 1782 he stood forth as a defender of Protestant ascendancy. When Grattan was rewarded for his services, Flood's friends tried to get a reward for him also, but failed, and a bitter personal attack on Grattan being unsuccessful, he left Ireland for England. In 1783 he returned. Another quarrel with Grattan would have ended in a duel if they had not both been ordered into custody. Flood now took the part of the volunteers, and agitated for a Reform Bill: he was, however, averse to the Catholic claims. In November 1784 his great motion for reform was defeated, and his influence continuing to decline, he again went to England in 1787. Since 1785 he had had a seat in the English parliament, but he was little appreciated, and a motion for reform brought forward by him in 1790 was a failure.

Biographies of Grattan.

"Florida," The, was a ship built in Birkenhead (nominally for the use of the Italian government), whose activities produced strained relations between Great Britain and the United States during the American Civil War (1861–4). The *Florida* slipped out of the Mersey despite warnings from the United States to the British government that her real purpose was that of a Confederate privateer, and captured 15 vessels within the next three months, 13 of which she destroyed. The damage done by the *Florida* was included in the Geneva Award with the *Alabama* and other claims. [Geneva Award.]

Floyd's Case (1621). Floyd was a Catholic barrister, who, in prison, had uttered disrespectful language against the Elector Palatine and his wife. Parliament, then sitting, and disgusted at James I's obstinate aversion to their zeal for the cause of the Palatine, inflicted on Floyd a heavy fine, together with whipping, the pillory, branding, and imprisonment. The Commons took the initiative, but the Lords inflicted the sentence. This case illustrates the indefinite right of parliament to exercise jurisdiction even over those not its members, and for offences not directly against the House.

"Flying Squadron" (*Squadrone volante*) is the name of a party of Scottish politicians, formed about 1705. It was borrowed from the famous "Flying Squadron" of independent cardinals during the previous generation at the papal court. Lord Tweeddale was the leader of this new party, which, by keeping close together, and joining first one side and then the other in the Union debates, had for some time a good deal of power. It had the fate of the Union question in its own hands, and its adhesion to the cause of the government in 1706 secured the triumph of that measure.

Foley, Paul (1645 ?–99), a Tory politician in the reign of William III, began his political

career as a Whig, but about 1690 became a Tory. He was so wealthy—his father was a successful ironmaster—that it was unnecessary for him to follow law as a profession; but he had studied it carefully as a science. He paraded his independence and disinterestedness rather ostentatiously. In 1695 he was chosen Speaker of the House of Commons, and was again re-elected at the close of the year. In 1696 he proposed the establishment of the Land Bank.

Foliot, Gilbert (*d.* 1187), was a monk of Cluny, and became, first, Abbot of Gloucester, then Bishop of Hereford, 1147, and, subsequently, of London, 1163. He is mainly remarkable by his zeal for the cause of Henry II, and in the disputes with Becket was sent to Sens by the king in 1164 to represent his case to the pope. At Argentan in 1167 he renewed his plaint and was excommunicated by Becket, but the pope withdrew the sentence; a second excommunication shortly afterwards followed, but the pope again granted him absolution, on the mediation of Henry. He participated, with the Archbishop of York, in the coronation of the young Henry in June 1170, and for this was again excommunicated by Becket, after the latter's nominal reconciliation with the king. The anger felt by Henry on receiving the news of Becket's act resulted in the murder of the latter, and such was the horror aroused, that the sentence on Foliot was not relaxed until 1172. He was a man of learning, and his letters are of considerable value, but he has been traduced without mercy by the partisans of Becket.

Biographies of Becket.

Folkland, Bookland, Laenland, are terms which stand for the three principal forms of land ownership under Anglo-Saxon law. Out of folkland specific grants of bookland (or *bocland*) and laenland were made which constituted in many cases the estates held later by the great landowners under the manorial forms. The word "folkland" has only survived in one or two instances and these are of the late ninth and tenth centuries. The form may be regarded as representing the primitive kind of land ownership in England. It was land held not, as was for a long time supposed, by the community, but by individuals according to the tribal or customary rules of family inheritance. At a time when folkland was regarded by investigators as having a public character, various words were used to describe species of private property (in reality held by folkright) which could not be identified as bookland. According to Vinogradoff, "the folkland is what our scholars have called ethel and alod and family land and yrfe-land; it is held under the old restrictive common law, the law which keeps land in families, as contrasted with land which is held under a book, under a privilegium modelled on Roman precedents, . . . and making for free alienation and individualism." The occupiers of folkland evidently varied in the degree of freedom under which they lived. In some parts, in the east and north, they were servants to no landlord, but they were subject to services and taxation and owed the *trinoda necessitas*. In the south the independence was not so marked, but the local customary law still governed the tenure of folkland.

The strict rules of inheritance rendered folkland an unsatisfactory mode of land-holding to those who wished to alienate land, whether permanently or for a term of years, so a system of grants was instituted whereby the obstacle was overcome. More than a thousand of these land-books or charters are extant for the period between the days of Ethelbert and the Conquest. The earliest grants of bookland are nearly all made by the king to ecclesiastical beneficiaries together with the various rights that appertained, e.g., claims to military service, jurisdiction, taxation. For customary law were substituted the rules which the new charters established. So frequent and widespread did these ecclesiastical grants become under the urge of the royal conscience, that a scarcity was felt when land was required for rewarding and endowing laymen, and even then the formula of conveyance retained a pious terminology which makes curious reading in the granting of land and privileges in imitation of the forms established by the ecclesiastical land-book. Bookland can be distinguished from folkland in several ways. The grantee may be given permission to dispose of it freely by his will; the charter gives the law to which the land is subject; and the land could be made exempt from customary dues and services, e.g., in the case of some ecclesiastical grants. The effect of the institution on the status of the rent-paying freeman was to depress it, for the personal link which connected the individual on the land and the king in matters of service and jurisdiction was broken by the intrusion of an intermediary. He became subject to a territorial lord.

Laenland was a grant of more temporary nature. Parcels of laenland were often conveyed by the Church, itself a grantee of bookland, as *loans* for a number of lives, to thegns, and even to the king. The terms vary. The grant may take the form of a temporary gift; services may be required, or partially dispensed with; rent may be paid; or a lump sum may secure the lease. Failure to fulfil the tenant's obligations often involved forfeiture. Records survive to show that the careful Bishop Oswald of Worcester (961–72) took considerable trouble to superintend the administration of his lands. Seventy grants have been found in which we observe him making land-loans for the period of three lives (two of which may be chosen by the first life) to his thegns. At the end of the term the lands are to revert to the Church. In return the tenants are to pay church-scots, tolls for sales and purchases

which they conduct, ride on the bishop's errands, and perform other services.

Bookland and laenland both depended on a written deed of conveyance. The *laen* was the later form and imitated the book grant in some of its features. The king would grant land with or without obligations by book and the grantee would employ the more elastic possibilities of the laen in granting portions of his estate to his sub-tenant. The grant of bookland was, of course, employed also by others than the king.

Maitland, "Domesday Book and Beyond"; Vinogradoff, *English Historical Review*, viii, and "Growth of the Manor"; Holdsworth, "History of English Law."

Fontenoy, The Battle of (May 11, 1745), was fought during the Austrian Succession War, and resulted in a victory for the French. The Duke of Cumberland advanced with 50,000 British, Dutch, and Austrian troops to relieve Tournay, besieged by Marshal Saxe. The French, while continuing the siege, took up a very strong position south of the town to cover their operations. On their right was the Scheldt, along their front a steep and narrow valley, at their left a wood with forts. This strong position the allies attempted to take. The Dutch under the Prince of Waldeck, after a spiritless attempt had failed, withdrew from the field. But the mass of the British and Hanoverian troops won the heights opposite them; and if supported by the Dutch, must have retained their position. As it was, fresh troops from the French side gradually forced them to retire, with a steadiness as great as that displayed during their advance. The capture of Tournay followed this French victory; but it was the withdrawal of troops to Scotland to oppose the Pretender rather than the effects of Fontenoy that made the subsequent campaign in Flanders so disastrous for the allies.

F. H. Skrine, "Battle of Fontenoy," 1906.

Foreign Enlistment Act, The (1819), forbade British subjects to take service with a foreign state without royal licence, and prohibited the equipment within British dominions of ships to be used against a power with which Great Britain was at peace. It was specially suspended to allow Sir de Lacy Evans to raise a British Legion (q.v.) against the Carlists in Spain in 1835. The *Alabama* and other affairs led to some trials in 1862 and 1863, the proceedings of which showed that the act required amendment. This was done by a new Foreign Enlistment Act, passed in 1870.

Foreign Legion, The, was conceived by Prince Albert during the Crimean War, and in accordance with the Prince Consort's suggestion instructions were issued to British ambassadors and ministers abroad to recruit men for the Crimea. The result was a series of collisions with foreign governments, particularly that of the United States, where Crampton, the British minister (q.v.), was dismissed for his zeal. In the end only a few Swiss and other foreigners were recruited.

Foreign Office, The, is a department of state created in 1782. Before that date foreign affairs had been administered by a dual secretariat, Europe being divided for convenience into two parts and policy directed by a secretary of state for the Northern and a secretary for the Southern Department. During the Rockingham administration of 1782 the Southern Department became the Home Office (q.v.) and the Northern Department the Foreign Office. Charles James Fox, the first foreign secretary, moved the establishment from Whitehall to Cleveland Row, whence it was transferred to the Whitehall Cockpit in 1786, and in 1793 to Downing Street, where it has remained ever since (save for a short period when it was removed for structural alterations —1856 to 1868). The use of English instead of French in official correspondence with foreign representatives in London was introduced by Grenville in 1800. "The first event in the constitutional history of the Foreign Office" occurred in 1850, when Queen Victoria addressed to Palmerston her famous memorandum stipulating that questions of foreign policy should be settled by the foreign secretary in consultation and not on his own initiative (August 12). The Foreign Office staff includes a permanent under-secretary, a parliamentary under-secretary, assistant under-secretaries, a librarian (the superintendent of the foreign service messengers, of whom there were 38 in 1822 and 16 in 1922), a head of the treaty department, and a staff of clerks (for whom qualifying examinations were instituted in 1856 by Lord Granville, who later, 1881, established second division clerks). The legal adviser to the Foreign Office was created in 1886, and the first typist was appointed in 1889 by Lord Salisbury. Four new departments arose during the Great War—the Ministry of Blockade, the War Intelligence Department, the Political Intelligence Department, and the Historical Section. By 1922 the diplomatic establishments and the Foreign Office had become fused into one foreign service.

P. M. Thornton, "Foreign Secretaries of the Century," 1881; Sir E. Hertslet, "Recollections of the Old Foreign Office," 1901; Algernon Cecil, *The Foreign Office*, in "Cambridge History of British Foreign Policy," vol. iii (chap. 8), 1923; Sir E. Satow, "Guide to Diplomatic Practice," 1917 and 1922; Algernon Cecil, "British Foreign Secretaries of the Nineteenth Century," 1927. [A. C. F. B.]

List of Foreign Secretaries

Charles James Fox	March–July 1782
Lord Grantham	July 1782–April 1783
Charles James Fox	April–Dec. 1783
Duke of Leeds	Dec. 1783–June 1791
Lord Grenville	June 1791–March 1801
Lord Hawkesbury	March 1801–May 1804
Earl of Harrowby	May 1804–Feb. 1806
Charles James Fox	Feb.–Sept. 1806
Viscount Howick	Sept. 1806–March 1807
George Canning	March 1807–Oct. 1809
Earl Bathurst	Oct. 1809–June 1812
Lord Castlereagh	June 1812–Aug. 1822
George Canning	Aug. 1822–April 1827

Earl Dudley and Ward	April 1827–June 1828
Earl of Aberdeen	June 1828–Nov. 1830
Viscount Palmerston	Nov. 1830–Nov. 1834
Duke of Wellington	Nov. 1834–April 1835
Viscount Palmerston	April 1835–Aug. 1841
Earl of Aberdeen	Aug. 1841–July 1846
Viscount Palmerston	July 1846–Dec. 1851
Earl Granville	Dec. 1851–Feb. 1852
Earl of Malmesbury	Feb.–Dec. 1852
Lord John Russell	Dec. 1852–Feb. 1853
Earl of Clarendon	Feb. 1853–Feb. 1858
Earl of Malmesbury	Feb. 1858–June 1859
Lord John Russell	June 1859–Oct. 1865
Earl of Clarendon	Oct. 1865–June 1866
Lord Stanley	June 1866–Dec. 1868
Earl of Clarendon	Dec. 1868–June 1870
Earl Granville	June 1870–Feb. 1874
Earl of Derby	Feb. 1874–March 1878
Marquis of Salisbury	March 1878–April 1880
Earl Granville	April 1880–July 1885
Marquis of Salisbury	July 1885–Feb. 1886
Earl of Rosebery	Feb.–Aug. 1886
Earl of Iddesleigh	Aug.–Dec. 1886
Marquis of Salisbury	Dec. 1886–Aug. 1892
Earl of Rosebery	Aug. 1892–Feb. 1894
Lord Kimberley	Feb. 1894–June 1895
Marquis of Salisbury	June 1895–Nov. 1900
Marquis of Lansdowne	Nov. 1900–Nov. 1905
Sir Edward Grey	Nov. 1905–Dec. 1916
A. J. Balfour	Dec. 1916–Nov. 1919
Earl Curzon	Nov. 1919–Jan. 1924
J. Ramsay MacDonald	Jan.–Nov. 1924
(Sir) Austen Chamberlain	Nov. 1924–

Forest, Miles, was one of the murderers of Edward V and his brother Richard in 1483. As a reward he was made keeper of the wardrobe at Barnard Castle; but after the death of Richard III he took sanctuary, where, according to Sir Thomas More, he "piecemeal rotted away."

Forests. Forest, from the Norman Conquest to the Commonwealth, bore the technical signification of Crown land reserved for the purposes of the chase, and, as such, cultivated and inhabited on sufferance if at all. A forest was defined as containing eight things: soil, covert, laws, courts, judges, officers, game, bounds. It comprised both "vert"—i.e., trees, underwood, and turf—and "venison"—i.e., the hart, the hind, the hare, the boar, the wolf, which are beasts of forest; the buck, doe, fox, marten, which are beasts of chase; the rabbit, pheasant, partridge, quail, mallard, heron, etc., which are beasts and fowls of warren. The land subject to forest law need not be all wooded, e.g., Cornwall was "forest" under John. [The open moorland of Dartmoor is still called "forest" to-day.] But the forest districts did, of course, mainly coincide with the great woods which, in old days, had made even the Roman roads deflect from a straight course, and which had then, under Roman rule, been cleared away by the legionary, the metal-worker, the citizen, the peasant, to grow up again in time to check the advances of Angles and Saxons, to force this advance to take certain lines, and to limit its first results to the establishment, at least in Mid-England, of petty and isolated "folks." Thus the West Saxons found their natural boundaries determined by Andredes Weald on the east, by Selwood on the west, as decisively as by the Thames and the sea on the north and on the south. Kentish folk, East Saxons, and East Angles were cut off from each other by marsh and wood; so were Mid-Angles from West Angles, Deirans from Bernicians; while along the Severn, in the Peak district, and in the hills of the kingdom of Elmet, the nature of the ground long barred the way westward, and from the Clyde to the Parret the Welsh confronted the invaders in a long continuous line until the seventh century. The mighty Andredes Weald, even in Bæda's day, lay stretched for 120 miles from Hampshire to the Medway. The Wire Wood covered what are now Worcestershire, Shropshire, and Staffordshire, as Arden once covered Warwickshire. Epping Forest was part of a greater whole, which extended from London nearly to the Wash, as another such region from the Peak to the Trent; from the Peak to the Tees was little but desert; from Tees to Tyne was one great forest in St. Cuthbert's days. These great woods were being rapidly cleared or opened out, when the Norman kings came and largely increased them; as by the depopulating and "afforesting" a district containing twenty-two churches, to form [an addition to some twelve square miles of deserted country, which were made into what was called the New Forest. Under Henry I the whole of Essex was subject to the Forest Law, an introduction of the Norman kings, probably from Normandy, for the protection of the king's game. Cruel penalties were inflicted for hunting the royal deer.] The so-called Forest Laws of Canute, a palpable forgery of the twelfth century, probably represent the state of things under Henry I; they make it capital "to kill a stag as to kill a man"; merely to hunt a deer was punished by the lash, if the offender were a villein; if a freeman, by a heavy fine. Within the forest bounds, no bows were to be carried without a licence, no dogs were to be kept but mastiffs, and those to be "lawed" by cutting off the claws of each forefoot. [Suspected poachers were arrested on suspicion, and blinding and mutilation were practised on those who were convicted of stealing game. The execution of an offender seems to have been an exceptional occurrence.] Even Edward I allows a trespasser who should resist the hue and cry to be lawfully slain, and requires a solemn inquest and verdict to be taken upon the body of a dead stag. The same jealous watch was exercised over "vert" as over "venison." The forest courts and officers, under the hand of Henry II, were modelled on a plan which bears a faint resemblance to the shire system, to which they stood as it were as rivals. The Court of Reguard was indeed held only every three years, for the "lawing" of dogs, agistment of cattle, etc. [and the investigation of offences against the rules of Forest Law. It was held in anticipation of the coming of the itinerant justices; for the Forest Eyre was also a triennial event. This last court gave final judgment. The Swainmote, which has been compared to the County Court, was composed

of foresters and was, in fact, of no considerable importance, attending only to practical matters such as the protection of the deer during the fawning season. Minor offences were tried in the Court of Attachment, which met as a rule every six weeks and could impose fines. More serious cases were reserved for the justices of the forest]. This last office was abolished in 57 George III, the criminal law of the forest having already been almost wholly repealed in 7 George III.

Nothing stood more in the way of that alliance between the king and the English people against the Norman baronage—that alliance on which hung, for more than a century and a half, the very existence of the throne—than this tyrannous forest system. Even in his great need, in the very charter by which he purchased his accession, Henry I insists on retaining his father's forests; and Stephen, too, who gave up everything, could not bring himself to keep his promise of giving up the forests which Henry I had added. Henry II developed them [into an organization under a master forester, supported by a number of chief foresters for the different localities]. John was forced into an engagement to give up those added by himself, and "to consider the extensions made by his father and brother." [An attempt by the barons to destroy forest jurisdiction altogether was resisted, but in 1217 the young Henry's advisers issued the Charter of the Forests by which the royal rights were curtailed, and the penalties of death and mutilation were finally abandoned. One of the complaints made at the Oxford Parliament in 1258 was that the engagements of John and Henry III had not been carried out.] It was not until the last year of the century that the often-promised "perambulation" was made, and the forest bounds reduced, by a strict inquiry between the royal officers and the local representatives. It was characteristic of the short-sightedness of the Stuart kings that they revived this old source of discontent. Traces are to be found under James I of attempts to restore the old claims in their fullness, and at last Noy's bullying chicanery won a suicidal victory in the decisions of 1633–7, which inquired into all alterations made since John and Henry II, and undid much of the "perambulation" of 1300.

The forest policy of the earlier kings is not to be explained by a royal infatuation for the pleasures of the chase. The forests, in fact, offered to the king (1) a revenue, (2) an armed force, (3) a jurisdiction altogether outside the ever-narrowing circle of his constitutional position. Thus (1) the Crown derived considerable profits from such rights as the "pannage" of swine and the agistment of cattle within these vast domains; the "chiminagium," or tax on carts which came to take fuel, charcoal, or bark; the "pleas" of the forest courts, and the fines on offenders. But too often the forests were treated as an inexhaustible treasury, wherefrom to make grants to courtiers. Again (2), the host of stewards, foresters, reguardors, agistors, woodreeves, and bailiffs were a rude substitute for a standing army and a royal police. (3) The code of forest law, too, stood out in relief from the common law; what was "not justice in itself, was justice according to the forest law," and these courts could enforce an attendance even from the great lord who claimed a franchise superior to hundred and shire moot, even from the clergy, who could in other cases appeal to their ordinary. They were, indeed, as Henry II's treasurer calls them, "the shrine and bower of kingship," a royal counterpoise at once to the baronial "liberty" and the popular "shire-moot," an *imperium in imperio*. The king claimed a supervision over the very parks and woodlands of his earls and barons, bishops and abbots, whether within a forest's bounds or not. "A subject," says Coke, "cannot have more than a chase, unless by express grant, first, of the privilege of a royal forest, and then of the jurisdiction belonging thereto."

To a people feeling the ordinary courts an irksome burden, the added duty of attendance at the forest courts must have seemed intolerable. And yet, till Magna Carta, this was enforced, probably in more than half the shires on all alike, whether dwellers in forest bounds or not. In the Forest Charter of 1217 concessions are made which show how well grounded the complaints were; the swainmote is to be convened not more than three times a year, and the Court of Attachment every forty days; the necessary officers and parties alone are bound to attend. The keepers of royal castles are forbidden to hold forest pleas; the same rules henceforth are to be binding on the barons' and prelates' conduct to their mesne vassals.

The forests reached their widest extent in the reign of John. Not merely were there such woods as Delamere, Windsor, Whittlebury, Dean, the New Forest, Andred, Sherwood, Selwood, Arden, and such hill districts as the Chilterns, the Peak, Exmoor, Dartmoor, the Yorkshire Wolds; but whole counties were reckoned as forests, and subject to forest law, e.g., Devonshire, Cornwall, Essex, Rutland, Northamptonshire, Leicestershire, Lancashire. [Before the disafforestments which were carried out by the Plantagenet kings (culminating in the reign of Edward I) there were only six counties which contained no forest, out of a total of thirty-nine. The free areas included Kent and East Anglia.] Edward I's concessions then "disforested" an immense proportion of lands hitherto included, perhaps two-thirds of the whole. But Henry VIII added Hampton Court, the royal rights still weighed on twenty counties in the Tudor reigns, and the number of royal forests was still reckoned at sixty-eight in the eighteenth century. The Commonwealth Commission, which sat to carry out the remedial act of 1641, did not act on the suggestion made for a complete sale of them; but the reductions it effected were not wholly lost at the Restora-

tion. Most of the forest laws, and many of the forest dues, became obsolete. And now the people began to encroach upon the Crown. When investigation was made at the end of the eighteenth century, and early in the nineteenth, it was found that endless unlicensed enclosures had been effected; iniquitous transfers made under colour of sale; timber was stolen, mines neglected, plantations mismanaged; officials had transformed themselves into owners; and there were only twenty forests which could supply timber for the navy. But under the provision of several acts of George III, and the Consolidating Act of 10 George IV, c. 50, a better system of management was inaugurated about 1809. Twelve of the twenty royal forests then remaining were re-enclosed and replanted, and a commission appointed in 1838 gradually simplified their organization, and improved their yield, till, fifty years later, the eight royal forests which remained yielded an average profit of £8,000 a year, as against an actual loss in 1846–7–8, due to former mismanagement. Some have been sold, as Sherwood to the Duke of Grafton, and some opened out to agriculture, as large parts of Windsor. The Office of Woods and Forests was separated from the department of public works in 1851. This by no means represents the whole result of their work, for much of the old forest domains are now classed as Crown lands, and on the whole estates of the department the revenue has risen from £250,000, in 1853, to over £650,000 (1920–1), a sum which is half as large again as the king's civil list. It is singular that in this way those royal demesne lands, of which the forests once formed the main part, after straining the relations between Crown and people for centuries, and assisting unduly to magnify the prerogative, while they soon failed to add to its real strength, or materially to aid the exchequer, have at last been made to cover the cost of the monarch's establishment [although they are now treated not as the personal property of the Crown, but as the lands of the state. They are administered by two commissioners of woods, forests, and land revenues, one of whom is usually the minister of agriculture].

"Fifth Report of Deputy Keeper of Public Records"; "Records of Commissioners of Woods and Forests," 1787–1883, especially those for 1850 and 1881; Pearson, "Historical Maps of England"; Stubbs, "Select Charters"; Stanford, "Historical Maps of England and Wales"; Turner, "Select Pleas of the Forest" (Selden Society); Baring, "The Making of the New Forest" (*English Historical Review*, 1901, 1912); Liebermann, "Über Pseudo-Courts Constitutiones de Foresta"; Petit-Dutaillis, "Studies Supplementary to Stubbs"; J. C. Cox, "The Royal Forests of England"; Gardiner, "History of England"; "Select Documents of the Puritan Revolution"; Tupling, "Economic History of Rossendale."

[A. L. S.]

Forfeiture of Lands. (1) For Treason. The earliest law of treason, that of Alfred, enacted that if a man plotted against the king's life he should be "liable in his life and in all that he has"; and in the first detailed discussion of the subject, that of Bracton (*temp.* Henry III), forfeiture is set down as one of the penalties. From this period the law was unchanging until 1870. The traitor, of whatsoever lord he held, forfeited to the Crown for ever all his freehold lands, whether entailed or not, all rights to freehold lands which he then had or might afterwards acquire, and all interests in land for life or other term of years. Sentence of forfeiture was retroactive as far as the date of the act of treason; it therefore annulled all deeds of conveyance, etc., which might have been made since, but did not affect a wife's jointure which had been settled on her previously. Dower, on the other hand, was forfeited by 5 and 6 Edward VI. As forfeiture was a consequence of attainder, if the rebel was killed on the field, executed by martial law, or died before judgment was pronounced, his lands were not forfeited. In Scotland conviction for treason did not bring with it forfeiture of entailed lands. At the Union it was thought necessary to make the law uniform in England and Scotland, but as this met with much opposition from the Scots, it was enacted (7 Anne) that though for the present forfeiture should follow treason in Scotland as in England, it should cease in both countries upon the death of the then Pretender. After a second act immediately before the rebellion of '45 had secured the continuance of the penalty, the whole clause relating to the ultimate cessation of forfeiture was abolished by 39 George III. (2) For Murder. The criminal forfeited to the Crown only the *profits* of his entailed estates, and the possession for a year and a day with right of "waste" of lands in fee simple. After this the lands escheated to the lord. Possession by the Crown for a year and a day originally followed *all convictions for felony*, though it became customary to pay a composition to prevent the use of the right of entry. By 54 George III forfeiture for a year and a day was abolished for all felonies except treason and murder, and finally the Felony Act of 1870 abolished attainder and its consequent forfeiture altogether. Forfeiture of *goods and chattels* followed conviction for any felony, and did not need, as in the case of lands, to be preceded by attainder. This also was abolished in 1870. [Escheat.] [W. J. A.]

Forman, Andrew (*d.* 1522), was a Scottish ecclesiastic and statesman of the early part of the sixteenth century. He became Bishop of Moray; was ambassador to ratify the alliance of Scotland and England at the accession of Henry VIII, but soon after attached himself to France; was made Archbishop of Bourges; and persuaded James IV to begin the war of 1513 against England. In 1515 he was made Archbishop of St. Andrews at the request of Albany. In 1517 he became one of the council of regency in Albany's absence.

P. Hume Brown, "History of Scotland," 1911.

Fornham St. Genevieve, The Battle of (1173), was one of the victories won

by Henry II over the rebellious barons who allied themselves with the French king. Here Robert de Beaumont and his Flemish mercenaries were totally defeated by the justiciar, Richard de Lucy. Fornham is two miles from Bury St. Edmunds.

Forrest, John (1474–1538), was an Observant Friar and confessor to Katharine of Aragon, a strong opponent of her divorce and of the royal supremacy, and was executed in 1538, being hung in chains over a slow fire, so that his "treason" and heresy should both receive their legal punishment.

Forster, Sir John, was sent in 1565, in conjunction with the Earl of Bedford, on a mission to Mary, Queen of Scots, on behalf of the Earl of Moray. In the rebellion of the northern earls, 1569, he did good service on the royal side, and in the following year harried Teviotdale. In 1572 he was charged, as warden of the Middle Marches, with the duty of superintending the execution of Thomas, Earl of Northumberland. In 1585 he was taken prisoner by Ker of Ferniehurst, the warden of the Scottish Marches, near Riccarton.

P. Hume Brown, "History of Scotland," 1911.

Forster, William Edward (1818–86), was educated at the Friends' School, Tottenham. In 1861 he was returned to parliament as Liberal member for Bradford, and in Lord Russell's administration he was under-secretary for the colonies (1865). As vice-president of the committee of council on education he passed the Education Bill (1870) through the Commons. On Gladstone's retirement in 1874 he was one of the candidates for the Liberal leadership, but resigned in Lord Hartington's favour. In 1880 he became chief secretary for Ireland, but resigned in 1882 on Parnell's release. He ardently supported the Northern cause in the American War of Secession, took a middle course in the Eastern question (1876–8) and was keenly interested in Imperial Federation.

T. Wemyss Reid, "Life of W. E. Forster," 1888.

Fort Duquesne was the most celebrated of the ring of forts built by the French about the middle of the eighteenth century (1754) to connect Louisiana with Canada. It was situated in the upper valley of the Ohio. Against it, in 1755, General Braddock led his ill-fated expedition; but shortly after, the English conquered the fort and renamed it Pittsburg, in honour of the great war minister. It is now, under its new name, an important seat of the American iron and coal trades.

Fort Erie, on Lake Ontario, was besieged and taken by the British troops, under Sir Gordon Drummond, after the battle of Lundy's Lane, in September 1814, during the American War.

R. Johnson, "The American War of 1812–15," 1882.

Fort George, on Lake Ontario, near Niagara, was the scene of frequent skirmishes during the American War of 1812–14. In 1813 it was taken by the Americans from General Vincent, and was again invested by General Brown in the following year.

R. Johnson, "American War of 1812–15," 1882.

Fort St. George. [Madras.]

Fort Teviot, five miles south of Perth, was the capital of the old Pictish kingdom.

Fort William, close to Inverlochy in south Inverness-shire, commands the sea entry to the Highlands, and was begun in 1690 by General Hugh Mackay. It was successfully attacked by the Jacobites in 1715 and 1745.

Fort William. [Calcutta.]

Fortescue, Sir John (*d.* after 1476), was descended from an old Devonshire family, and in 1442 was made chief justice of the King's Bench. He was a strong partisan of the Lancastrian cause, and in the first parliament of Edward IV was attainted of high treason. He fled to Scotland, and afterwards to Flanders and France, where he became the tutor of the young Prince Edward, for whose instruction he wrote his famous work, "De Laudibus Legum Angliæ." He was present at the battle of Tewkesbury, and was taken prisoner, but in 1473 obtained a reversal of his attainder by retracting what he had written against Edward IV's title to the Crown. His book on the governance of England is of much interest, from its picture of a constitutional ideal that had almost been realized in the preceding generation.

"Forties," The, was a name given to the Irish forty-shilling freeholders in the early part of the nineteenth century. The Irish election law had never been altered, and in old days, when the landowners could depend on their tenantry, it had been a favourite practice with them to increase their tenants, in order to have more voters under their control. In 1826, however, in two cases the voters followed the priests and O'Connell, and threw out two landlords' candidates. In 1828 they returned O'Connell for Clare. In 1829, however, the Emancipation Act was accompanied by a measure raising the franchise to £10, thus sweeping the "Forties" away. O'Connell was much blamed for not raising his voice on their behalf, but he was probably afraid to endanger Emancipation.

B. Ward, "Eve of Catholic Emancipation," 1911.

Fortrenn was a province of Celtic Scotland, apparently comprising the districts of Menteith and Stratherne, and extending from the Forth to the Tay. After the re-establishment of the Pictish power by the victory of Nechtansmere, the name Fortrenn seems to have been used as synonymous with the kingdom of the Picts.

Foss Way. [Roman Roads.]

Fosterage, The Custom of. It was the custom of the Irish chiefs and nobles to

send their children, especially their sons, to be fostered in some other family. The Irish in mediæval times were remarkable for their affection for their foster-children, and Giraldus Cambrensis goes so far as to say "that the Irish loved their foster-children, and were cruel to their own relations." Fosterage was one of the chief means by which the Irish influenced their conquerors, and the Statute of Kilkenny (q.v.) in 1366, and several other statutes, were passed to prevent this form of degeneracy. Sir John Davies says of it, "Yet in Ireland they put away all their children to fosterage, the potent and rich men selling, the meaner sort buying, the nursing of children, and the reason is because, in the opinion of this people, fosterage hath always been a stronger alliance than blood, and the foster-children do love and are beloved of their foster-fathers and sept more than of their own natural parents and kindred, and do participate their means more frankly, and do adhere to them with more affection and constancy." The Statute of Kilkenny made fosterage with the Irish high treason, but the custom still obtained in Cromwell's time.

Fotheringay Castle, in Northamptonshire, was founded after the Norman Conquest by Simon de Liz, and subsequently rebuilt by Edmund Langley, Duke of York. In 1452 it was the scene of the birth of Richard III. After the discovery of Babington's plot, Mary, Queen of Scots, was confined (1586), tried, and executed (1587) here. The castle was demolished by order of James I.

C. Bede, "Fotheringay and Mary, Queen of Scots," 1886.

Fougères, The Capture of (1449), was made by a body of English troops with the connivance of the Dukes of Somerset and Suffolk in flagrant violation of the truce which had been made between England and France. Fougères, which is situated in Brittany, close to the frontiers of Normandy and Maine, was at this time a place of great wealth, and by its capture the English obtained enormous booty, but the glaring breach of faith threw the Duke of Brittany into the arms of France, and hastened the expulsion of the English from Normandy, completed in 1450.

J. Gairdner, Introduction to "Paston Letters," 1904.

Fourmigni, The Battle of (1450), was one of the last battles of the Hundred Years' War, and was fought between a body of English troops who had been sent into France under Sir Thomas Kyriel to reinforce the Duke of Somerset, and the French under Richemont. The English were defeated with great slaughter; between three and four thousand were left dead on the field, and Kyriel was taken prisoner. This defeat decided the fate of Normandy, which was reconquered by the French in the course of the same year.

Sir C. Oman, "England and the Hundred Years' War," 1898.

Fowler, Henry Hartley, 1st Viscount Wolverhampton (1830–1911), entered parliament as member for Wolverhampton in 1880. In 1884 he took office as under-secretary of the home office; in 1886 he became financial secretary to the treasury, and was sworn of the privy council. In 1892 he entered the cabinet as president of the local government board, and gained great increase of reputation by the skill with which he piloted the complicated Parish Councils Bill. In 1894 he was secretary for India, and on the fall of the government in 1895 was created G.C.S.I. He became chancellor of the duchy of Lancaster in 1905, and was appointed lord president of the council and raised to the peerage in 1908. He resigned in 1909.

Fox, Charles James (1749–1806), was the third son of Henry Fox, afterwards Lord Holland. Educated at Eton and Oxford, he afterwards travelled on the continent, and while still in Italy he was returned as M.P. for Midhurst, as a supporter of Lord North. His success was immediate, and was the more readily assured since he took the side of the majority. His brilliant and reckless support was rewarded by his appointment in February 1770 as a junior lord of the admiralty (under Lord North). This position he retained for two years, and then, after attacking Lord North with much warmth on the Church Nullum Tempus Bill, in February 1772, he resigned, and thus felt himself at liberty to oppose the Royal Marriage Act. He was again taken into the ministry as a lord of the treasury; but his fiery spirit was too independent to allow him to remain long in any subordinate post. He instituted a mutiny in the government ranks, which resulted in Lord North's defeat. Henceforth, his great social influence and greater debating powers were enlisted on the Whig side. He openly opposed Lord North's ministry, especially in regard to its American policy, and at once became a recognized leader of the Whigs, and a close friend of Burke, whose views he now began to share. In 1779 he made a most violent attack upon Lord Sandwich, the first lord of the admiralty, and moved that he might be excluded from the king's councils. He had now come to be the acknowledged leader of the opposition in the House of Commons; and was selected by the Radical electors of Westminster as their champion along with Admiral Rodney. He still continued to attack the ministry with the fiercest invectives, and even threatened Lord North with impeachment. In 1782 Lord Rockingham formed a cabinet, in which Fox was one of the secretaries of state. With Lord Rockingham's death in July, Fox's share in the government came to an end. He distrusted Shelburne, and would not serve under him. Before a year was passed, Shelburne, unable to withstand the strictures with which Fox greeted his peace proposals, resigned; and Fox became the

colleague of Lord North, as secretary of state, under the nominal lead of the Duke of Portland. An alliance so unnatural could not last long, and the government was defeated on Fox's India Bill, chiefly through the king's influence. After the dismissal of the coalition ministry, Pitt came in with a minority to back him; but Fox did much to ruin the cause of his party by the factious and violent opposition which he offered to all Pitt's measures. Pitt soon became firmly established in his position; but Fox continued to harass him with attacks at every point. He opposed his India Bill, and tried to make capital out of Pitt's measures for the relief of Ireland. In 1786 he obtained a splendid opportunity of displaying his eloquence and abilities in the prosecution of Warren Hastings; but in this great trial he seems to have been eclipsed by his illustrious companions. Two years later he warmly espoused the unconstitutional position desired by the Prince of Wales on the question of the Regency Bill, but he was baffled by the patient resolution of Pitt. In 1789 came the news of the destruction of the Bastille. Fox at once hailed with delight what he deemed the uprising of an oppressed people. In 1792 he passed the celebrated Libel Bill. With greatly diminished following, Fox still continued to watch with sympathy and enthusiasm the course of the Revolution in France, and furiously opposed the notion of war with that country. In 1795 he employed his most vehement eloquence in opposing in vain the Sedition and Treason Bills. Seeing that he could effect nothing, Fox retired in 1797 into domestic privacy at St. Anne's Hill. In 1804, on the resignation of Addington, Pitt, well aware of his difficulties, was very anxious to form a cabinet on a broad basis, where faction might be sunk in patriotism. With this object in view he desired the co-operation of Fox; but the king would not hear of it. On January 23, 1806, Pitt died, and the king at length overcame his prejudices and had recourse to the opposition, out of which a ministry was formed with Lord Grenville as prime minister, and Fox as foreign secretary. Fox now abandoned his passionate longing for peace with France before the necessity of saving Europe; and in his efforts to achieve this object he was as resolute as Pitt. But Napoleon took advantage of his still strong desire for peace to carry out his own schemes for the conquest of Europe; and the fatal indecision of the ministry left Prussia unaided to oppose Napoleon's combinations, and to be defeated at Jena. Death, however, came to Fox just in time to save him from witnessing the overthrow of his most cherished hopes. While negotiations were still pending between Great Britain, France, and Russia, Fox died, September 13, 1806. To a real passion for liberty, very unusual with eighteenth-century Whigs, Fox added honesty, manliness, and consummate eloquence. His sweet disposition effaced the memory of his private irregularities; his general straightforwardness atoned for occasional factiousness.

Sir G. O. Trevelyan, "Early History of C. J. Fox," 1880 and 1911; and biographies by H. O. Wakeman, 1890, and J. L. Hammond, 1903. [W. R. S.]

Fox, George (1624–91), Founder of the Society of Friends or Quakers, was born at Fenny Drayton, Leicestershire, and began to address meetings of Baptists and others in different parts of the midlands in 1647, preaching with "few, but powerful and piercing words," and gathering to him a staunch following. The first recorded meeting of Friends occurred at Little Eaton, near Derby, in 1648. They called themselves "Friends of Truth," but in 1650 acquired the nickname "Quakers," from Fox's admonition to the Derby magistrates to "tremble at the Word of the Lord." In a very short time they numbered thousands, drawn mostly from the lower middle class. Fox organized them with the help of his wife, Margaret Fell, and undertook missionary journeys throughout the whole of the British Isles with untiring energy, visiting also North America (1671–2) and Holland (1677 and 1684). He died on January 13, 1691, in London. [Friends, The Society of.]

Fox's "Journal," 1694–8 (many later editions to 1925, latest edition ed. Norman Penney); Lives by A. C. Bickley, 1884, D. Butler, 1913, R. M. Jones, 1919; J. R. Harris, "New Appreciation of George Fox," 1925.

Fox, Henry, 1st Baron Holland (1705–1774), younger son of Sir Stephen Fox, was a political disciple of Walpole. In 1743 he became a lord of the treasury, under the Pelham administration, and on Lord Granville's failure to form a ministry he was appointed secretary for war. But dissensions sprang up among the ministry, and he violently opposed Lord Hardwicke's Marriage Act. On the death of Pelham, his brother, the Duke of Newcastle, attempted to form a government. It was difficult to find a leader of the Commons. Newcastle applied to Fox, as Pitt was obnoxious to the king. But they quarrelled about the disposal of patronage; and Sir Thomas Robinson (q.v.), a man of little influence, was made leader of the Commons. Next month, however, Newcastle secured Fox's services by making him secretary of state, and removing Robinson. Fox soon quarrelled with his chief; and believing that the blame for the loss of Minorca was to be cast on his shoulders, he resigned, in 1756, and was shortly followed by Newcastle. It was hoped that he and Pitt would unite and form an administration; but his quarrel with Pitt, caused by his acceptance of office in 1754, was too serious. However, after the failure of Pitt's first administration, Fox accepted the subordinate position of paymaster of the forces, whereby he lost even a seat in the cabinet but secured a large income. On the accession of George III he joined Lord Bute in his attack on the Whigs, and deliberately set to work to buy a majority in the House. The paymaster's office became a shop for the pur-

chase of votes. It is said that £25,000 was thus expended in one morning. But the whole feeling of the Commons was against him, and his colleagues refused to support him. Hints of bribery were freely thrown out, and he became thoroughly unpopular. "He had always been regarded as a Whig of the Whigs." On the sudden resignation of Bute, he retired to the House of Lords as Lord Holland. He continued to hold office for two more years, but he had ceased to play any part in politics. In 1767 he was not ashamed to solicit his old enemy, Chatham, for an earldom.

Biography by T. W. Riker, 1911.

Fox, Henry Richard Vassall, 3rd Baron Holland (1773–1840), grandson of Henry, 1st baron, succeeded to the peerage while still an infant, but it was not till the year 1796 that he entered on his parliamentary career, during the whole of which he maintained the views and principles of his uncle, Charles James Fox. In 1805, when the Whigs came into office, he was appointed in conjunction with Lord Auckland to negotiate with the American plenipotentiaries for the settlement of some differences between the two governments. In this, however, they were not successful, as Jefferson, the president of the United States, refused to ratify the treaty. Holland became a privy councillor in 1806, and on the death of Fox he entered the cabinet as privy seal, but early in 1807 the ministers were dismissed. He was present in various parts of the Peninsula during the Spanish War. On his return to England (1809) he became a follower of Canning, to whom he lent aid on his accession to power, though he did not become a member of his cabinet. In 1830 he entered Lord Grey's ministry as chancellor of the duchy of Lancaster, which office he continued to fill, with a slight interval when his party was not in power, until the time of his death. He published his "Memoirs of the Whig Party" in 1832.

Fox, Sir Stephen (1627–1716), was of humble stock, and began life as a choir-boy at Salisbury. Thence he became a member of Lord Percy's household, and took some share on the Cavalier side in the Civil War. Clarendon persuaded Charles II when in exile to make Fox his business manager—an office he filled with great discreetness. He made the scanty finances of the exile adequate to support him. After the Restoration his promotion was rapid. He was made paymaster, master of the horse, and lord of the treasury, sitting in the House as member for Salisbury. He became very rich. Despite his gratitude to the Stuarts, his name appeared on every commission of William III's treasury. He took a large part in the foundation of Chelsea Hospital. Of his two sons by his second wife, Stephen became Lord Ilchester, and Henry became Lord Holland and father of C. J. Fox.

Sir G. O. Trevelyan, "Early History of C. J. Fox," 1880 and 1911.

Foxe, Richard (1448 ?–1528), Bishop of Winchester, was born near Grantham, and, by the favour of Cardinal Morton, made Bishop of Exeter, Durham, and Winchester, in succession. He was a prominent minister and diplomatist under both Henry VII and Henry VIII, until eclipsed by Wolsey. He was also zealous for the "New Learning," and founded Corpus Christi College, Oxford, and several schools.

France, Relations with. Long before France, in the modern sense, was constituted, England had frequent dealings with the territory now known by that name. The old English monarchs were often in close relations with the Carolingian emperors. [Empire, Relations with.] French history strictly begins in 987, when Hugh Capet, Duke of the French, assumed the crown of the Carolings, and, like Harold, founded a monarchy, national in idea but feudal in reality. The abandonment of the Carolingian kings by the Norman dukes was among the chief causes of Hugh Capet's success; but there was a natural enmity between the weak suzerain and the mighty vassal which transferred itself to England when William of Normandy became English king. French ideas, manners, military system, architecture even, had already come into England with Edward the Confessor. After the Conquest the governing classes were practically Frenchmen. But the political relations with the French monarchy, which it is our main business to trace here, were necessarily determined by William's hostility to the Parisian king. The subsequent hostility between France and England sprang much more largely from the uneasy relations of the early Capetians to their over-powerful vassals than from English dislike to what was French. William I fought against Philip I for the possession of the Vexin, and met his death during the campaign. In 1094 Philip vainly helped Duke Robert against William II, and again, in 1097, fought with the English king about the Vexin. Louis VI was a more redoubtable antagonist than the weak Philip. But the reunion of England and Normandy after 1106 made Louis's efforts to weaken Henry fruitless, and the Treaty of Gisors (1113) ended the war for a time. But in two or three years the war was renewed, until the English victory at Brenneville (1119) and the mediation of Calixtus II produced another peace. The subsequent efforts of Louis were of little importance. The reign of Stephen suspended foreign relations; but Henry II, from the very fact that he ruled more of France than the French king himself, was the more likely to be his unwilling vassal. In 1159 Henry was involved in the War of Toulouse, but in refusing to wage open war with his lord, Louis VII, showed a scruple that was not experienced by Louis, who never lost an opportunity of attacking Henry—e.g., in 1167–8, during the Becket quarrel, and in 1173–4, when Louis helped the

younger Henry to revolt against his father, and set on foot a powerful but unsuccessful coalition against the Angevin. Later in the reign, when Louis stirred up Richard and John against their father, the relations of England and France for the first time assumed that aspect of lasting hostility which influenced all subsequent history. The temporary suspension of enmity for crusading purposes—the joint crusade of Richard I and Philip Augustus [CRUSADES]—led only to a quarrel in Palestine, and Philip's premature return to arrange attacks on Normandy. John, Philip's old ally, became his enemy on his accession to the throne. Philip's conquest of Normandy in 1204, his alliance with Innocent III against the excommunicated English king, and the crowning victory of Bouvines (July 27, 1214) over every branch of the German race, sufficiently indicate the relations of England and France under John. But so little national opposition was there as yet that the revolted barons, enraged at John's repudiation of the Great Charter, invited Philip's son Louis to avenge their wrongs and occupy their throne. Nothing but John's opportune death and the wisdom of Pembroke could have saved England from at least a temporary union with France.

Though the results were not at first apparent, the separation of England and Normandy had revolutionized the relations of England and France. The countries henceforth pursued a separate course. The feudal hostility became national. England became conscious of national identity. Though French still in manners and speech, the barons of England were no longer French in feeling. Strengthened by the annexations of Philip Augustus, the French monarchy was now a sufficient basis for the development of French national sentiment. One thing alone retarded this change of relation—the retention of Guienne by Henry III and his successor. In consequence of this there was still a feudal element in the relations of England and France. Besides being English monarchs, Henry III and even Edward I were also feudal potentates in the separatist south. In both aspects they were equally hostile to the Parisian monarchs.

Under Henry III—in whose reign a new importation of French manners, and the great absorption of French words in the English tongue occurred—the struggle for Poitou, lost in about 1229 by the English and in vain attacked in 1242, was counterbalanced by the conscientious moderation of Louis IX, which led to his selection as mediator between Henry and the barons in 1264. But the Mise of Amiens (q.v.) disgusted the national party, and led the way to the struggle of Edward I and Philip the Fair; while the rival claims of English and Angevin claimants to the Sicilian throne had added previously a new element of difference. Yet in 1286 Edward mediated between France and Aragon, though his award was repudiated. In 1294 a great war began, during which Edward for a time lost Gascony, and in which Scotland, then struggling against Edward for national independence, first became the hereditary ally of France. In 1297 the war ended, and in 1299 Boniface VIII's mad action led to the definite Treaty of Chartres. Edward II, though married to the sister of Charles IV, fell into difficulties with that monarch in 1324; the revolution of 1327, however, put these into the background. In 1328 the old line of French kings died out, and the accession of Philip of Valois was contested by Edward III as the son of Isabella. In 1337 French help to Scotland led Edward to prosecute his claim by arms. So began the Hundred Years' War between France and England. After a period of brilliant victories, Edward III forced on the French the Treaty of Brétigny (1360—q.v.), but Charles V, profiting by Edward's dotage, and the minority of Richard II, reconquered all he had won save Calais. The marriage of Richard II with Isabella of France, in 1397, coinciding with that monarch's arbitrary stroke for absolutism, marks a curious approximation between the two countries, during the pause between the acts of the great struggle. It led to the friendship of the Armagnacs for the deposed Richard which was, perhaps, the beginning of that Anglo-Burgundian alliance which alone made possible the brilliant successes of Henry V. Under him the second heroic period of the Hundred Years' War was fought, and the Treaty of Troyes (1420—q.v.) made Henry son-in-law and successor of the French monarch. Edward III had the assistance of the feudal south, but Henry V was the ally of the monarchical north of France, a different native faction contributing to each king's success. Thereafter the minority of Henry VI and the national enthusiasm engendered by the Maid of Orleans led to the loss not of Paris only or of Normandy, but of the ancient possession of Guienne. The death of Talbot, in 1453, ended the Hundred Years' War and the hopes of English domination in France. Calais, Edward III's great prize, alone remained of all the conquests.

The question of peace or war with France was now one of the chief points of dispute between the court and constitutional parties. The unpopularity of Suffolk, and the popularity of York, were largely the result of their adopting a statesmanlike and popular view respectively. But the alliance, first of the Lancastrians, then of Warwick, with France, forced Edward IV, however unwillingly, to the Burgundian alliance; and though Charles the Bold's abandonment of his cause led to the Treaty of Pecquigny (1475—q.v.) and friendship with Louis XI, yet before Edward's death that monarch had repudiated the English alliance. In vain Richard III sought the friendship of France. Charles VIII, no less than Francis of Brittany, helped Henry of Richmond to the throne; though Henry VII's constant Spanish policy, the war of the Breton succession, and the French support of Warbeck, despite the Treaty of

Étaples (1492), show that the normal hostility of England and France still continued.

With Henry VIII a new era in foreign relations began. Instead of the long-standing traditional policy of the Middle Ages, the policy of interests begins with the establishment of the political system of Europe, the doctrine of the balance of power, and the growth of modern diplomacy. In the early part of his reign, Henry was eager to win new Crécys and Agincourts at the expense of the traditional enemy. But besides this, a new motive—the desire of adjusting the balance in Italy—led Henry to join the War of the Holy League against France (1511–14). For a few years old and new motives coincided to keep Henry true to his traditional hostility, and the first war of Francis I and Charles V (1521–9) saw Henry again the enemy of France. But the negotiations of 1520 clearly show that Henry's main motive had reference to the political exigencies of the moment, rather than to any traditional theory of policy. The withdrawal of England from the war after the battle of Pavia (1525), the moment that Charles had an overwhelming advantage, illustrates Henry's regard for the balance of power. The alliance with France in 1526, the long and wearisome negotiations to enlist France on the side of Henry's divorce, equally indicate the new state of things. Francis played Henry false, and deserved the English attack in 1543, which, successful during Henry's life, led to disastrous failure during the weak rule of Somerset. Northumberland was the friend of France; but the accession of Mary, with the consequent Spanish alliance, was the cause of a fresh war between the two countries, during which France gained Calais. The Treaty of Cateau-Cambrésis (1559—q.v.) ended the war, but the accession of Francis II, the husband of Mary of Scotland, and tool of the Guises, and the ambiguous compromise as to the restoration of Calais, kept alive the enmity.

The Treaty of Cateau marked the beginning of a new era. Political considerations were subordinated to religious ones; and during Elizabeth's reign, despite her personal feelings, the Huguenots were the natural allies, the Catholic League the natural foes, of the English. The accession of Henry IV ended the active period of Catholic reaction, and led, for the first time, to a hearty national alliance of France and England against Spain. For the next half-century religious hatred of Catholicism, and political fear of the overweening Spanish monarchy, continued to produce this approximation between the old rivals. James I's Spanish policy was unpopular and unsuccessful. In 1624 a French alliance was adopted, and Charles I's marriage with Louis XIII's sister, though it did not prevent the war of 1627, kept the two nations on fair terms during the whole reign of that monarch. Richelieu's underhanded support of the Scots strengthened rather than weakened this position. The vacillating foreign policy of the first Stuarts made it impossible for fixed relations, either friendly or hostile, to be established; and it was reserved for Cromwell to revive the foreign policy of Elizabeth, and, in league with Mazarin, to humble effectually the pride of Spain. But Elizabethan policy was now obsolete. Cromwell's friendship with France is largely responsible for the aggressions of Louis XIV. Under Clarendon, who closely followed Cromwell in foreign policy, the same policy of French alliance became a source of that minister's unpopularity. The Triple Alliance (1667) of the Cabal was the beginning of the policy of combined resistance to Louis XIV of which ultimately England was to be the centre. But Catholic and despotic leanings, love of bribes, and fear of decided action, kept England's general influence on the side of France, so long as Charles II and James II were on the throne. Only under Danby, when the Orange marriage and the decided action of 1677 were effected, did England in any vigorous way set herself against French aggressions. The great development of French influence on literature, culture, manners, and fashions helped to maintain this French friendship. But with the Revolution of 1688, the prince who was at the centre of the European opposition to the universal monarchy of Louis XIV became King of England, and the addition of the whole weight of England to the coalition led to the ultimate defeat of France. The war of 1688–97 [Ryswick, Treaty of] prepared the way for the War of the Spanish Succession (1702–13) (q.v.). The well-contested defeats of William, and the crowning victories of Marlborough, broke up the power of France, even when the connexion of the dethroned Stuarts with France, and the doctrine of *laissez-faire* in European politics, kept up a French party in the country, which secured the conclusion of the Treaty of Utrecht (1713—q.v.). This Tory alliance with France, strangely enough, endured for twenty-five years of Whig ministry. The regent, Philip of Orleans, and the ministers of George I were, from widely different reasons, equally anxious for its maintenance. Philip drove away the Pretender from France, and in 1717 the Triple Alliance of Great Britain, Holland, and France was effected to maintain the Treaty of Utrecht against the efforts of the reviving monarchy of Spain. The peace policy of Walpole and Fleury kept this state of things alive. It was during this period of unity that the close literary and philosophic intercourse between France and Great Britain, which was to make the doctrines of Locke and Newton the common property of Europe, was effected. But the revival of Spain was not very real. When prosperity visited France anew her ministers were anxious to revive the schemes of Louis XIV, and, besides regard for the political balance of Europe, the rivalry of Great Britain and France in America and India, the efforts of both nations at colonial expansion, proved a new and deep-seated

source of hostility. Thus, in the War of the Austrian Succession (1740–8), and still more in the Seven Years' War (1756–63), Great Britain and France were again involved in war. The glories of Pitt's great ministry led to the vast extension of the Indian and colonial empire of Great Britain, even though the desire of George III to leave foreign politics alone, and devote himself to the restoration of the royal power, led to the premature Peace of Paris (1763). For the next few years there was peace, but little cordiality, between France and Great Britain. At last peace was broken by the French, who openly helped the revolted colonists of America (1778). A fierce war was now waged between that year and 1782, terminated by the Peace of Versailles. During the next few years Pitt kept on good terms with a nation already on the verge of a revolution; although acts like his intervention in Holland would, in more fiery times, have led France into war. But Pitt's famous commercial treaty with France (1786), which revived a trade between two countries fast drifting into commercial as well as political alienation, is the chief mark of his French policy, and the "Anglomania" in France of the period antecedent to the Revolution was one effect of the increase of pacific relations.

At the outbreak of the Revolution France and Great Britain were on better terms than since the days of Walpole. That event, hailed by all but a few as the beginning of a brighter state of things in France, brought the nations still nearer together in sympathy. But it was soon seen that the course of the French Revolution was very different from what had been hoped for. Very early Burke sounded the alarm, and the growing ascendancy of the Jacobins soon confirmed his prophecy. Henceforth sympathy with the Revolution was attended with social ostracism, and remained only with the few staunch Whigs who still followed Fox as their leader, or with professed Radicals and agitators. In 1793 the war of Great Britain against the Revolution began, and continued with but two slight breaks (the few months after the Treaty of Amiens, and the few months of Napoleon's captivity in Elba) until 1815. It became in turns a war of reactionary propaganda which would make no peace with a "regicide" Directory, a hopeless struggle for the balance of power in Europe against the aggressions of Napoleon, and finally an heroic defence of the British nation, and in a sense of the principle of nationality generally, against the lord of all Europe. In 1815 the restoration of the Bourbons ended, so far as was possible, the work of the Revolution, and a common attachment to some at least of the principles of the Holy Alliance united Tory Britain with the men of the Restoration.

[After 1815 a slow but growing cordiality replaced the old traditional hostility, bearing fruit in the "entente" of 1830 begun after the July Revolution and just before the fall of Wellington. The entente lasted until 1846, when the question of the Spanish Marriages (q.v.) brought a revival of ill-feeling. Towards its close, indeed, the understanding had thrived almost wholly on distrust—exemplified in Anglo-French rivalry in Spain, Africa (Algeria), Tahiti (q.v.), and the Near East, in which last sphere France was at one time isolated from the concert of powers until readmitted by the Second Treaty of London (q.v.). The rivalry of Palmerston, Thiers, and Guizot culminated in the Spanish Marriages dispute of 1846. Thereafter few important issues rose between the two governments. Louis Napoleon III sought a British alliance in the Crimean and Chinese Wars, while the Cobden Treaty (q.v.) of 1860 made for greater cordiality. Towards the close of the century acute distrust and apprehension arose once more, however; concentrated in Egypt, Tunis, the New Hebrides, Siam, the Congo, and French colonial ambitions generally. These differences were finally resolved by the understanding of 1904 which in 1907 became the Triple Entente on the establishment of renewed friendship between Great Britain and Russia. [ENTENTE, TRIPLE.]

During the Great War the British and French armies co-operated on many fronts; and after the Peace of Versailles the two governments were closely associated by their membership of the League Council and the Reparations Commission. In 1923 the British government disapproved of the occupation of the Ruhr, and cordiality waned; but in 1924 Britain and France together produced the abortive Geneva Protocol (q.v.). And their identity of policy and aspirations facilitated the entry of Germany into the League of Nations after Locarno.]

F. Lavisse, "Histoire de France (to 1789)," 10 vols., 1901–10; and "Histoire de France (from 1789)," 10 vols., 1920–2; T. F. Tout, "France and England in the Middle Ages and Now," 1922; J. B. Black, "Elizabeth and Henri IV," 1914; L. G. Wickham Legg (ed.), "British Diplomatic Instructions, France, 1689–1787," 1925; J. Hall, "England and the Orleans Monarchy," 1912; B. Wilson, "The Paris Embassy, 1814–1920," 1927; A. W. W. Ramsay, "Idealism and Foreign Policy, 1860–78," 1925; G. H. Stuart, "French Foreign Policy from Fashoda to Sarajevo," 1921; E. Bourgeois, "Manuel de Politique Etrangère," 3 vols., 1921; E. Debidour, "Histoire Diplomatique de l'Europe (since 1815)," 3 vols., 1891. [A. C. F. B.]

Franchise. [ELECTIONS.]

Francis, JOHN, a youth of 19, shot at Queen Victoria (May 30, 1842), for which he was condemned to execution, but the sentence was commuted to penal servitude for life. The absurdity of indicting such a man as a traitor led to an act punishing such cases by imprisonment and whipping.

"Annual Register," 1842.

Francis, SIR PHILIP (1740–1818), entered the Indian civil service, and was sent to Bengal in 1774 as a member of the new council appointed under the Regulating Act of 1773. He distinguished himself by the violence of his opposition to Warren Hastings. Returning to England

in 1781, he entered parliament in 1784, where he joined the opposition, and stimulated Hastings's impeachment. Many, including Macaulay, have regarded him as the author of the "Letters of Junius." [JUNIUS.]

Franciscans, THE, or Grey Friars, were founded by St. Francis of Assisi in 1209 and formally inaugurated in 1210. In the thirteenth century they became divided into three parties—the zealots, the party of relaxation, and the moderates. The moderates were the party strongest in France, Germany, and England. They came to England in 1224 and made foundations at Canterbury, London, and Oxford. By 1250 they numbered over 1,200, with some fifty friaries. At the dissolution there were about 66 friaries. [FRIARS.]

Edward Hutton, "The Franciscans in England, 1224–1536," 1926; A. G. Little, "Franciscan Studies," 1917; and "Grey Friars in Oxford," 1892; J. Sever, "The English Franciscans Under Henry III," 1915.

Frankalmoin (*libera eleemosyna*, i.e., free alms) was the name of a peculiar species of clerical tenure. The general condition of grants of land in frankalmoin was, that the grantees should pray or say Mass for the grantor and his kin; but no particular service was specified. This indefiniteness distinguished it from the analogous tenure by divine service, in which the service was fixed. Most of the great ecclesiastical estates of pre-Norman or Norman creation were held by ordinary lay tenure, such as knight-service; but later donations were commonly in free alms, exempt from all secular burdens. The legislation of Edward I ("Mortmain" (q.v.) and "Quia Emptores" (q.v.)) put a check on the future alienation of land under this form. In the twelfth and early thirteenth centuries the jurisdiction over land held in frankalmoin belonged to the ecclesiastical courts.

Sir J. Pollock and F. W. Maitland, "History of English Law"; W. S. Holdsworth, "History of English Law."

Frankpledge, or FRI-BORH, was an association of ten men, under the borhsealdor, fri-borge-head, or tithing-man, who were to be standing securities for each other, bound to produce any one of their number if called upon to do so, and if he was unable, liable to pay for what he had done amiss unless they could purge themselves from all complicity in the matter. The system has been defined as "a system of compulsory collective bail fixed for individuals, not after their arrest for crime, but as a safeguard in anticipation of it." It prevailed throughout England, except in the northern and western districts. The associations were called *tithings*, and every man, unless exempted by reason of his rank, or the amount of his property, or for some other cause, was obliged to be a member of it. The frankpledge is not found as a fully-developed institution until after the Norman Conquest, although its germs were present in the Anglo-Saxon period. True, the laws of Edgar, Edward, and Canute imposed police duties on the tithing. Canute required that all men should be enrolled in a tithing; and in the tenth and eleventh centuries the law provided that accused persons must find *borh* or security to appear before a court. There is, however, no clear evidence that the members of the tithing-groups were a compulsory borh for one another. It is probable that the idea of communal responsibility for crime was introduced by the Conqueror, under pressure of the need to safeguard his Norman followers. The system was under the supervision of the sheriff who, twice a year, at a specially full meeting of the hundred court, made inquiry whether all who ought to be enrolled in a tithing were so enrolled. The sheriff's "tourn" of the thirteenth century resulted from the association of this duty with the duty of receiving presentments made under the Assize of Clarendon. The right to hold the *View of Frankpledge* was frequently usurped by private lords, and became one of the commonest of the mediæval franchises. The frankpledge system appears to have become obsolete about the end of the fifteenth century. In some parts of England the tithing seems to have been not a group of ten men, but a territorial unit coincident with the vill or township.

Sir F. Pollock and F. W. Maitland, "History of English Law," edn. 1911; W. S. Holdsworth, "History of English Law," ii, 1922; W. A. Morris, "The Frankpledge System," 1910.

Fraser, SIMON, 12TH BARON LOVAT (1667 ?–1747), was the second son of Thomas Fraser, third son of Hugh, 8th Lord Lovat. Invested with the family estates for supporting the government in the rebellion of 1715, he sent forth his clan to fight for the Young Pretender in 1745, while himself posing as a loyal subject. For this treachery he was beheaded.

Biography by W. C. Mackenzie, 1908.

Frederick Louis, PRINCE OF WALES (1707–51), was the eldest son of George II and Caroline of Anspach. Before coming to England he quarrelled with his father because his intended marriage with Princess Wilhelmina of Prussia was broken off. On his arrival in England he joined the party that was in opposition to Walpole, taking Bolingbroke as his political adviser. The "Idea of a Patriot King" was written by that statesman as a guide for the prince when he should ascend the throne. In 1736 Frederick married Augusta of Saxe-Coburg; but this did not tend to the union of the royal family. He demanded (1736) that his income should be fixed by parliament. The king's overtures were rejected; and after an animated debate the ministers were victorious. The prince thereupon hurried his wife from Hampton Court to the empty palace of St. James's, when she was on the point of giving birth to a child. For this he was peremptorily ordered by George II to leave the court; Queen Caroline remained implacable, refusing to see him on her death-bed. Frederick withdrew to Norfolk House in St. James's Square,

and became the leader of the opposition. On the fall of Walpole Frederick headed the opposition as they went to pay their respects at court; but his reception by the king was merely formal. No reconciliation was effected, and the prince continued to oppose the ministry and court until his death.

H. Curtois, "A Forgotten Prince of Wales," 1912.

Free Church of Scotland, The, was formed in 1843 by the "Disruption" from the Established Church of a large body of ministers and laymen. The Tory government, at the end of Queen Anne's time, passed (1712) an act restoring patronage in Scotland. It was extremely unpopular at the time, and was a chronic cause of dissent from the Church of Scotland. Yet the patronage conferred by the act gave only a recognized right to the benefice and its emoluments. The spiritual office of pastor could only be added to this by the "call" of the parishioners; but this "call" was frequently nominal, and, if but a few parishioners would make it, "a forced settlement" of the presentee could be effected. The beginning of the nineteenth century saw the acquisition by the Evangelical party of a majority in the General Assembly over the Moderates or Latitudinarians. In 1834 the assembly passed the Veto Law, which declared it to be a fundamental article of the Church's doctrine that no minister should be intruded into a parish against the will of the people, and declared that a majority of male heads of families, full members of the church, should be able to bar an obnoxious presentee. This was an attempt to make the call a reality in all cases. Before long this act created litigation in the Court of Session, as well as great controversy on the relation of the ecclesiastical and civil powers. At Auchterarder, the call of the presentee was signed by two heads of families only, while the great majority of the parish expressed vehement dissent. Yet the Court of Session declared the presentment legal under the Patronage Act, and the House of Lords, on appeal, confirmed their decision; while at the same time the Scottish judges were accused of extending their jurisdiction on other points into spiritual matters cognizable by the Church alone. In 1842, after tedious litigation, the Auchterarder case was finally decided. In May 1843, at the time of the meeting of the General Assembly, four hundred and twenty ministers, led by Dr. Chalmers, the most famous clergyman of his day, left the Established Church; and, leaving the hall of the assembly, met in another room, as the first General Assembly of the Free Church with Chalmers as moderator. The bulk of their congregations followed them. The organizing power of Chalmers, shown from the first by the Sustentation Fund for ministers' salaries, and the scheme for the education of the clergy of the new Church, triumphed over the financial and social difficulties of the new undertaking. In four years seven hundred Free churches were built. The Free Church simply reproduced in doctrine, discipline, and organization the Established Church; save that, of course, the right of appointment to benefices was strictly confined to the congregation, and the "Erastian" dependence on the State avoided; though, as a theory, the "voluntary principle" was repudiated.

In 1900 the United Free Church of Scotland was formed by the union between the Free Church and the United Presbyterians. A small minority of the Free Church Assembly, however, maintaining that the union was *ultra vires*, claimed the property vested in the Free Church, and ultimately appealed to the House of Lords, which upheld their contention. The decision created such widespread discontent that the government in 1905 appointed a committee of inquiry. Following on the commissioners' report, an act of parliament was passed under which an executive commission allocated the property, etc., as between the two churches. The small minority, whose strength is mainly in some Highland districts, still carries on the name of the "Free Church." [Church of Scotland.]

"Subordinate Standards of the Free Church"; Hanna, "Life of Chalmers"; "Annals of the Disruption." [T. F. T.]

Free Trade Movement. [Corn Laws; Cobden; Peel.]

Freehold. The term "liberum tenementum," "free tenement," appears soon after Domesday in the sense of land held by a freeman by a free tenure, i.e., by knight-service or socage. It was thus opposed to base or villein tenure. Freeholds were granted or conveyed by the process of feoffment, i.e., an act of formal delivery of possession (livery of seisin), accompanied by words describing the nature of the interest conferred and the services to be rendered in return. But in Bracton (*temp.* Henry III) the term "freehold" had come to have also a special sense, and to be applied to what had previously been only one characteristic of freehold tenure, namely, a right over land for a period without fixed or specified termination. Hence arose the term "freehold *estate*." "Estate" in English law means the interest which a holder has in the land, and especially the "quantity of interest" as measured by its duration. Estates are divided into such as are freehold and such as are less than freehold, the former including estates of inheritance or for life, the latter estates for years (or leases), or at will.

W. S. Holdsworth, "History of English Law," ii.

Freeman, Mrs., was a name assumed by the Duchess of Marlborough, because, as she boasted, it was peculiarly suited to the frankness and boldness of her character, in her correspondence with Princess (afterwards Queen) Anne, who assumed the name Morley. Their husbands were also sometimes styled Mr. Freeman and Mr. Morley.

French Revolution, War of the, is the name generally, though not very accurately, given to the series of great wars which arose out of the French Revolution, and lasted with two short intervals of peace from 1793 to 1815. Great Britain made at first no attempt to interfere in the internal troubles of France, and refused to take part in the first coalition against her. In the spring of 1792 Pitt reduced the navy, remitted taxation, and confidently looked forward to fifteen years of peace. In the autumn of the same year the position of affairs was entirely different. The French had expelled their invaders, and proceeded to annex Savoy, and to conquer Belgium, which they threatened to incorporate with France. The Convention offered the aid of the French arms to all people desirous of liberty, and French ministers intrigued with the disaffected party in Great Britain and Ireland. Pitt vigorously protested against the annexation of Belgium and the opening of the Scheldt, called out the militia, and introduced bills to subject aliens in Great Britain to strict supervision, and to prevent the export of corn and war materials to France. The French government refused any concession on the two questions of Belgium and the Scheldt, and protested against Pitt's precautionary measures. In the midst of negotiations on the subject, the execution of Louis XVI took place (January 21, 1793), and the government at once ordered the French minister to leave England. Pitt attempted to continue negotiations in spite of this, but on the first of February the French government declared war. Great Britain sent 30,000 men to the Netherlands under the command of the Duke of York. The Austrian victory of Neerwinden (March 18) had forced the French to retreat, and the allied troops spent the summer in besieging the frontier fortresses. In August the Duke of York laid siege to Dunkirk, but was forced to raise it again with the loss of his artillery. An expedition sent to the Norman coast to assist the Vendéans arrived too late, and another which occupied Toulon in August was forced to abandon it in December. Next year the allies were still more unfortunate. The French reconquered Belgium, and during the winter the Duke of York was driven out of Holland, and the Prince of Orange obliged to fly to England. Lord Howe's great victory of June 1, the conquest of numerous West Indian islands, and the revolt of Corsica, were a partial compensation for these defeats. In 1795 the coalition broke up altogether. Prussia made the Peace of Basel (April), and began thereby a neutrality which lasted for eleven years. Spain made peace on July 22, to be followed a year later by an offensive and defensive alliance with France, and a declaration of war against Great Britain (October 1796). The smaller powers mostly followed the example of these two nations, and the burden of the war henceforth rested on Great Britain, Austria, and Sardinia. The year 1795 was marked by the failure of two British expeditions, one to Quiberon, the other to the coast of La Vendée. On the other hand, the alliance of Holland with France resulted in the British conquest of the Cape of Good Hope (September 16). The continental war, the next year, was decisive; Bonaparte's Italian campaign more than counterbalanced the reverses of Moreau and Jourdan in Germany. In May the King of Sardinia withdrew from the coalition. In March Great Britain made an unsuccessful peace overture, which was followed in October by the dispatch of Lord Malmesbury to Paris, to negotiate a general peace. Great Britain offered to restore all her colonial conquests, and demanded a similar restoration of the French conquests. Above all it refused to admit the annexation of Belgium to France, and the rupture of the negotiations followed.

The year 1796 ended with an abortive attempt to land a French army in Ireland. The year 1797 brought the danger of invasion nearer still. In April Austria signed the preliminaries of Leoben, which were, in October, converted into the Treaty of Campo Formio. Great Britain was left to carry on the war alone, and that in a very unfavourable position. The Funds had sunk to little more than fifty, and in February cash payments had to be suspended, whilst in May and June the mutinies of the fleet made Great Britain for some weeks defenceless. The French government had formed the design of uniting the Spanish and Dutch fleets to their own fleet at Brest, and so sweeping the British fleet from the Channel, and rendering a landing possible. But the two victories of St. Vincent (February 14) and Camperdown (October 11) frustrated this plan; and though Bonaparte made some preparations for an invasion of England, he preferred the less perilous expedition to Egypt (May 1798). A month after his landing, Nelson, by the victory of the Nile, destroyed his fleet and cut him off from France (August 1). Renewed acts of aggression by the Directory in Switzerland and Italy, Bonaparte's absence, and Nelson's victory, made the formation of a new coalition possible. In 1799 the combined armies of Austria and Russia drove the French out of Italy; but General Masséna successfully defeated the Austro-Russian invasion of Switzerland, and General Brune repulsed an Anglo-Russian expedition to Holland. Bonaparte's return to France was followed by the overthrow of the Directory (November 1799), and an immediate resumption of the offensive. In 1800 Austria was attacked both in Italy and Germany, and the victories of Marengo (June 14), and Hohenlinden (December 3), were followed by the Peace of Lunéville (February 9, 1801). Great Britain was again left to carry on the war alone, for Russia had quitted the coalition, and made a dispute about the right of search the foundation of a maritime league (December 1800), which renewed the Armed

Neutrality (q.v.) of 1780. This league consisted of Denmark, Sweden, and Russia, but it was almost immediately broken up by the battle of Copenhagen (April 2, 1801) and the death of the Emperor of Russia (March 23). Two days before, a British expedition had defeated the French at Alexandria, and the conquest of Egypt, with the surrender of 24,000 French soldiers, soon followed. Though Bonaparte still threatened an invasion of England, and collected troops and gunboats at Boulogne, the British supremacy at sea rendered it merely a threat. Both countries were ready to come to terms. The negotiations at Paris, in 1796, had been followed by similar negotiations at Lille in 1797, and the British government had declined to treat in answer to Napoleon's overture in December 1800. But this, the fourth attempt to bring about an understanding, was more fortunate. The preliminaries of peace were signed in October 1801, and the treaty was finally ratified on March 27, 1802. By the Treaty of Amiens (q.v.), Great Britain surrendered all her conquests except Trinidad and Ceylon. It was agreed that Malta should be restored to the knights of St. John, but as the renewed aggressions of Napoleon gradually made it evident that it would speedily be seized by France, the British government refused to surrender the island. They believed that Napoleon meant to make Malta the stepping-stone for a new attack on Egypt, and Egypt the starting-point for an attack on India. War was declared on May 18, 1803. A French army under Marshal Mortier easily overran Hanover. A great flotilla and army were assembled by Napoleon at Boulogne for the invasion of England, and in December 1804 the rupture between Great Britain and Spain placed an additional navy at his disposal. His plan for effecting a landing was based on the union of the three fleets of Toulon, Rochefort, and Brest, with the Spanish fleet, in order to secure the command of the Channel. Meanwhile a third coalition was being formed. In April 1805 an offensive and defensive alliance between Great Britain and Russia took place, and the league was completed by the accession of Austria (August), Sweden (August), and Naples. The naval combination fell through, and the Toulon fleet, which had succeeded in uniting with the Spaniards, was destroyed with them at Trafalgar (October 21, 1805); but the coalition was shattered by the capitulation of Ulm (October 19), and the defeat of Austerlitz (December), followed by the Treaty of Presburg (December 26). In England the Addington ministry, which had commenced the war, had been superseded in May 1804 by the return of Pitt to power.

Pitt's death (January 23, 1806) led to the formation of a ministry under Grenville, which opened negotiations with Napoleon. But Napoleon's continental policy rendered peace impossible. Just as the Directory had surrounded France with subject republics, so he wished to surround himself with vassal princes. One brother was established in Holland, and another became King of Naples, and the organization of the Confederation of the Rhine founded his rule in Germany. Russia's declaration of war (October 1, 1806) was answered by the victory of Jena (October 14), and the army of Russia, after the doubtful battle of Eylau (February 8), met with a severe defeat at Friedland (June 14).

The British ministry sent expeditions to Sicily (July 1806), South America (February–July 1807), Egypt (March 1807), and the Dardanelles (February 1807), but these useless diversions gave no real aid to the common cause. The Peace of Tilsit (July 1807) put an end to the fourth coalition, and enabled Napoleon to turn the forces of the continent against Great Britain. By the Decrees of Berlin (November 21, 1806) and Milan (December 17, 1807) he prohibited all direct or indirect trade with the British Isles. The secondary states, which still remained neutral or allied with Great Britain, were to be forced to adopt the same system, and to place their naval forces at his disposal. With the aid of Russia, Sweden was forced to adhere to the continental system, and a combined Spanish and French army occupied Portugal (November 1807). Denmark, after a British expedition had obliged it to surrender its fleet (September 1807), allied itself with France. But for the success of Napoleon's schemes, the mere alliance with Spain was not sufficient. In order to make use of the vast resources and great colonies, which misgovernment made of little value, he needed the complete control of Spain, and this he sought to secure by placing his brother Joseph on the Spanish throne (June 1808). With the insurrection which in consequence broke out in Spain, begins a new period in the history of the wars which sprang out of the Revolution. Hitherto, they had been the wars of states; henceforth they were to be the wars of nations. The idea of nationality inspired the peoples of Europe, and became the strongest support of its rulers in their resistance to France. Austria, fired by the example of Spain, took up arms again (April 1809), but it could not rouse Germany to revolt, and after the battles of Aspern (May 22) and Wagram (July 6) was obliged to sign a ruinous peace at Vienna (October 14, 1809). Great Britain seized the opportunity of the Spanish revolt. In the summer of 1808 a British corps expelled the French from Portugal, whilst another advanced to take part in the defence of Spain, but was forced to retreat and re-embark, after winning a battle at Corunna (January 16, 1809). The British government, however, instead of concentrating its strength on the war in Spain, wasted 40,000 men in a useless expedition to Walcheren. But, in spite of inefficient support, Sir Arthur Wellesley was able to recover Portugal (1809), and to maintain himself there, in 1810 and 1811, against repeated attacks. [Peninsular War.] In April 1812

war began between Napoleon and Russia, and in the same month Lord Wellington captured the border fortress of Badajoz, and assumed the offensive in Spain. The news of his victory at Salamanca (July 22) reached the French headquarters the day before the battle of Borodino (September 7), and about a month before the French entered Moscow the British army occupied Madrid (August 12—September 14, 1812). Wellington raised the siege of Burgos on October 18, and on the 19th Napoleon quitted Moscow. The enthusiasm of the German people forced their sovereigns to take up arms. Russia was joined by Prussia (March 1, 1813), Sweden (March 3), and Austria, and the battle of Leipzig (October 16–18) freed Germany, as that of Vitoria did Spain (June 20).

Whilst Wellington crossed the Bidassoa in September, and established his winter quarters in the south of France, the allied armies began the passage of the Rhine on the last day of 1813. After a campaign which lasted three months, Paris was taken, and Napoleon abdicated (April 1814). The brother of Louis XVI was called to the French throne (as Louis XVIII), and France reduced, with some small exceptions, to the limits of 1792. The allied sovereigns, at the Congress of Vienna, were still disputing about the settlement of Europe, when Napoleon seized the opportunity which the discontent of the nation afforded and re-entered France (March 1, 1815). The four great powers immediately re-formed the coalition against him (March 25), and the battle of Waterloo (June 18) was followed by his second abdication, and his exile to St. Helena. By the second Treaty of Paris (November 20) France was sentenced to pay indemnities and expenses amounting to more than 60 millions, to a further loss of territory, and to a five years' occupation of her border fortresses.

Europe was reorganized by the Treaties of Vienna. The great states issued from the wars of the Revolution more powerful and more compact. The republics of Poland, Venice, and Genoa, the ecclesiastical states and most of the smaller principalities of Germany, had been absorbed by stronger neighbours. But the sovereigns and statesmen who arranged the rewards and compensations due to states disregarded the claims of peoples. The Revolution had drawn its force and its proselytizing power from the general desire for political freedom; the opposition to the Empire had been inspired by the desire for an independent national existence. Neither of these feelings was satisfied by the Vienna settlement, and so it was not permanent.

During the same period Great Britain had grown greater outside Europe. In the West it had acquired a few more sugar islands; in the East it had excluded French influence from India, and greatly extended its own power in that country. It had also acquired the outposts and approaches of India, Ceylon, the Mauritius, the Cape, and Malta. But these accessions of territory had been gained at the cost of crushing taxation, and by the addition of more than 600 millions to the national debt.

Sir C. Oman, "Peninsular War," 1902–20; J. W. Fortescue, "History of British Army," vols. 4–11, 1906–23; W. H. Fitchett, "How England saved Europe," 1899; J. H. Clapham, "Causes of the War of 1792," 1900; A. T. Mahan, "Influence of Sea Power on the French Revolution," 1892; biographies of Wellington (q.v.), Nelson (q.v.), and of Napoleon by J. Holland Rose, 1901 and 1921, and Emil Ludwig, 1926; etc. [C. H. F.]

Frendraught, The Burning of (October 8, 1630). A reconciliation had just taken place at Strathbogie between the Gordons and their enemies, the Crichtons, who were escorted home by Viscount Aboyne, Robert Gordon, and others. Pressed to remain at Frendraught for the night, the Gordons were burnt to death in the tower by accident or (as was strongly suspected at the time, though on insufficient evidence) by design.

P. Hume Brown, "History of Scotland," 1911.

Frere, Sir Henry Bartle Edward (1815–84), entered the Indian Civil Service in 1834. In 1847 he became British resident at Sattara, and in 1850 chief commissioner of Sind. In 1862 he was appointed governor of Bombay, and in 1867 he returned to England and was made a member of the Indian Council. In 1872 he was sent to the east coast of Africa to inquire into the slave trade, and the following year signed a treaty with the Sultan of Zanzibar abolishing the traffic. In 1877 he was made governor of the Cape and high commissioner for South Africa. Here his policy, especially in declaring war against Cetewayo, earned him the censure of the home government, and he was superseded in the high commissionership, and eventually recalled in 1880. His personal integrity, however, was undoubted.

Life by W. B. Worsfold, 1923, and J. Martineau, 1894.

Frere, John Hookham (1769–1846), a literary man of some note, a friend of Canning and his partner in the *Anti-Jacobin*, was sent on various embassies and political missions of importance. Besides a mission to Lisbon, he was twice Spanish minister during the critical period of the dealings of Ferdinand VII and Napoleon. The failure of Sir John Moore was, in public opinion, largely attributable to Frere's advice; and his recall from Spain ended his public life.

G. Festing, "Frere and his Friends," 1899.

Frescobaldi, The, were Florentine bankers who advanced money to Edward I and Edward II on the security of the customs, which they were allowed to collect. They became almost as unpopular as the Jews had been, and one of the ordinances of 1311 ordered their banishment from the country.

Friars, The, were members of orders founded in the thirteenth century in the Church, for the purpose of preaching among the people. Their example in early times was powerful,

but as they gained wealth they tended to sink into indolence. In the end of the twelfth century the preachers of the Waldensians, and other heretical sects, set forth a new idea of the religious life, as concerned with activity for the good of others. These sects were repressed; but their conceptions were fruitful, and the struggle against them convinced some ardent minds of the need of active preaching amongst the people. Francis of Assisi, in Italy, began in 1207 to gather round him a society animated by the principle of fervent love, which was to be carried out by entire self-sacrifice. His order rapidly spread, was provisionally sanctioned by Pope Innocent III in 1209, and was established by Honorius III in 1223. It was called the "Ordo Fratrum Minorum"; with it was associated a female order of St. Clara; and a third order, the Tertiaries, comprised those who, without abandoning their secular life, adopted a rule of penitence.

Contemporary with Francis, a Spaniard, Dominic, a canon of Osma, formed a society for the special purpose of preaching against heretics. In 1216 this order of the Friar Preachers was established by Honorius III, and adopted also the rule of evangelical poverty. Later came the order of Carmelites, so called because they were originally founded in the Holy Land, and dwelt in the seclusion of Mount Carmel. They had their rule of rigorous fasting, silence, and solitude, and were transplanted into Europe in 1238. Finally, the Eremites of St. Augustine, established in 1256, took their rise from the union of many cenobite establishments in Italy. All these orders followed the example of the Franciscans, in having Tertiaries, and in renouncing worldly possessions. They were often distinguished by the colours of their cloaks. The Carmelites were known as the White Friars, the Dominicans as the Black Friars, and the Franciscans as the Grey Friars. The survival of these names in London and many other English towns testifies to the extent of their settlements. The Dominicans and the Franciscans were by far the most important of these orders, and exercised great influence on the social and political development of England. The Dominicans came to England in 1221, the Franciscans in 1224.

The friars, in their early days, did a great work of social reform; and as this work grew under their hands, they felt the need for learning. Consequently the mendicants began to throng to the universities, and it was through the activity of the Franciscans that Oxford became famous throughout Europe. The first Franciscan provincial in England built a school in the Friary at Oxford, and prevailed on Robert Grosseteste (q.v.), afterwards Bishop of Lincoln, to lecture there. Grosseteste founded a school which was carried on by Adam Marsh, or de Marisco. [The special characteristic of this school was the endeavour to correct the exaggerated importance which mediæval thinkers attached to logical argument, by broadening the basis of positive knowledge through the study of languages, mathematics, and physical science. The most famous product of the school was Roger Bacon (q.v.). The attempt was only partially successful. Theology, to which all sciences were supposed to lead, tended to follow the narrower lines laid down by St. Thomas Aquinas. The Dominicans in England as elsewhere confined themselves generally to expounding and defending the views of St. Thomas. The Franciscans developed on freer lines, and nearly all the leading Franciscan thinkers belonged to the province of England. Alexander of Hales (*d.* 1245) was the first to bring the philosophical writings of Aristotle into systematic relation to Christian theology; Duns Scotus (*d.* 1308) and William of Ockham (*d.* 1348) agreed in criticizing the attempt of Aquinas to establish harmony between theology and philosophy, but differed in their general outlook—Duns Scotus, the chief of the new realists, holding that ideas were the ultimate realities, Ockham, "the prince of nominalists," maintaining that the ultimate reality was the individual thing. Ockham's nominalism, first expounded when he was a young B.D. at Oxford, by degrees spread to all universities and dominated scholastic thought for the next two centuries.]

The immediate influence of the revival of theology under the friars in England was greatly felt in the constitutional struggles of the reign of Henry III. Bishop Grosseteste and Adam de Marisco were the chief counsellors of Simon de Montfort. The teaching of the friars gave a religious basis to the theory of the relations between king and people, on which the struggle was founded. They set forth the responsibility of the king to God, his duty to rule for the good of his people, his obligation to listen to the advice of the community, and to govern according to its will. The Latin poem on the battle of Lewes (Wright, "Political Songs," 72, *The Song of Lewes*, ed. Kingsford, 1890) sets forth in striking language the political views of the friars. Moreover, these opinions were not confined to the closet. They were spread by the preaching of the friars amongst all classes, especially in the towns. The friars wandered from place to place, gathered a crowd around them in the open air, and in homely language, with rude illustrations, poured forth a discourse in which the condition of current affairs was used as a motive for amendment of life and as a call to repentance. The friars greatly influenced popular opinion, and secured popular support to the cause of the barons against the king. The summons of representatives of towns to parliament by Simon de Montfort, in 1264, was a recognition of the quickened political life which was largely due to the activity of the friars.

As the importance of the friars increased, their zeal diminished. Their rule of strict poverty was gradually modified, till there arose a schism in the Franciscan order between the

more rigid party of the Spiritual Franciscans and the laxer party, which was supported by Pope John XXII (1317). In the course of the conflict William of Ockham attacked the pope, and proceeded with keen logic to examine the limitations of the papal headship over the Church. The democratic spirit of the Franciscans was turned for a time even against the papacy, which it had at first laboured to exalt. Moreover, the friars raised against themselves the hostility of the other monastic orders, who struggled to check their growing importance, and were aided by the secular clergy. This conflict raged chiefly in the universities, where the friars possessed themselves of the professorial chairs. When this battle had been won by the friars, the struggle continued between the Dominicans and Franciscans, till gradually the Dominicans took a sphere of their own apart from the Franciscans. They were left in possession of the Inquisition, and gradually lost the character of a mendicant order. The Franciscans were then left to work amongst the masses, and strove to increase their influence by pious frauds, and by superstitious inducements, that they might lead their penitents to bequeath money for charitable purposes.

The opposition to the mendicants in England was brought to a head by Richard Fitz-Ralph, Archbishop of Armagh (1350), who attacked their principle that mendicancy was practised by Christ and the Apostles, and also pointed out the mischief that they did ("Defensorium Curatorum," in Brown, "Fasciculus Rerum," ii, 466, etc.). They overrode the parish priest, invaded his parish, heard confessions, and granted absolution on easy terms. Ecclesiastical discipline was subverted that the mendicants might be enriched. Children were enticed from their homes and induced to join the order. So great was the influence of the mendicants at Oxford, that parents were afraid to send their sons there lest they should be entrapped by them. From this time we find many complaints against the mendicants. They worked for their own interests, and were despised by the more reflecting people. The Prologue of the "Vision of Piers the Plowman" (about 1377) says:

> "I fonde there Freris, alle the foure ordres,
> Preched the peple, for profit of hem-selven,
> Glosed the gospel, as hem good lyked,
> For coveitise of copis, construed it as thei wolde."

The picture of the friar in the prologue to Chaucer's "Canterbury Tales" shows with humour the ordinary character of the friar. The friars were attacked by Wyclif in 1381, when he entered upon his breach with the doctrinal system of the Church. At first he had more sympathy with them than with the "possessionati," the monks who held property. He attacked them chiefly because they were the staunchest adherents of the papacy. The friars in return were the bitterest opponents of the Lollards. During the fifteenth century the friars ceased to have any special influence or importance.

Brewer, "Monumenta Franciscana"; Grosseteste, "Epistolæ" (ed. Luard); A. G. Little, "Studies in English Franciscan History," 1917; "Tractatus Fr. Thomæ de Eccleston" (transl. by Miss Salter, "The Coming of the Friars to England and Germany"); B. Jarrett, "The English Dominicans"; Green, "History of the English People"; Milman, "Latin Christianity." A full account of the friars is given by Wadding, "Annales Fratrum Minorum"; and Mamachius, "Annales Ordinis Prædicatorum."

[M. C.] [G. A. G. L.]

Friend, Sir John (*d.* 1696), was a Jacobite conspirator in the reign of William III. He was given a colonel's commission by James, and enlisted men against the day when the French should appear in Kent (1696), but refused to take any share in the infamous Assassination Plot (q.v.), although he kept the secret. On the discovery of the conspiracy, he was tried, harshly denied the assistance of counsel, and, refusing to betray his confederates to a committee of the House of Commons, was executed on April 3.

Friends, The Society of, known in law and general usage as Quakers, was founded by George Fox (1624–91), son of a Leicestershire weaver. [Fox, George.] Though of little education, Fox had a deep knowledge of the Bible, and in an age of religious ferment he set less store on formulation of doctrine than on a principle which would overcome temptation. Agonized as was his search for this, he makes almost no confession of yielding to temptation. In a time when men based their religious belief on outward authority, either of Church or Bible, Fox came to take his stand on the assurance of the inward witness, the divine principle or *that of God* in all men as he expressed it. Contrary to the accepted belief of the time, he asserted that to the heathen who had never heard of the Scriptures or of Christ in the flesh a measure of this Divine Light or Seed or Spirit was given, and, as they were obedient to it, salvation was granted to them as to those who had fuller knowledge. Three typical sentences from his writings sum up his position: "Honouring all men is reaching that of God in every man"; "Who walk in the way that lives, they answer the principle of God in every man"; "Mind that which is pure in you to guide you to God." His teaching, differing from the barren theological strife of the time, came as a word of life to thousands of men and women in all classes of society and of all degrees of education. The two best known exponents of it are William Penn (q.v.) and Robert Barclay. In early life Fox performed three or four acts of fanaticism, but otherwise he showed great wisdom in the necessary organization of the Quaker body, and a certain charm of personality gave him power of leadership free from domination. The Society of Friends holds as one of its chief tenets that in the presence of evil the appeal to *that of God* in the evil-doer, and his conversion, are of more importance than self-protection, even

though the following out of this way will probably involve suffering; and that war, the outcome and in its turn the cause of all that is contrary to the mind of Christ, is therefore unlawful for the Christian. The question turns on the standard of value which each one sets up. The Quaker counts as unlawful the confirmation of a statement by an oath, inasmuch as this sets up a double standard of truth: "People swear to the end they might speak truth," said Penn, "Christ would have them speak truth to the end they might not swear." The society has never practised the outward rites of baptism and Holy Communion, but lays stress on the reality of the experience which these are intended to convey. It holds that in time of worship the limitation of ministry to one man is a limitation of the Holy Spirit, and its meetings are held without arrangement, on a basis of silence in the course of which it is open to any man or woman to speak words of ministry or prayer. The intervening times of silence are not a mere waiting for someone to speak, but are times of worship equally with those in which words are uttered. All meetings for worship are open to the public. In the meetings for conducting the business of the church there is no applause or noise of dissent, no scoring of debating points, and no voting; the "clerk" (combined chairman and secretary) announces what he considers to be the mind of the meeting and draws up a minute of record, or, in the face of a fairly even division of opinion, he, with the consent of the meeting, adjourns the discussion. The method may be slow, but sooner or later a decision is come to which commends itself to the spiritual witness of the meeting generally. It is, in fact, remarkable how well the method works. From earliest times to the present the society has taken a lead in philanthropic enterprise, the most conspicuous example of this being its efforts, along with Wilberforce and others, for the abolition of the slave trade and of slavery. In the management of their communities, as councillors, guardians, members of education committees, etc., Friends take a large share in proportion to their numbers. In science and in medicine the society has contributed to England far more than its fair share of eminent men; in historical and other branches of scholarship a few have been prominent. It numbers (1927) in Great Britain about 20,000, including the children of Friends, who are counted as members. Hence the society includes a number of merely nominal members, and it is necessary when any statement is made about a "Quaker" (as, for instance, that he has joined the army) to know whether his Quakerism consists in the fact that at his birth his name was put on the list of members and has never been taken off. There are about 120,000 in America, divided into various branches, not always in unity with one another, and some hundreds in Europe, Australia, South Africa, and at various mission stations.

Histories of the Friends by W. C. Braithwaite, 1919, R. M. Jones, 1921, E. Emmott, T. E. Harvey, and A. N. Brayshaw. For an exposition of principles, the works of R. M. Jones, E. Grubb, J. W. Graham, and W. E. Wilson; also the series of Swarthmore Lectures, and the Society's publications.

"Friends of Ireland," The, were a society founded by O'Connell in 1830, to promote the repeal of the Union. They were declared illegal by the Irish government; but, though dissolved, at once took a new shape as the Society of Irish Volunteers. This too was dissolved, in accordance with the Coercion Act of 1833.

B. Ward, "Sequel to Catholic Emancipation," 1915.

Frilings. The name of the middle division of the old German tribes, corresponding in England with the *ceorls* (q.v.), i.e., the fully free but non-noble.

Frisians, The, were a Low German tribe who are said to have made settlements on the Firth of Forth, which Nennius calls the Frisian Sea. Small numbers probably settled elsewhere in Northern Britain, but they were closely akin to the Anglo-Saxons and were readily absorbed by them.

Frith, in Anglo-Saxon law, answers to the later phrase, "the king's peace." It was enforced by national officers, and any breach of it was considered a contempt of the king, and punished by a fine. The frith was a personal, not a territorial, peace.

Frith-gild was the name given to certain gilds or clubs established during or before the reign of King Athelstan, for the maintenance of peace, the repression of theft, the tracing of stolen cattle, and the indemnification of the parties robbed, by means of a common fund raised by subscription of the members. These gilds took the place of the old organization of the family, as is shown by the wergild being in certain cases paid to the gild-brethren instead of, as in earlier times, to the family of the murdered man. The statutes of these gilds are contained in the "Judicia Civitatis Londoniæ" set forth in the reign of Athelstan, under royal authority, by the bishop and reeves of the city. [Gilds.]

Frobisher, Sir Martin (1535 ?–94), one of the great navigators of the Elizabethan period, set sail in 1576 with the object of discovering the North-West Passage, and in 1578 endeavoured, though ineffectually, to found a settlement north of Hudson Bay. Seven years later he accompanied Sir Francis Drake on his voyage to the West Indies, and in 1588 did good service against the Spanish Armada. He was killed in action whilst trying to capture the fort of Crozon, near Brest, on behalf of Henry IV of France, from the combined Spanish and League armies.

Frobisher's own account of his "Three Voyages to find the New Passage," has been edited by the Hakluyt Society, 1867.

Froissart, Jean (1338–1410 ?), the historian, was born at Valenciennes, and was most likely the son of a merchant. From his childhood he was destined for the Church, but soon distinguished himself by poetry which secured him the patronage of John of Hainault, father-in-law of Edward III. In 1356 he went on his first visit to England, and five years later returned to enter the service of Queen Philippa. In 1366 Froissart returned to Flanders and began the composition of his famous "Chronicles." He became, about 1374, the chaplain of Guy de Châtillon, Count of Blois, whom he accompanied in many journeys and expeditions, during which he collected further material for his history. He made his last visit to England in 1395. His chronicle is vigorously and picturesquely written, and has perhaps been more widely read than any other history of his day. It is original, however, only after 1361, before which date it is based on the earlier chronicle of John le Bel; and its value for the later period is unequal.

Froissart, "Chroniques," ed. Kervyn de Lettenhove, 20 vols.; and Siméon Luce, 1869, etc. The "Chronicles" have been translated into English by Lord Berners, 1525, and by Johnes in 1805.

Frontinus, Sextus Julius, was sent by Vespasian into Britain in A.D. 74, where he conquered the Silures. He was succeeded by Agricola. He was a writer on military and agricultural subjects.

Tacitus, "Agricola."

Fuentes d'Onoro, The Battle of (May 5, 1811), was fought during the Peninsular War between the British, under Wellington, and the French, under Masséna. Masséna advanced, with 45,000 men, to relieve Almeida, which Wellington was blockading. Though in command of hardly more than 37,000 men, the latter resolved to fight rather than give up the blockade. Operations extended over two days. On the first, the approach of night prevented anything decisive; but next day, Masséna, newly reinforced, made his great attack. After a hard-fought day, the French slowly withdrew at evening out of gunshot; but there was no retreat. The capture of Almeida was secured by this check on Masséna.

Sir C. Oman, "Peninsular War," 1902–20.

Fulford, The Battle of (1066), between the Earls Edwin and Morcar and Harold Hardrada and Tostig, resulted in the defeat of the English, and the acceptance by the men of York of Harold Hardrada as their king. Fulford is on the Ouse, about two miles south of York.

E. A. Freeman, "Norman Conquest," 1867–71.

Fuller, William (1670–1717 ?), was an informer, who attempted, in 1691, to revive the trade of Titus Oates by pretending a Jacobite conspiracy; but no one listened to him, and he was put in the pillory. He tried the same method in 1701, with even greater discomfiture. When the Tories came into power he was sentenced to be flogged, pilloried, and fined; and being imprisoned in default of payment, he died in prison, probably in 1717.

Furruckabad, The Battle of (November 17, 1804), resulted in a victory for the British, under Lord Lake, over Holkar with a great army of 60,000 men. The British casualties amounted to twenty-eight.

Fyrd was the national militia of the early English. On every free man, by virtue of his allegiance, military service was imperative. In Tacitus's time, the host of the Germans was simply the gathering of the whole nation in arms. It continued the same to a late period. But as the state grew in extent, the difficulty of collecting the whole fyrd together became very great, and, practically, this was hardly ever done. The array of the fyrd of each shire was left to the ealdorman, and the fyrd of the shire was the shire-moot in arms. It was more often the fyrd of one or two shires, which had local cohesion, that gained glory by stout fighting, than the larger aggregations of the popular army; for example, Brihtnoth's famous fight with the Danes at Maldon. But the cumbrous nature of the fyrd system led to its gradual supersession, even before the Conquest. The feudal thegnhood, with their retainers, the mercenary *huscarls* of Canute, illustrate the earliest developments of those baronial and stipendiary forces which ultimately were to make the national force obsolete. Yet William I called out the fyrd more than once, and Rufus branded as *nithings* those who refused to come, and cheated the fyrd out of their moneys for maintenance. At Northallerton the fyrd of the northern counties repelled the Scottish invasion; and it was the national militia that saved Henry II from the feudal coalition of 1173. Henry's Assize of Arms entirely recognized the principle. Under Henry III and Edward I the fyrd was revived, and made useful by the Statutes of Winchester, and the system of Watch and Ward. The growth of the art of war made such expedients obsolete in their turn; but the militia of modern times, with its quasi-compulsory service, and until recently the *posse comitatus*, which, in theory, could be convoked by the sheriff, continued the principle at the root of the fyrd down to modern times. [T. F. T.]

Fyrdwite was the penalty for neglecting to serve in the fyrd.

G

Ga, the old English form of the High Dutch *gau*, occurs, though rarely, in early constitutional history. Like gau, it must correspond to the *pagus*. Some have contrasted the natural ga with the artificial shire or division. The southern counties of England are of the ga type—of very ancient origin, and built on national or tribal distinctions. The Mercian

shires appear mere administrative "departments" of later date. [COUNTIES, THE ENGLISH.]

Gaderi, THE, were an ancient British tribe inhabiting an area including the western part of Northumberland, the part of Cumberland north of the Irthing, the western part of Roxburghshire, the county of Selkirk with Tweeddale, a great part of Mid-Lothian, and nearly all West Lothian.

Gaekwar, or GUICOWAR, is the title of the sovereign of the Mahratta state of Baroda. [MAHRATTAS.]

Gael, the English form of Gaidhel, is used in two senses—(1) as the name of the great branch of the Celtic stock, including Highlanders, Irish, Manx, and representing the first wave of Celtic invasion of these islands; (2) as the name given to the Scottish Highlanders. Rhŷs suggested that the term Gael should be used only in this restricted sense, and that the archaic form Goidel, by which every tribe of this stock has known itself as far back as we can trace, should be used for the wider term. [CELTS; PICTS; SCOTS; BRITONS.]

Gafol-land (Gafol = tribute) was land let out to rent.

Gage, SIR JOHN (1479–1556), was appointed one of the council to assist the executors of Henry VIII, 1547, during the minority of Edward VI, and became in the next reign a valued supporter of Queen Mary, for whom he did good service during Wyatt's rebellion. During the imprisonment of the Princess Elizabeth in the Tower, 1555, Gage acted as her jailer.

Gage, GENERAL THOMAS (1721–87), was the second son of Viscount Gage. In 1774 he was appointed governor of Massachusetts in succession to Thomas Hutchinson (q.v.). He did his best in this difficult position to prevent an actual outbreak of hostilities, and instituted a conciliatory policy. His hand was forced, however, despite his efforts to maintain peace. The delegates at Philadelphia set his authority at defiance, and, when Gage recalled the writs for the assembling of the representatives, they met in spite of him, and enrolled the "minute men." Still Gage refused to resort to coercion, though he fortified Boston Neck and thus commanded the town. In April 1775 he sent a body of troops to destroy some stores collected at Concord. The colonists opposed the troops, and the first blood of the War of Independence was shed at Lexington. The people at once flocked to arms in numbers, which terrified Gage into inactivity; but in May reinforcements arrived under Howe, Burgoyne, and Clinton, and Gage at once issued a proclamation offering a general pardon, and declaring martial law to prevail. This, however, failed to attain its object; and on June 17 Gage took decisive action in the battle of Bunker Hill (q.v.). The victory was not followed up, and on Washington's arrival the British were blockaded in Boston. In October Gage resigned his command to Sir William Howe (q.v.), and returned to England. He was very much blamed by the government for not taking active measures earlier.

"Gagging Acts" is a name popularly assigned to the measures of reactionary periods interfering with freedom of speech, or writing, or public meetings. Such were the acts of 1795 against seditious meetings, and one of the Six Acts of 1819 against public assemblies and cheap political pamphlets. The name has also been applied to a long string of Irish measures of coercion.

Gaika (*d.* 1829), a Kafir chief, was regarded by the British government as the ruler of Kafirland; and it was through interference on his behalf by the governor of Cape Colony that the Kafir War of 1818 was brought on. In 1822 a treacherous attempt made by the colonists to seize this chief almost led to another war.

Gainas, THE, were an Anglian tribe occupying the northern part of Lincolnshire. From them the name of Gainsborough is derived.

Galgacus, a Caledonian chief, offered a desperate resistance to Agricola on his famous expedition into the north of modern Scotland (80–4).

Tacitus, "Agricola."

Gallipoli, EXPEDITION TO, 1915. [DARDANELLES EXPEDITION.]

Galloway, the same word as Galway, i.e., land of the Gael, is (1) in its widest sense equivalent to the south-western district of Scotland, but (2) is more generally used in a narrower sense to include the small Goidelic settlement, isolated among the Brythons of Strathclyde, or Cumbria, that included the modern shires of Wigton and Kirkcudbright and part of Dumfries. A range of hills and moors cut Galloway off on the north and partly on the east, while the sea formed its boundary on the south and west. Some have regarded the presence of this intrusive Goidelic colony as the result of an invasion from Ireland, similar to that which conquered Dalriada (Argyllshire), but the general theory is that it was a survival of the earlier branch of the Celts, forced westward by the invading Brythons. In Roman times the Novantæ held this region. They are, probably, the same as the later "Picts of Galloway," though what was their precise connexion with the Picts proper it is hard to define. With all Cumbria, Galloway became, in the seventh century, dependent on the Angles of Northumbria; but long after Strathclyde had regained its freedom, it remained, at least nominally, subject to the decaying state. In Bæda's time Ninian's old bishopric of Whithern (Candida Casa) was still

an English see, till a long break in the line of bishops, after 796, marks the revival of the native race. Thus Galloway preserved its separate identity against English, Cumbrian, and Scot, and in the twelfth century was still "terra Pictorum," and its inhabitants formed a separate division in the Scottish army at the Battle of the Standard, distinct even from the "Cumbrenses." Their restless vigour was equally shown in their constant resistance to the encroachments of the Norman barons, which English and Scottish kings equally favoured. On the whole, Galloway leant on England to avoid the nearer danger from Scotland. The revived see of Whithern depended on York till the fourteenth century, and Fergus, Prince of Galloway, sought in vain, by a marriage connexion with Henry I, to avoid his country's subjection to Malcolm Canmore. In 1174 the captivity of William the Lion led to the revolt of Uchtred MacFergus. Again, in 1185, the rising of another son of Fergus, Gilbert, was suppressed, and Henry II, tired of the double dealing of the Gallwegians, handed them over to Scotland. Yet Alan of Galloway acts as an English baron; his name appears in Magna Carta, and his daughters married Norman nobles. This last step completed the subjection of the state. On Alan's death his sons-in-law divided the land, and with the help of Alexander II put down the last native rising. The acquisition of the throne by Baliol, grandson of Alan, through his mother Devorguilla, perhaps facilitated its absorption. Yet, even in Buchanan's time, a part of Galloway used its Celtic speech, though it must very soon after have become extinct.

P. Hume Brown, "History of Scotland," 1911; C. S. Terry, "History of Scotland," 1920.

Gallowglass (Gallóglaigh). A name given to the mercenary soldiers recruited by the Irish from among the Norse-Gaelic race of the isles and coasts of Scotland, from the thirteenth century onwards. They served on foot, had defensive armour, and carried huge axes. They have been called "the Janissaries of Gaelic Ireland."

Galway, Henry de Massue de Ruvigny, Earl of (1648–1720). [Massue de Ruvigny.]

Gam, David (ap Llewelyn) (*d.* 1415), a Welsh chieftain, was one of the opponents of Owen Glyndwr, whom he is said, on no good authority, in 1402 to have attempted to assassinate. He was captured and imprisoned by Owen, and not released till 1412. In 1415 he raised a body of troops to assist Henry V in his French expedition, and fought most valiantly in the battle of Agincourt, where he was mortally wounded, and, according to one story, received the honour of knighthood as he was expiring on the field.

Gambia. [West Africa, British Dominions in.]

Gambier, James, Baron (1756–1833), was a distinguished admiral. In 1807 he commanded the fleet sent against Copenhagen, and in reward was created a baron. From 1808 to 1811 he commanded the Channel Fleet, during which time a court-martial acquitted him of any culpable share in the disaster of Aix roads.

H. G. M. Chatterton, "Memorial," 1860.

Game Laws. The earliest game laws were passed in the same period as the laws concerning vagrancy, and were due to the same causes. The first of these, that of 1389, after reciting that artificers and labourers keep dogs and go hunting on holy days in the parks and warrens of lords and others, enacted that no person not possessing land worth 40s. a year should keep a dog for hunting or use ferrets or nets to take game, under pain of a year's imprisonment. In 1494 any person taking pheasants or partridges without leave upon another's land was made liable to a penalty of £10, equivalent to £150 of present money. But this statute can never have been enforced, for an act of 1581 imposed a fine of 20s. for every pheasant and 10s. for every partridge taken in the night. In 1604 all shooting at game with gun or cross-bow was absolutely forbidden (apparently as unsportsmanlike) under a penalty of 20s. for each bird or hare, or imprisonment for three months in default; but persons qualified by birth or estate were allowed to course, and also to net pheasants and partridges. Five years later the property qualification was raised; hawking was forbidden during July and August, and pheasants and partridges were to be taken only between Michaelmas and Christmas—"take" being probably soon construed to include shooting. In 1670 owners were allowed to appoint gamekeepers; no persons save freeholders of £100 a year, 99-years' leaseholders of £150, or heirs-apparent of a squire and others of higher degree, were to possess guns, bows, or sporting dogs, and game-keepers were given the right of search. All these acts were repealed in 1832, and the only earlier statute still in force is that of 1828. This act for the first time made poaching *by night* a crime, instead of an offence followed merely by fine. Taking, or trespassing by night with intent to take game or rabbits was to be punished with imprisonment and hard labour not exceeding three months for the first offence; not exceeding six months for the second; and transportation for seven years or hard labour not exceeding two years for the third. Resistance with any weapon could be punished with transportation up to seven years; and if a party of three or more, of whom one was armed, were found trespassing by night for the purpose of taking game, each of them might be sentenced to transportation not exceeding fourteen years. The act of 1832 abolished all qualifications for sporting, and also the earlier prohibition of the

sale of game, and imposed new penalties for poaching *by day*, viz., a fine of £2 for trespassing in pursuit of game, and of £5 for resistance or refusal to give names. Thus, then, before 1832 the right to kill game was the privilege of a class, and after 1832 became an incident of ownership or possession as might be arranged between landlord and tenant. By the Ground Game Act of 1880 the occupier was given the right to kill hares and rabbits concurrently with the landlord, and was forbidden to contract himself out of this right. A close time for the sale of hares, to check their diminution, had consequently to be established in 1892.

Gamelin, Bishop of St. Andrews (*d.* 1271), was chancellor of Scotland at the beginning of the reign of Alexander III (1249); of this office he was deprived by the intrigues of Henry III, who feared him as a leader of the "national" party in Scotland. The English party subjected him to so much persecution that he sought redress at Rome, where the pope espoused his cause, and ordered the excommunication of Alan Durward and others of the young king's council. Eventually the triumph of Gamelin was complete. The national party secured the person of the young king and Durward fled to England (1257).

P. Hume Brown, "History of Scotland," 1911.

Gardiner, Stephen (1483 ?–1555), Bishop of Winchester, was a celebrated prelate and statesman. He was born at Bury St. Edmunds about 1483, and was educated at Trinity Hall, Cambridge, where he became doctor of laws in 1520. In 1525 he was elected to the mastership of his college, and he became chancellor of the university in 1540. To a man like Gardiner academic distinctions were far from being all-sufficing. He took a secretaryship in the family of the Duke of Norfolk, and shortly afterwards in the household of Cardinal Wolsey. In this latter employment he speedily obtained the confidence of the king, as well as of his more immediate master, a success which was soon followed by his admission into the royal council. In 1528 he was sent with Bishop Fox on an embassy to the pope, to negotiate the question as to the king's divorce from Katharine of Aragon, and his first preferment in the Church, that of the archdeaconry of Norfolk, was the reward for his tact and energy. On Wolsey's disgrace Gardiner was attached entirely to the king's service as secretary of state, and having succeeded, with the assistance of Bishop Fox, in persuading the University of Cambridge to pronounce formally against marriage with a brother's widow, in 1531, he was appointed to the archdeaconry of Leicester, and shortly after to the bishopric of Winchester. His book, "De Vera Obedientia" (1535), upheld the royal supremacy. For the rest of Henry's reign Gardiner was among the foremost of the conservative party in the council. Powerful during the reactionary years 1539–47, he lost ground just before Henry's death, and the king withdrew his name from his will, of which he had previously been appointed one of the executors. With the exception of a few months in the early part of the year 1548, Gardiner was a state prisoner throughout the whole of the reign of Edward VI. Several attempts were made to induce him to subscribe to terms of reconciliation with the party then in power, but all to no purpose, and in the spring of 1551 he was formally deprived of his see for disobedience and contempt of the king's authority. With the accession of Queen Mary in 1553, Gardiner's fortunes improved. He once again exercised his episcopal functions in performing the obsequies of the late king, and on August 23, 1553, he was made lord chancellor. Throughout the whole of Mary's reign he acted as her chief adviser in all civil matters, and his influence in the affairs of the Church was second only to that of Cardinal Pole. Gardiner's watchfulness enabled Mary to be beforehand with the risings that took place early in 1554, and Wyatt's revolt, being thus pushed into action prematurely, was suppressed with comparative ease, in spite of its formidable character. In his subsequent dealings with the presumed sympathizers of Wyatt, however, Gardiner's merciless rigour alienated from him the support of the more moderate members of Mary's council, and the feeling of coldness towards him thus originated changed at once to indignation and active hostility when he proposed that the Princess Elizabeth also should be sacrificed for her sister's more perfect security.

Much has been written for and against Gardiner in the matter of his treatment of the Reformers. It is, however, beyond question that the cruel measures of Mary's reign against the Protestant party were very largely of his devising. Gardiner died after a short illness, which seized him soon after opening parliament, on October 21, 1555, and which terminated in his death on November 12 following, at Whitehall. An Anglican under Henry, Gardiner became a Papist under Mary, after Edward's reign had demonstrated the futility of Henry's position. In "De Vera Obedientia" he had attacked the papal supremacy; in his "Palinodia Libri de Vera Obedientia" he set forth his change of opinion upon the matter.

J. A. Muller, "Stephen Gardiner and the Tudor Reaction," 1926.

Gargrave, Sir Thomas (1495–1579), knighted by Henry VIII for his services under Warwick during the Scots war of 1547, was Speaker in the first parliament of Elizabeth, in which capacity he read to the queen an address praying her to take a husband. He was vice-president of the Council of the North, and took an active part in suppressing the Rising of the Northern Earls in 1569.

Garnett, Henry (1555–1606), became a Jesuit in 1575, and in 1586 was made provincial of the order in England. He was executed in

1606 for complicity in the Gunpowder Plot (q.v.).

P. Sidney, "Gunpowder Plot," 1905.

Garter, The Order of the, was founded by Edward III, in or about the year 1348. The story which connects its foundation with the Countess of Salisbury's garter is, perhaps, the most plausible of the various current legends. The earliest associations of the order appear to have been with the tourney, which comprised two groups of twelve knights, under the leadership of the king and the Black Prince respectively. It ranks as the highest order of English knighthood, and consists to-day of not more than twenty-five knights, excepting members of the royal family and illustrious foreigners for whose admission special provision was made in the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries. The installations of the order are held in St. George's Chapel, Windsor, where the banners of the several knights are suspended. The badge of the order is a gold medallion, representing St. George and the Dragon, which is worn suspended by a blue ribbon. The garter is of dark-blue velvet, and is worn on the left leg below the knee.

Gascoigne, Sir William (*d.* 1419), was appointed one of the king's serjeants in 1397, and in 1400 was made chief justice of the King's Bench. In 1405 he refused, according to some authorities, to pronounce sentence of death on Archbishop Scrope; and his independence was still further shown, according to popular tradition, by his committal of the Prince of Wales to prison for striking him upon the bench. Whether these stories be true or not, it is certain that Gascoigne was not continued in the chief justiceship by Henry V. It is probable, however, that Gascoigne resigned of his own accord, since he was now an old man and had been long in office. Whatever the historical value of the traditions associated with his name, they testify to the high character he bore among his contemporaries as a just, upright, and fearless judge.

J. H. Wylie, "England Under Henry IV," 4 vols., 1884.

Gascony, The Duchy of, corresponded, roughly speaking, with the Roman province of Novem Populana. On the fall of the Empire it became part of the great West Gothic kingdom stretching from the Loire to the Straits of Gibraltar, but seems to have become more or less independent on the death of Clovis (511), though he and his sons overthrew the rival Teutonic powers in Gaul. Towards the end of this century the Basque tribes swarmed down from the Pyrenean slopes (587). These invaders, the Wascons or Vascons, have given the district its present name, and appear to have settled northwards of the Garonne. In 602 they recognized themselves as being tributary to the Frankish kings, and received a duke of their own, Genialis. About the year 636 Dagobert conquered them once more, though his successors found them always setting up their own dukes, whose sway reached from the Garonne to the Pyrenees. Charlemagne had, at the beginning of his reign, to contend against these disruptive forces of Lupus or Loup II. It was not until the later ninth century, it would appear, that the duchy of Gascony became hereditary. In 1073 the title of Duke of Gascony passed finally over to the house of Poitiers, dukes of Aquitaine, and from this time its history must be read in connexion with the last-mentioned country. Soon after the marriage of Eleanor, daughter of William X, Duke of Aquitaine, to Henry of Anjou (1152), it became part of the English possessions in France. After the loss of Normandy, Anjou, Maine, and Touraine, it still remained an English dependency, but daily became less firmly attached to the English crown. Moreover, it was divided against itself, its great nobles as a rule adhering to French, and its great cities to English, interests. By the Treaty of Brétigny (1360—q.v.) it was handed over to Edward together with Aquitaine, on the understanding that there should be no reservation of homage to the French king, if Edward in return renounced his claims on the crown of France. This mutual renunciation was, however, not completed, and in 1369 the malcontent Gascon nobles seized the pretext afforded by the Black Prince's imposition of a hearth tax to appeal to Charles V as overlord. War was resumed, and at the truce of Bruges in 1377 the English were left with a mere remnant of the territory guaranteed them by the peace of 1360. Less than a century later (1453) Gascony was finally reunited to the French kingdom as a result of the English defeat at Castillon.

E. C. Lodge, "Gascony Under English Rule," 1926.

Gascoyne, General Isaac (1770–1841), is remembered chiefly for his famous motion in 1831, when, on April 12, after Lord John Russell had stated the modifications which ministers proposed to introduce into the Reform Bill, he moved that "the total number of members returned to parliament for England and Wales ought not to be diminished." This motion was carried by 299 to 291, though it was quite evident that it was merely intended to embarrass the ministry.

"Annual Register," 1831.

"Gaspee," The, a schooner commanded by Lieutenant Duddingston, made itself conspicuous by its activity against smuggling. It had more than once attacked the *Newport*, a Providence packet. On one occasion, therefore, when it was accidentally driven ashore, the citizens of Providence captured, plundered, and burnt it (June 9, 1773).

Gates, Sir John (1504–53), one of the strongest partisans of Northumberland, was condemned and executed with Sir Thomas Palmer (q.v.) for his share in the conspiracy to place Lady Jane Grey on the throne.

Gathorne-Hardy, Gathorne, 1st Earl of Cranbrook (1814–1906), was elected Conservative member for Leominster in 1856, and defeated Gladstone for Oxford University in 1865. He was under-secretary of state for home affairs in 1858, home secretary in 1867, secretary of state for war in 1874, secretary of state for India in 1878, and in 1885 and 1886 lord president of the council. He was created Earl of Cranbrook in 1892.

Gauden, John (1605–62), was in early life of Puritan tendencies, and sat in the Westminster Assembly, but was expelled from that body. His zeal for Charles I led to his publishing "Eikon Basilike" (1649), a work of which he is generally reputed to be the author. At the Restoration he was made Bishop of Exeter, and in 1662 he was translated to Worcester. He was much disgusted at the richer see of Winchester being refused him. Clarendon describes him as covetous, shifty, and self-seeking.

Gaunt, Elizabeth (*d.* 1685), was burned to death in London for assisting Burton, one of the Rye House conspirators, to escape after the defeat of Monmouth at Sedgemoor. She was the last woman executed in England for a political offence.

Gaunt, John of (1340–99). [Lancaster, John, Duke of.]

Gavelkind (possibly from O.E. *gafol-gecynd*, *gafol*, tribute, and *gecynd*, kind), a system of tenure which is associated generally with Kent, but which also obtained in other parts of the British Isles. Its chief characteristic was the equal subdivision of land among male heirs; a secondary characteristic, intimately connected with the etymology of the name, was the payment of rent as distinguished from military or labour service. In Kent it was, in fact, a variety of socage tenure. The customs of gavelkind appear to have been everywhere of early origin, and it is argued that the effect of the Germanic invasions upon the Romano-Celtic agrarian system were less marked where, as in Kent, gavelkind survived. The earliest concrete instance of the subdivision of holdings among groups of heirs in Kent occurs at Wye in the days of Edward I. Frequently land was held by one person for a family group. According to Maitland, "the law of inheritance (in Kent) shows a curious preference for the younger son. When his father's house has to be divided, the hearth (astre) is reserved for him." There was no escheat on attainder for felony, the son or sons of the hanged felon being permitted to inherit from him. A custom grew up for the disposition of gavelkind land in Kent by will, and in cases of intestacy the land descends to all the sons, no preference being shown for the eldest, and the tenure has escaped the feudal law of primogeniture. "All lands lying in Kent are reckoned to be held by this tenure unless it can be proved otherwise, and it is said that during the reign of Henry VI there were not more than thirty or forty estates that did not come under this heading." Elsewhere where Celtic customs in land cultivation survived we find the old gavelkind characteristic of family co-partnership preserved, notably in Pembrokeshire and other parts of Wales, in Scotland and in Ireland. The customs of gavelkind and of Borough English were extinguished by the Law of Property Act, 1922 (12 & 13 Geo. V, c. 16).

Elton, "Tenures in Kent"; Pollock and Maitland, "History of English Law"; Gray, "English Field Systems"; Owen, "The Description of Pembrokeshire"; Robinson, "On Gavelkind."

Gaveston, Piers (*d.* 1312), was the son of a Gascon knight who had been a servant of Edward I. Piers was selected by the king as the comrade of Prince Edward, and speedily acquired a great influence over the weak mind of the young prince. The king, seeing the danger of this, had banished Gaveston in February 1307, and on his death-bed commanded his son never to recall him. But Edward II was no sooner king than Gaveston returned, and was made Earl of Cornwall. He at once became the chief man in the kingdom, was appointed custos of the realm during the king's absence, and many valuable possessions and wardships were heaped upon him. At the coronation of the king in February 1308 Gaveston took precedence of the other nobles, and excelled them all in the magnificence of his display. He was an accomplished knight, of great bravery and ambition, but insolent and avaricious, and his head was completely turned by the favours lavished upon him. He indulged in coarse satire against the nobles, and surrounded himself with a train of retainers, many of whom were notorious robbers and homicides. In May 1308 Edward was compelled by the barons to banish him; but his exile was converted into a new dignity by his being made lieutenant of Ireland. In this capacity he showed some courage and skill, but the king could not live without him, and he returned to England in 1309. Banished again in 1311, he was recalled in January 1312, when the barons determined to destroy him. He was besieged in Scarborough Castle, and surrendered on promise of his life. But he was seized by the Earl of Warwick, and on June 19, 1312, beheaded on Blacklow Hill.

Biography by W. P. Dodge, 1899.

Gazette, London. ["London Gazette."]

Geddes, Sir Auckland Campbell (*b.* 1879), was educated at Edinburgh University, and for a time practised medicine at the London Hospital. In 1916 he became director of recruiting, and in 1917 minister of national service. In 1919 he became president of the board of trade, and for three years (1920–3) was British ambassador in Washington.

Geddes, Sir Eric Campbell (*b.* 1875), was born in India and educated at Oxford and Edinburgh. On the outbreak of the Great

War his experience in business was utilized by Mr. Lloyd George, and he became (1915) deputy director-general of the munitions supply. In 1917 he was appointed first lord of the admiralty and entered parliament as member for Cambridge. In 1919 he became minister of transport, and in 1921 chairman of the "Geddes Axe" committee set up to recommend public economies.

Geddes, Jenny, is said to have thrown a stool at the head of the dean of Edinburgh, on the occasion of the riot in St. Giles's Church, when Laud's Liturgy was first read in Scotland (Easter 1637).

Geddington, The Council of (1188), was the assembly which agreed to the levy of the Saladin Tithe (q.v.), the first tax on movables.

Gelt, or Chelt, The Battle of the, was fought in North Cumberland, February 1570, between the royal troops under Henry Carey, Lord Hunsdon (q.v.), and the rebels and borderers under Leonard Dacre (q.v.). In spite of the desperate bravery of the insurgents, they were completely defeated.

C. Menmuir, "Rising of the Northern Earls," 1907.

General Warrants, for the apprehension of all persons suspected, without naming anyone in particular, were frequently issued for offences against the government by the Star Chamber and under the Stuarts, as well as during the first half of the eighteenth century. In the case of Wilkes (q.v.) and No. 45 of the *North Briton*, a general warrant was issued by Lord Halifax, under which forty-nine persons were arrested. On the ground that the warrant was illegal, Wilkes brought an action against the under-secretary of state and obtained £1,000 damages. In 1765 general warrants were pronounced illegal by Lord Mansfield and the judges of the King's Bench, on the ground that no degree of antiquity can give sanction to a usage bad in itself, and that "general warrants are no warrants at all because they name no one." This opinion was confirmed by the House of Commons in 1766.

Geneva Award, The (1872), settled a serious disagreement between Great Britain and the United States of America. During the civil war between the Northern and Southern States of America, a ship called "No. 290" was built at Birkenhead to act as a privateer in the service of the Southern States. Before she was completed her destination and purpose were made known to the British government, but owing to difficulties in the law and the illness of a law-officer of the Crown, the orders given to arrest her did not arrive at Liverpool until after she had left that port on the pretence of a trial trip. She left the Mersey on July 28, 1862; proceeded to the island of Terceira; took in equipment and armament; and began to act against the Northern shipping, assuming the name of *Alabama*. On June 19, 1864, the *Alabama* was sunk off Cherbourg, in an engagement with the Federal war steamer *Kearsage*. After the conclusion of the war, claims for compensation for the damage done by the *Alabama* and other cruisers were made against the British government. After many attempts at settlement had failed, it was arranged, in February 1871, that a joint commission should meet at Washington to settle the *Alabama* claims and other outstanding differences between the United States and Great Britain. On May 8 the high joint commissioners signed the Treaty of Washington, which established a board of arbitration. After the signature of the treaty a question arose between the two governments as to what classes of claims should be submitted for arbitration. The British government was willing to compensate all private individuals for any loss they might have suffered by the action of the cruisers. The American government demanded, in addition to this, the costs of pursuing the privateers, the losses incurred by high premiums for insurance, and by the prolongation of the war. After a correspondence, the Americans declared that they could not withdraw from the case which they had submitted, and they left the responsibility of abrogating the treaty to England. The tribunal of arbitration met at Geneva in December 1871, comprising representatives of Great Britain, the United States, Italy, Switzerland, and Brazil. The final decision was given on September 14, 1872. The tribunal of arbitration found unanimously that Great Britain was liable for the acts committed by the *Alabama*, "having failed by omission to fulfil the duties prescribed by the first and third of the rules established by the sixth article of the Treaty of Washington." They fixed the sum to be paid by Great Britain at 15,500,000 dollars in gold, amounting to £3,229,166 13s. 4d. sterling.

W. A. Dunning, "British Empire and the United States," 1914; R. B. Mowat, "Diplomatic Relations of Great Britain and the United States," 1925.

[O. B.]

Geneva Protocol, The (October 2, 1924), was an international agreement concluded at the close of the fifth assembly of the League of Nations. Based on a draft agreement drawn up by M. Herriot and Mr. Ramsay MacDonald, it took as its foundation the three principles of arbitration, security, and disarmament, and endeavoured to provide a systematic procedure for the prevention of war. It was unanimously accepted on October 2, but never ratified by the powers. The Conservative government which succeeded Mr. MacDonald declined to ratify it on the ground that it saddled Great Britain with too great an obligation to maintain peace in "several sectors." But the Protocol gave a strong impetus to the movement for disarmament and security, which bore fruit at Locarno in October 1925.

P. J. Noel Baker, "The Geneva Protocol," 1925.

[A. C. F. B.]

Geoffrey, Archbishop of York (*d.* 1212), was a reputed son of Henry II. According to tradition his mother was "the Fair Rosamund," but the story has no historical basis. In 1173 the king procured his election to the bishopric of Lincoln in spite of the obstacles of his age and birth, and in 1189 he was elected Archbishop of York. In 1174 he aided his father against his rebellious brothers. In 1182 he resigned his bishopric, to which he had never been actually consecrated, and received instead the chancellorship, an office he continued to hold till his father's death. He distinguished himself greatly in the war against France (1187–9), and was the only one of Henry II's children who was present at his death-bed. During Richard I's absence from England he quarrelled with Longchamp (q.v.), and the violent conduct of the latter on this occasion was one of the causes of his dismissal from office. His opposition to John's oppressive taxation caused his banishment in 1207, and, in spite of the support of Innocent III, he remained in exile till his death.

Geoffrey of Anjou (1114–51), the father of Henry II, was the son of Fulk V of Anjou. On the death of the Emperor Henry V, Henry I determined to marry his daughter Maud to Geoffrey, the heir of Anjou. The marriage, which was completed in 1129, was, from one point of view, a wise one, as it put an end to the series of wars between Normandy and Anjou which had raged for so long, but the Angevin match was unpopular with the Norman nobles and did much to prevent Maud's recognition as queen. During the civil wars between Stephen and the Empress Maud, Geoffrey was principally occupied with endeavouring to enforce her claims to Normandy, of which he was acknowledged as duke by Louis of France in 1147.

Geoffrey of Brittany (1158–86), fourth son of Henry II and Eleanor, was married when a child to Constance, daughter and heiress of Conan, Duke of Brittany. In 1173 he joined his elder brother Henry in rebellion against his father, and put himself forward as the champion of Breton independence. The conspiracy was defeated, and Henry forgave his sons. In 1182 Geoffrey placed himself at the head of the Poitevins who were in rebellion against Richard; defeated in this attempt, he retired in 1186 to the court of Philip Augustus, where he spent the brief remainder of his life. He met with his death, according to some accounts, in a tournament at Paris, where he was accidentally thrown from his horse and trampled to death; other versions have it that he died a natural death. By his marriage with Constance he had two children, Arthur and Eleanor.

H. W. C. Davis, "England Under the Normans and Angevins."

Geoffrey of Nantes (*d.* 1158) was the younger son of Geoffrey of Anjou and the Empress Maud. On the accession of his brother, Henry II, to the English throne, he claimed the county of Anjou, but he was compelled to submit to Henry in 1156, and to relinquish his claims on the promise of receiving an annual pension. He was subsequently installed, with Henry's approval, as Count of Nantes.

George I (*b.* March 28, 1660, *s.* August 1, 1714, *d.* June 12, 1727) was the first sovereign of the Hanoverian dynasty. Prince George Louis was the son of Ernest Augustus of Hanover, and Sophia, daughter of Frederick V, Elector Palatine, and granddaughter of James I of England. During his father's lifetime he served in the Imperial army against the Turks, at the siege of Vienna, and on the Danube, in Italy, and on the Rhine. In 1680 he visited England, and in the following year his marriage with his cousin, Sophia Dorothea of Celle, united the two branches of the house of Lüneburg. The unfortunate princess was divorced and imprisoned (1694) in the castle of Ahlden, for the remainder of her life, for an intrigue with Count Königsmark. George succeeded his father as Elector of Hanover in 1698. He led some auxiliaries to the aid of Frederick III of Denmark (1700). In 1701 he joined the grand alliance against France. In 1707, at Marlborough's request, he was appointed commander of the Imperial forces on the Upper Rhine. He was, however, much offended at the suggestion that he should divide his forces with Prince Eugene. When at length he took the field, he failed to reduce the towns of Franche-Comté. Shortly afterwards he became reconciled to Marlborough. In 1710 he resigned his command. He drew up a memorial to the queen, protesting against the terms of the Peace of Utrecht. After the Tories gained the upper hand, he was in constant communication with the Whig opposition, but does not seem to have taken any serious steps towards securing the succession. He opposed sending a writ to his son, the electoral prince, as Duke of Cambridge; and answered the queen's angry letter in submissive terms. In May 1714 he joined in the Treaty of Rastadt. On the death of the queen he was proclaimed King of England, but did not arrive in this country until late in September, and was not crowned until October 20. He at once nominated an entirely Whig ministry. His accession was on the whole popular, although riots broke out in several of the large towns. The following year witnessed the outbreak of the Jacobite rebellion. The government at once took vigorous measures for its suppression by suspending the Habeas Corpus Act, summoning troops from Hanover, and arresting the more active Jacobites. Ormonde's attempts to land on the English coast were a failure. The insurrection in Scotland for a brief period assumed a formidable aspect. The English insurgents were utterly defeated at Preston, and shortly before, Mar had suffered a reverse at

Sheriffmuir (q.v.). The arrival of the Pretender failed to restore confidence in the Jacobite troops, and, with his flight, the insurrection may be said to have terminated. The chief events of the next year were the punishment of the rebels and the passing of the Septennial Act (q.v.). Immediately afterwards George, much against the wish of his ministers, insisted on going to Hanover, accompanied by Stanhope. He was with difficulty induced to allow his eldest son to act as "Guardian of the Realm and Lieutenant" in his absence. Negotiations for the Triple Alliance were at once set on foot. George insisted on a British fleet being sent to the Baltic in order to oppose the designs of Charles XII of Sweden against Bremen and Verden, and was anxious to declare war against Russia. Shortly afterwards Townshend, who had discountenanced George's European policy, was dismissed from office, and was followed by Walpole. In June 1717 the Triple Alliance between Great Britain, France, and Holland was concluded. For a brief period Britain was seriously menaced by the schemes of Charles XII and Alberoni, in conjunction with the malcontents in France, in favour of a Stuart restoration. These were thwarted by the death of Charles in the next year. Alberoni aimed at the destruction of the Treaty of Utrecht, and directed his efforts against the Austrians in Italy. Admiral Byng was therefore sent to the Mediterranean, and Austria joined the Triple Alliance, which thereupon became a Quadruple Alliance. The Spanish fleet was destroyed off Cape Passaro, and Alberoni fell. An abortive expedition to the Highlands fitted out in favour of the Pretender was one of his last efforts. Sweden and Denmark were compelled to desist from hostilities, and in 1720 Stanhope had secured the peace of Europe. Meanwhile, at home, the impeachment of Oxford was a complete failure. The Schism Act was repealed; but the Peerage Bill (q.v.), a Whig measure, was rejected through the influence of Walpole, now leader of the opposition (December 1719). The year 1720 witnessed the disastrous collapse of the South Sea Scheme (q.v.). The directors were punished; Sunderland was forced to resign, and the death of Stanhope left Walpole without a rival. For a brief period the hopes of the Jacobites revived; but information of Bishop Atterbury's plot (q.v.) was given to the British government by the French minister, Dubois. The Habeas Corpus Act was suspended for a year, sums were granted for an increase of the army, a tax of £100,000 was collected from the Non-jurors, and Atterbury was forced to leave the kingdom. Soon afterwards Walpole's jealousy caused a quarrel to break out between himself and Carteret; the latter withdrew to the lord-lieutenancy of Ireland (1724). Then the country was wildly excited by the government patent granted to Wood, giving him power to coin farthings and halfpence to the amount of £108,000. [Wood's Halfpence.] Walpole was obliged to withdraw the obnoxious patent. Great excitement was also caused in Scotland by the malt-tax being changed into a charge of threepence upon every barrel of ale. The remainder of the reign offers little interest in home affairs. Abroad, Walpole was thwarted by the intrigues of the Spanish minister, Baron Ripperda, who wished to upset the arrangements of the Congress of Cambrai for the maintenance of the Quadruple Alliance, and to revive the old connexion between Spain and Austria. Accordingly, in August 1725, the Treaty of Vienna was concluded between Austria and Spain, with a secret treaty arranging marriages between the two houses, the restoration of the Stuarts, and the surrender of Gibraltar and Minorca. The Jacobites were very active in these intrigues with the Spanish court. In opposition to these designs the Treaty of Hanover was signed by Great Britain, France, and Prussia. Ripperda fell, but his policy was still continued. There was great excitement in England, and a squadron was dispatched to blockade Porto Bello. Austria, influenced by the policy of Prussia, determined to withdraw from her unpleasant position, and preliminaries of peace were signed at Paris (May 1727). At home, the opposition were vehement in their attacks on Walpole, and urged the full restoration of Bolingbroke. Their intrigues were cut short by the death of George at Osnabrück, on June 12, on his way back from Hanover. Thackeray's lively sketch of George I's character is perhaps a better estimate than that of some more pretentious writers. "George was not a lofty monarch certainly; he was not a patron of the fine arts, but he was not a hypocrite, he was not revengeful, he was not extravagant. Though a despot in Hanover, he was a moderate ruler in England. His aim was to leave it to itself as much as possible, and to live out of it as much as he could. His heart was in Hanover. . . . He was more than fifty years of age when he came amongst us; we took him because he served our turn; we laughed at his uncouth German ways, and sneered at him. He took our loyalty for what it was worth; laid hands on what money he could; kept us assuredly from Popery and wooden shoes. Cynical and selfish as he was, he was better than a king out of St. Germains, with the French king's orders in his pocket, and a swarm of Jesuits in his train."

Lewis Melville, "George I," 1908; Sir H. Imbert-Terry, "A Constitutional King, George I," 1927.

[F. S. P.]

George II (*b.* October 30, 1683, *s.* June 12, 1727, *d.* October 25, 1760), was the only son of George Louis, Elector of Hanover, afterwards George I of England, and the unfortunate Sophia of Celle. In 1706 he became a peer of England, with the title of Duke of Cambridge. He had married Caroline of Anspach. In spite of his laxity of morals, he was much attached to his wife, and strongly influenced by her. He

greatly distinguished himself at the battle of Oudenarde (1708). Towards the end of 1713 the Whig leaders proposed that his writ as Duke of Cambridge should be asked for in order that he might be present to thwart the designs of the ministry in favour of the Pretender. Anne was greatly offended, and although the writ was issued, the measure was given up. In 1714 he accompanied his father to England, and became Prince of Wales. In 1716 the smouldering quarrel between the king and his son broke into flame. The prince insulted the Duke of Newcastle, who was present as proxy for the king at the christening of the prince's eldest son. George was expelled from St. James's and his children taken under charge of the king. He became popular with the nation, and openly raised the standard of opposition to the court and ministry. It was impossible, however, to ignore his claims to the regency during his father's absence from England. In 1719 Stanhope and Sunderland introduced the Peerage Bill (q.v.), as a blow at his power when he should ascend the throne. But the measure was thrown out by a large majority in the Commons. A formal reconciliation was effected by Walpole between the prince and the king in 1720. In June 1727, on the death of his father, George ascended the throne.

His reign may be roughly divided into two parts: (1) the peace period to the fall of Walpole in 1742, and (2) the war period to the death of the king in 1760. For a little while it seemed as if Walpole had fallen. Sir Spencer Compton was directed to form a ministry; but Walpole explained his views on foreign policy to the king, supported by the influence of the queen, and wisely offered to increase the civil list. Accordingly Walpole continued prime minister, opposed by the Whig malcontents whom his love of power had caused to desert him, and supported by a bought majority. The difficulties with Spain were settled, in November 1729, by the Treaty of Seville (q.v.), a defensive alliance between Great Britain, Spain, France, and eventually Holland. British trade with South America was thus restored, and the Asiento confirmed to the South Sea Company. The emperor, finding himself deserted, joined with Great Britain, Holland, and Spain in the second Treaty of Vienna (March 1731), which practically confirmed the Treaty of Seville. In this year Walpole, by compelling Townshend, as leader of the Upper House, to reject the Pension Bill, caused him to retire from the ministry. For two years Walpole devoted himself to reforms at home. In 1733 his excise on salt was followed up by a proposal for a tax on wine and tobacco, and a system of warehousing to prevent frauds on the customs. Such was the unpopularity of the measure that the minister was compelled to withdraw it. He held aloof from the war which broke out in the following year between the Empire, France, and Spain. Through the mediation of France and Britain, the Definitive Peace of Vienna was eventually signed in the year 1738. The elections of 1735 were stubbornly contested, but Walpole retained his majority. Bolingbroke retired to France, and the Prince of Wales assumed the leadership of the opposition. In 1736 Edinburgh was agitated by the Porteous riots (q.v.). In 1737 a public quarrel broke out between George and his son on the subject of the prince's jointure. The ministry was victorious, but the opposition rallied round the prince at Norfolk House. Shortly afterwards the death of the queen deprived George of a faithful wife, and Walpole of a true friend. The latter retained, however, his influence over George. The opposition attacked his peace policy, the story of "Jenkins's ear" (q.v.) was brought up against him, and the king was eager for war with Spain. Failing to carry their motion against Walpole's convention with that country, the opposition seceded from the House. Walpole was, however, forced to declare war (October 1739), rather than resign, and at once the Jacobite hopes revived. The expeditions to Spain were not successful. In 1742 the elections gave the government but a small majority, and, being defeated on the Chippenham Election Petition, Walpole resigned. A new ministry, in which several of Walpole's supporters had places, was formed under Lord Wilmington, formerly Sir Spencer Compton. On the death of Wilmington, in the following year, Henry Pelham defeated Lord Bath, the rival candidate for the premiership. Europe was now menaced by the question of the Austrian Succession. Subsidies were promptly voted to Maria Theresa, and an army of 30,000 British and Hanoverians was sent to the Low Countries. The British fleet forced the Neapolitan king to assume neutrality. The battle of Dettingen (June 27, 1743), the last in which an English king took part, and in which George distinguished himself, resulted in a defeat of the French, after ineffectual negotiations for peace. Great Britain joined Holland, Austria, Saxony, and Sardinia in the Treaty of Worms, September 1743 (q.v.), for the maintenance of the Pragmatic Sanction. A counter-league, known as that of Frankfort, with France at its head, was soon formed. The French then prepared an expedition under Marshal Saxe to invade England and restore the Stuarts, but a violent storm prevented the transports from sailing. There was now a change of ministry; Carteret being driven from office, and the Pelham administration established on a "broad bottom." The system of German subsidies was continued. The campaign in the Netherlands of 1745 terminated in the defeat of Fontenoy. The same year was rendered memorable in British annals by the invasion of Prince Charles Edward. [Jacobites.] He defeated Cope at Prestonpans in September, and marched as far as Derby, to the great alarm of the government. He then

retreated into Scotland, and won the battle of Falkirk, but his army was cut to pieces at Culloden, in April 1746, and he escaped with difficulty to the continent. In the midst of this crisis the Pelhams, failing to procure the admission of Pitt to office, had resigned; but, on Grenville's failing to form a ministry, they returned to power, having gained their point. Abroad, the Duke of Cumberland's campaign in the Netherlands was not successful. At length the Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle (q.v.) brought the struggle to a close, the terms being a mutual restoration of conquests (1748). Pelham thereupon introduced an important financial measure, proposing to reduce the interest on the national debt to three per cent. This was followed up by the reform of the calendar in 1751, and two years later by Hardwicke's Marriage Act. A bill for the naturalization of Jews was carried, but popular sentiment necessitated its repeal. The Wesleyans became numerous, and exercised a reviving influence on religion. In 1754, on the death of Pelham, the incompetent Newcastle assumed the government. "Now I shall have no more peace," said George II. A new war was breaking out with France in India and America, and the Seven Years' War was on the verge of beginning. In 1756 war began. Minorca was captured by the French owing to the conduct of Admiral Byng (q.v.); and Newcastle, deserted by Fox, was obliged to resign. Pitt failed to form a durable ministry, until, by a coalition with Newcastle, the ministry was constituted which so gloriously carried on the war. Vigorous measures were at once set on foot on the continent. Austria, France, and Russia fought against Great Britain and Prussia. The traditional policy of Britain was truly upset. [Seven Years' War.] A long series of expeditions kept up the fame of the British arms. The attack on Rochefort was unsuccessful, nor was the enterprise against Louisburg, in America, attended with better results. Finally, the Duke of Cumberland, beaten at Hastenbeck, and surrounded by the French at Kloster-Zeven, was compelled to capitulate. In India, however, Clive had gained the great victory of Plassey. In 1758 Ferdinand of Brunswick was appointed commander in the place of Cumberland. After his victory at Crefeld a large body of troops was sent to assist him. The expeditions against Cherbourg and St. Malo were productive of little result. In America the British took Louisburg, Fort Duquesne, and Ticonderoga, and in Africa Goree (December). The year 1759 was one of the most glorious in British history. In June Guadeloupe was captured; in August, Ferdinand of Brunswick gained a great victory at Minden, and saved Hanover; and Admiral Boscawen defeated the French off Lagos; in November Wolfe beat them at Quebec, and Hawke defeated Conflans off Quiberon. In India the siege of Madras was raised, and Coote took Wandewash (January 1760). The victories of Frederick the Great in the following year may be said to have concluded the war. At the moment of prosperity George died suddenly on October 25, 1760. Lord Stanhope's estimate of his character is that "he had scarcely one kingly quality, except personal courage and justice. Avarice, the most unprincely of all passions, sat enshrined in the inmost recesses of his bosom. . . . Business he understood, and transacted with pleasure. Like his father, he was far too Hanoverian in his politics, nor wholly free from the influence of his mistresses. But his reign of thirty-one years deserves this praise, that it never once invaded the rights of the nation, nor harshly enforced the prerogatives of the Crown; and that it left the dynasty secure, the constitution unimpaired, and the people prosperous."

J. Hervey, "Memoirs of the Reign of George II," 1842; C. Grant Robertson, "England Under the Hanoverians."

[S. L.]

George III (*b.* June 4, 1738, *s.* October 25, 1760, *d.* January 29, 1820) was the eldest son of Frederick, Prince of Wales (q.v.), and the grandson of George II. His father died in 1751, leaving him to the care of his clever mother, Princess Augusta of Saxe-Gotha, and of Lord Bute, by whom he was brought up in the anti-Whig principles set forth in Bolingbroke's "Idea of a Patriot King." After a love affair with Lady Sarah Lennox, which was nipped in the bud, George married, in 1761, the Princess Charlotte Sophia of Mecklenburg-Strelitz. Immediately upon his accession, the king set himself to break the power of the Whig houses. By the aid of the "King's Friends" (q.v.), Pitt was driven from power (1761), and his policy reversed by the Peace of Paris (1763). The incompetence of Lord Bute, however, postponed the triumph of Toryism, and George was forced to submit to the obnoxious administrations of George Grenville (1763), and of Rockingham (1765). At length Pitt, now Earl of Chatham, who had broken with the Whigs, consented to come to the king's rescue, but a nervous disorder soon forced him to retire, and the administration was continued by the Duke of Grafton, the king all the while steadily pursuing his policy of breaking up party ties, and so making supreme the influence of the Crown. The persecution of Wilkes (q.v.) was made a personal question; but the king was as yet popular, and the unconstitutional conduct of the government excited little indignation outside London and Middlesex. At length, in 1770, ten years after his accession, George found himself in a position to appoint Lord North prime minister, and for twelve years personal government obtained in England, the premier being nothing more than a passive instrument in the hands of his sovereign. They were years of disaster and disgrace. At home, the royal influence was used unscrupulously to further particular measures and to browbeat the opposition, appointments in the army

were tampered with, and the business in parliament controlled. Abroad, the policy of coercing the American colonies, continued in accordance with the express wish of the king, was at first extremely popular in England, nor did opinions begin to change until the declaration of war had been followed by Burgoyne's surrender at Saratoga, and by the intervention of France in the struggle (1778). Then North wished to resign in favour of Chatham, but George declined to "possess the crown under shackles"; and by the death of the great statesman in the following year he was left free to carry on the "king's war," in spite of the misgivings of the prime minister, and the numerous resignations of his colleagues. The storm was, however, gathering to a head; disaster followed disaster in America; at home the sullen discontent of the masses found expression in the dangerous Gordon Riots (q.v.); there was a strong demand for economical reform; John Dunning moved his famous resolutions against the increasing influence of the Crown. George attempted to stave off the inevitable by negotiating through Lord Thurlow with the opposition, but he was checkmated by the surrender of Cornwallis at Yorktown, and North resigned in March 1782. Once more the king was placed under the hateful thraldom of the Whigs. During Rockingham's brief second ministry he was forced to consent to the acknowledgment of American independence, and though he found Lord Shelburne more pliable, the coalition of Fox and North, formed in 1783, came into office with the express determination to break the royal authority. George resolved to appeal to the country against the government. By a most unconstitutional use of his personal influence in the House of Lords, he procured the rejection of Fox's India Bill; ministers were dismissed, and after Pitt, the new prime minister, had roused the enthusiasm of the nation by his gallant struggle against the majority in the Commons, parliament was dissolved in 1784, and the elections resulted in the complete victory of the Crown over the Whig oligarchy. For the second time in the reign the king had been able to override the House of Commons, and he again found himself in possession of a long lease of power checked only by the fact that his minister was not a mere servant like Lord North.

A period of considerable material progress followed, during which Pitt's excellent administration gained for the Crown much popularity, unchecked by the king's well-known dislike to parliamentary reform. It was, however, a time of much misery to the king, who was distressed by the irregularities of his sons, and who became afflicted in 1788 with that mental aberration of which symptoms had appeared soon after his accession. At first he was made considerably worse by the incapacity of the court doctors, but under the skilful treatment of Dr. Willis he rapidly recovered, and on April 23, 1789, personally attended the Thanksgiving Service at St. Paul's. His popularity, which was partly due no doubt to the distrust with which the heir apparent was regarded, was at its height when the outburst of the French Revolution frightened even the greater part of the Whig malcontents, as well as the mercantile and propertied classes, into lending their support to the throne. It was with the approval of the upper classes that the king and his minister entered upon that course of repression of opinion which tended, more than anything else, to make the lower orders espouse the new gospel of democracy. It is unnecessary to describe in detail Pitt's splendid efforts to keep together the European coalition, which opposed such a wavering front to the determined progress of the French arms. The burdens imposed upon the nation, added to the sufferings produced by bad harvests and depression of trade, rapidly made the war very unpopular, and with it the king, who was assaulted by the mob when he went to open parliament for the autumn session of 1795. Nevertheless, the struggle continued, though Napoleon had appeared, and though the victories won by English seamen could not atone for the defeats experienced by continental generals. In 1800 a lunatic named Hatfield made an unsuccessful attempt to shoot the king. Once more England's weakness was Ireland's opportunity, and Pitt wished to stave off rebellion by emancipating the Catholics. The king refused to agree to such a measure, alleging that it would be a violation of the coronation oath, and finding the minister determined, he was forced to accept his resignation (March 1801). The shock to George was so great that it brought on a fresh attack of insanity, from which, however, he soon recovered. Pitt's successor was Addington, who was a second North in point of subservience. He was enabled to conclude the short-lived Peace of Amiens in March 1802, but few believed it to be real, least of all the king. War was again declared in May 1803, and it was while he was urging forward with the utmost zeal the preparations that were being made to resist the French invader that the king became once more a prey to madness. He rallied to discover that both the people and parliament were weary of the incapacity of Addington, and clamouring for the return of Pitt to power. Negotiations were opened; Pitt wished to form a ministry on a broad basis, but the king declined to admit Fox, whom he personally disliked, and a government was at length created of a completely Tory colour. It carried on the struggle against Napoleon with indifferent success until 1806, when Pitt died, the news of the victory of Trafalgar being insufficient to rescue him from the dejection caused by the defeat of Austerlitz. Again the king was forced to have recourse

to the opposition, and, sorely against his will, was compelled to accept Fox and Grenville as leaders of a wide "Ministry of All the Talents" (q.v.). Grenville, weakened by the death of Fox, attempted to bring forward the Catholic claims again, in the form of a small measure for the relief of officers in the army and navy. It was about to become law, when the king, alarmed by the resignation of Lord Sidmouth (Addington), and encouraged by the promise of the Duke of Portland to form a government suitable to his wishes, called upon the ministers to drop the bill. They obeyed, but at the same time drew up a minute reserving their right to revive the question. This George desired them to withdraw, and to give him a written engagement that they would never offer him any advice upon the subject of Catholic concession. With great propriety they declined to give any such pledge; they were promptly dismissed and replaced by a ministry led nominally by the Duke of Portland, and really by Spencer Perceval. A dissolution resulted once more in the national ratification of the sovereign's unconstitutional action (1807). This was the king's final triumph. The ministry, of which Spencer Perceval became the head in 1809, was supported by too large a majority to be overthrown by any amount of blundering in its dealings with America, and gained some credit from the accidental discovery of the talents of Wellington in Spain. In 1811 the reign came, to all intents and purposes, to an end. The health of George III, which had been gravely affected by the failure of the Duke of York in the Walcheren expedition, broke down after the death of the Princess Amelia, and he became hopelessly insane. For nine more years he lingered on, mad, blind, and melancholy, but the glories of the Peninsular War and of Waterloo, as well as the social misery that followed the downfall of Napoleon, have little to do with a king who, if in full mental vigour, would certainly have identified himself with the praise, and would not have shrunk from his share of the blame.

J. H. Jesse, "Memoirs of George III," 3 vols., 1867; "Correspondence of George III with Lord North," ed. Donne, 2 vols., 1867; A. Mervyn Davies, "George III and the Constitution," 1921; Sir T. Erskine May, "Constitutional History," ed. F. Holland, 3 vols., 1912.

[L. C. S.]

George IV (*b.* August 12, 1762; *s.* January 29, 1820; *d.* June 26, 1830) was born upon the forty-eighth anniversary of the accession of the house of Brunswick. The education which his parents gave him was of so strict and dull a kind that it would have caused any boy of spirit to revolt. The coldness and tedium of his father's court developed quickly the worst side of the prince's character. At twenty he fell desperately in love with a Mrs. Fitzherbert (q.v.), whom he privately married, a marriage void by reason of the Royal Marriage Act; if it had not been, it would have cost George the throne, as Mrs. Fitzherbert was a Roman Catholic. On his attaining twenty-one his father had settled on him £50,000 a year; the revenues of the duchy of Cornwall amounted to £13,000; and parliament voted him £30,000 to start with, and the same amount to pay off his debts. Within a year his debts amounted to £160,000. The king added £10,000 to his allowance, which only served to encourage his reckless extravagance. In the hope that it might come into power and so help him, he allied himself closely with the Whig party, which his father hated. The action of Fox in 1788 with regard to the Regency Bill raised his hopes of improving his position; but they were disappointed by the king's recovery. The Whigs were evidently a broken reed to lean upon; and Pitt with inexorable coldness refused to help him in any way. The prince was thus thrown back on his father; and the king insisted on his marriage. He was engaged in countless intrigues; and to settle down into wedlock was utterly distasteful to him. Yet it was his only chance of clearing himself from his embarrassments; and in 1795 parliament undertook to discharge his debts, which amounted to £370,000, on his marriage with Princess Caroline of Brunswick, whom George III had selected as an eligible wife for his son. The prince was drunk when he married her (April 8), and before nine months passed by had openly separated from her, to return to his old habits of vice and profligacy. The prince continued to affect an attachment to the Whigs and their political principles, and in the meantime lived the life of a reckless debauchee, day by day disgusting his friends by his faithlessness, and alienating the people's affections by the unconcealed profligacy of his life. In 1803 Addington's government had the boldness to procure an addition of £60,000 to his income. In 1811 he found himself compelled to accept the regency on terms which he did his best to have modified. But his conduct had disgusted his best friends, the Whigs, who now began to see him in his true colours. Finding that nothing was to be got from them, he deserted them in a moment, accepted the regency on the terms proposed, and retained Perceval as prime minister. His heartless conduct to his daughter, the Princess Charlotte, increased his unpopularity. In 1817 the feeling of the people made itself felt by publicly insulting the regent on his way back from opening parliament. On coming to the throne (1820), George attempted to divorce his queen, but the case had to be abandoned, and she died in 1821. Without his father's virtues, George IV had as narrow-minded a horror of change as the old king himself. Fortunately for the country he had not the moral strength, or even the obstinate courage, which had enabled George III always to gain his point. In deference to the king's conscientious scruples Pitt had consented to waive the Catholic question. The notion of conscientious scruples influencing

George IV was nothing short of ludicrous. He too, however, refused to submit, whereupon Peel and the Duke of Wellington offered their resignations (1829). They were accepted, but before the next day the king had reflected that it was impossible for him to form another ministry, and that his father's old threat of retiring to Hanover would be only too gladly received by the nation: he surrendered and wrote to them a note begging them to remain in office, and allowing them to have their own way. Little more than a year after this event he died.

Biographies by P. Fitzgerald, 1884, and Shane Leslie, 1926. [W. R. S.]

George V (*b.* June 3, 1865, *s.* May 6, 1910), second son of King Edward VII and Queen Alexandra, spent his early career in the navy. He became a naval cadet in 1877 and made voyages to the West Indies, South Africa, Ceylon, Palestine, and Greece. He became a lieutenant in 1885, a commander in 1891, a rear-admiral in 1901, and a vice-admiral in 1903. In 1892 he was created Duke of York, and in the following year married Princess Victoria Mary, daughter (*b.* 1867) of Francis, Duke of Teck. In 1901 he became Prince of Wales, and spent the next two years touring the British Empire. On the death of Edward VII (May 6, 1910) he became king, the coronation taking place on June 22, 1911. During the Great War the king paid many visits to the Grand Fleet and to munitions centres, and in 1917 he visited France. In 1917 also he abandoned all German titles for himself and his family, and proclaimed that the royal house should be known henceforward as the House of Windsor. In June 1921 the king and queen inaugurated the new parliament of Northern Ireland. Next year they visited Belgium, and in 1923 Italy. In 1924 and 1925 the king opened the British Empire Exhibition at Wembley.

George, Prince of Denmark (1653–1708), was the second son of Frederick III of Denmark and Sophia of Lüneburg. On July 28, 1683, he married Princess Anne, daughter of James II. It was hinted to him that the claim of his wife and himself to the throne might be preferred by James to that of William and Mary if they became converts to Catholicism; and George seems to have been attracted by the idea. The marriage was perhaps intended as a blind to the English Protestants. When William of Orange landed in England, George deserted James at Andover. As man after man joined the invader, Prince George uttered his usual exclamation, "Est-il possible?" "What," said the king, when he heard that his son-in-law, influenced by Lord Churchill, had followed their example, "is 'Est-il possible' gone too? After all, a good trooper would have been a greater loss." Soon after the accession of William III, he was created Duke of Cumberland. He offered to accompany William to Ireland, but the offer was declined. When Queen Anne ascended the throne he at once accepted the position of "his wife's subject." He was created lord high admiral, but a commission was appointed to perform his duties. His request to be placed in command of the Dutch army was disregarded in favour of Marlborough. In 1702 he was compelled to vote for the bill against Occasional Conformity, although himself a notorious example of it. In 1707 an attack was directed against the naval administration. The object of censure was, however, not so much the prince as Admiral Churchill, the brother of Marlborough. Towards the end of his life the Tories used him as an instrument to push their interests with the queen. As he lay on his death-bed, the Whigs, in order to procure the admission of Somers to office, threatened again to assault the management of the navy. George was an exceedingly incompetent man. "I have tried him drunk," said Charles II, "and I have tried him sober, and drunk or sober there is nothing in him." He was a good husband, and Anne was much attached to him.

Burnet, "History of His Own Time," ed. O. Airy, 2 vols., 1897–1900; W. T. Morgan, "English Political Parties in the Reign of Queen Anne," 1920.

George, David Lloyd. [Lloyd George, David.]

Georgia. [American Colonies.]

Gerberoi, The Siege of (1080), was an incident in the struggle between William the Conqueror and his eldest son Robert, who, aided by the French king, sought to establish himself in Normandy. During the skirmishing which accompanied the siege Robert is alleged to have unhorsed and wounded his father. Subsequently he expressed penitence for his rebellion, and a reconciliation was effected. The story of the personal encounter between the king and his son is, however, of doubtful authenticity.

Germain, George Sackville, 1st Viscount Sackville (1716–85), was the son of Lionel, Duke of Dorset. He served at the battle of Fontenoy, and fought under the Duke of Cumberland at Culloden. In 1753 he was sent as secretary to Ireland, and quarrelled with the Speaker, Boyle. In 1758 he refused the command on the coast of Brittany, preferring to serve in Flanders, on the ground that he was "tired of buccaneering." He commanded the British and German cavalry on the right of the allies under Ferdinand of Brunswick at the battle of Minden, and when orders were sent him to charge, he obstinately refused to do so, affecting to misunderstand the order. After enduring several slights from Ferdinand, he resigned his command, and on his return home a court-martial adjudged him unfit to serve in any military capacity (April 5, 1760). On the death of George II he attempted to return to court. In the year 1761 he was elected member for Hythe; and in 1762 we find him complaining of the expenses of the war. In 1766 he was restored to the

privy council. In 1770, in consequence of inheriting an estate, he assumed the name of Germain. In the following year he fought a duel with Governor Johnstone of Pensacola. In 1775 he was made secretary of state for the colonies, but his military knowledge and talents ill-atoned for his rash and violent temper. He quarrelled with his subordinates, especially Sir Guy Carleton and Sir William Howe, and in 1778 threatened to resign, in a fit of anger, on Carleton's being appointed governor of Charlemont. He superintended the preparations for the American War. In the year 1782, in order to rid themselves of him, the ministry persuaded the king to raise him to the peerage. There was great outcry at this, and his first speech in the House of Lords was an attempt to remove the imputation of cowardice at Minden. We subsequently find him acknowledging the fact that the king was his own minister. Lord Sackville was a man of undoubted talents and great ambition, but of a violent temperament, which urged him to ill-judged courses.

Germantown, The Battle of (October 4, 1777), fought between Washington and Lord Howe at Germantown, on the Schuylkill River, north of Philadelphia. The British held Germantown to protect Philadelphia, which they had recently occupied. Washington attacked them with great success at the outset, but becoming panic-stricken, the Americans fled, leaving the British in possession of the town.

Germanus, St. (*d.* 448), Bishop of Auxerre, is said to have visited Britain (A.D. 429) to combat Pelagianism. He converted to Christianity those British tribes which still remained heathen. Encouraged by him the Britons won a bloodless victory (known as the Alleluia Victory—(q.v.)) over the combined Picts and Saxons. As a result central Britain appears to have been saved for several years from a repetition of the barbarian attack. He revisited the island in 447. The dedication of several churches in Wales and Cornwall to him attests the memory of his visits.

T. Hodgkin, "Political History of England," vol. i.

Germany, Relations with, after 1870. [For relations down to 1870 see Prussia and Empire.] The difficult period of Anglo-German relations from 1870 to 1914 has not yet been completely elucidated. But the main threads are fairly clear. During the twelve years in which Bismarck was building up the Triple Alliance of 1882 (q.v.) his attitude towards Great Britain was one of caution and cordiality, illustrated in his negotiations with Beaconsfield in 1876 and his abortive proposal of 1879 that Great Britain should associate herself with the Austro-German treaty concluded against Russia in the latter year. After the accession of the Emperor William II (1888) relations remained cordial until 1894. The Kaiser paid annual visits to Cowes Regatta, and Heligoland was ceded to Germany in 1890. But during the chancellorship of Prince Hohenlohe the Kaiser began to develop his own foreign policy, and rivalry grew between the two nations in various parts of the world, aggravated by a personal antipathy between the emperor and the Prince of Wales. In the Balkans Great Britain feared the German Baghdad Railway scheme and German penetration in Turkey and Palestine. In Africa the dispatch of German warships to Delagoa Bay in 1894, and the telegram in which the Kaiser congratulated Kruger on the result of the Jameson Raid, made for temporary bitterness and threatened to drive Great Britain into a *rapprochement* with France. In the Far East Germany leased Kiao-chou in 1898 during the powers' scramble for stations on the coast of China after the Chino-Japanese War of 1894, and Great Britain countered by the occupation of Wei-hai-wei. Meanwhile a delicate issue was rising also in the spheres of trade and sea-power, exemplified in the underselling of British by German traders, and in the formation of the Navy League in 1897. Germany was irritated at finding her colonial aims—the result of an urgent economic problem at home—forestalled by the British. During the Boer War relations improved, but although an Anglo-German treaty was concluded regarding Portuguese South-West Africa, the efforts of Joseph Chamberlain met with indifferent success; and co-operation during the Boxer Rising [China] was neutralized by the German Navy Bill of 1900. Growing rivalry at sea led to the introduction of dreadnoughts by Lord Fisher in 1905, and played its part also in producing the Anglo-French understanding of 1904 [Entente]. The Second Hague Conference was unable to check the competition in naval armaments. Similarly Lord Haldane's mission to Berlin in 1908 was of little avail, while the moderating counsels of the new chancellor, Bethmann-Hollweg (1909) fell on deaf ears. Matters were not mended by the Agadir crisis in 1911 (q.v.), when the firm attitude adopted by Mr. Lloyd George resulted in a diplomatic rebuff for Germany. Lord Haldane went again to Berlin in 1912 to endeavour to revive friendly relations, but Admiral von Tirpitz declined his proposals for mutual accommodation in the naval question. The Balkan crisis of 1912–13 further accentuated the division of Europe into two armed camps, both engaged in a race for armaments. The simultaneous "reinsurance" of Great Britain and "encirclement" of Germany, accelerated by the Anglo-Russian agreement of 1907, produced a widening breach which August 1914 converted into war. The British government's ultimatum, expiring at midnight on August 4 with German troops already across the Belgian frontier and the other Entente armies already in motion, opened the four years of war which were to end in the abdication of the Kaiser (November 9, 1918) and the inauguration of the German Republic.

The outstanding problem after the war was that of reparations. Great Britain dissented from the declaration of the Reparations Commission which charged the German government with "intentional default" in 1922, and the occupation of the Ruhr by French and Belgian troops in January 1923 was deplored by Bonar Law's government. The advent of Labour governments in France and Britain, however (1924), resulted in an improvement of the financial position of Germany on the inauguration of the Dawes Plan, which sought to stabilize German currency and to collect a debt rather than inflict penalties. Two years later Germany entered the League of Nations in accordance with the Locarno Treaties (q.v.).

A. W. Ward, "Germany, 1815–90," 3 vols., 1916; biographies of Bismarck by J. W. Headlam, 1899, C. Grant Robertson, 1918, and Emil Ludwig, 1927; A. W. W. Ramsay, "Idealism and Foreign Policy, 1860–78," 1925; O. Hammann, "The World Policy of Germany, 1890–1912," 1927; G. L. Dickinson, "The International Anarchy, 1904–14," 1925; G. P. Gooch, "Germany," 1925. [A. C. F. B.]

Gertruydenberg, The Conference at (1710), was an unsuccessful attempt to bring the War of the Spanish Succession to a close. The seat of the negotiations, which were begun on the side of France, was moved from The Hague to Gertruydenberg, a village at the mouth of the Waal. The Dutch demanded that the terms of the previous year, viz., the resignation of the whole of the Spanish succession and the restoration of Newfoundland to Great Britain, should be enforced with the terrible condition that Louis should assist in ejecting his grandson from Spain. This the French king declined (June), although he offered a monthly subsidy towards defraying the expenses of the allies. Although this point was waived, the opposition of Austria and Savoy to these terms of peace necessitated the continuation of the war. [Spanish Succession, War of the.]

H. M. A. Parnell, "War of the Spanish Succession," 1905.

Gesith (companion) was the old English equivalent of the Latin *comes*. Tacitus gives us a description of the primitive *comitatus* of the old German king. The *comites* were his personal dependents, fighting his battles, living in his house, and wholly occupied in his service. The position was coveted by the most noble youth of Germany. As the *comitatus* reappears in England, the increased dignity of the king has immeasurably increased the distance between him and his companions in arms. He now gives dignity and importance to his followers. The gesith becomes the thegn; the companion the servant. The royal gesiths are strongly marked out from the gesiths of the ealdorman or bishop, who are merely his retainers or wards. Ultimately large grants of land reward the services of the faithful thegn. [Thegn.] A new nobility of service ultimately develops from the *comitatus*. Extinct on the continent, the *comitatus* becomes in England a chief source of feudalism. The *huscarls* of Canute reproduce the earlier gesiths of the heptarchic kings. The *gesithcundman* was a man in the rank of a gesith, and ennobled by his service.

Ghazni, The Siege of (January 21, 1839), occurred during the first Afghan War. The fort was garrisoned by 3,000 men commanded by Hyder Khan, the son of Dost Mohammed. A nephew of Dost Mohammed turned traitor and gave an accurate description of the condition and character of the defences. It was determined to blow up the gate, and then rush into the fortress. Nine hundred pounds of powder, packed in bags, were conveyed under cover of darkness to the gate and successfully exploded. Colonel Dennie rushed in with the storming party over the debris, and drove back the enemy who were hastily assembling behind the breach, and a mortal struggle ensued which lasted some hours. At dawn of day the British ensign floated over the citadel of Ghazni, which was thus won with a loss of 180 men. [Afghan Wars.]

Sir J. Kaye, "Afghan War," 4th edn., 1890.

Ghent, Peace of (December 24, 1814). [American War, 1812–15.]

Ghilzais, The, are inhabitants of the province lying to the north-east of Kandahar. They have been the most resolute opponents of every invader, and have never submitted to the rulers of Kabul or Kandahar, but have continued their hereditary profession of levying blackmail on all who traverse their mountains.

Gibbet Rutts was the scene of an unfortunate massacre of a body of Irish rebels during the rebellion of 1798. Sir James Duff advanced on the camp from Limerick, and the garrison offered to surrender, but by some accident a gun was discharged, and the troops, fearing treachery, charged with the bayonet, and killed over 200 of the rebels (May 26, 1798).

P. F. Kavanagh, "The Rebellion of 1798," 1913.

Gibraltar, a promontory at the entrance to the Mediterranean, is situated in the Spanish province of Andalusia. The natural strength of the position—it is, in fact, the key of the Mediterranean—attracted attention at a very early date. From 711 to the beginning of the fourteenth century it was in the hands of the Saracens, by whom it was again retaken from the Spaniards, in 1309. In 1411 the rock was taken by the Moorish King of Granada, and in 1462 fell into the hands of the Spaniards, by whom it was formally annexed, 1502. In 1704 a combined British and Dutch fleet, under Sir George Rooke (q.v.), compelled the governor, the Marquis de Salines, to surrender, and Gibraltar has ever since remained in the possession of the British, sustaining a well-conducted siege in 1705. In 1713 it was formally ceded to Great Britain by the Treaty of Utrecht. Many attempts have been made by the Spaniards to recover so important a position. In 1718

Stanhope was almost induced to surrender what he regarded as of little value and an insuperable obstacle to peace with Spain. In 1720 a projected attack, under the Marquis of Leda, came to nothing, and in 1727 the Count de la Torres and 20,000 men also failed to take the rock. In 1757 Pitt was willing to surrender the rock if the Spaniards would help in the recapture of Minorca from the French; but they persevered in neutrality, and in 1761 joined the Family Compact (q.v.), largely in consequence of a desire to win it back. The most famous siege of Gibraltar lasted from 1779 to 1783 and was undertaken by a combined force of Spaniards and French, which was successfully withstood by the British under General Eliott (q.v.), afterwards Lord Heathfield; a siege almost unparalleled in the annals of ancient or modern warfare. The possession of Gibraltar gives Great Britain a commanding attitude at the entrance to the Mediterranean. The administration is in the hands of a military governor who exercises all legislative power.

Spilsbury, "Journal of Siege of Gibraltar, 1779–83," 1908; J. Drinkwater, "Siege of Gibraltar," 1905; Sir J. S. Corbett, "England in the Mediterranean, 1603–1713," vol. ii, 1904.

Giffard, William (*d.* 1129), who was probably related to Walter Giffard, Earl of Buckingham, was chancellor under William II and Henry I. He was appointed to the bishopric of Winchester by Henry I in 1100, although his consecration was delayed until 1107, as a result of the dispute between Henry and Anselm over lay investiture. He introduced the Cistercians into England, and founded the first Cistercian house at Waverley in Surrey (1128). Contemporary historians describe him as a man of true piety and gentleness.

Gifford, Gilbert (1561?–90), a Jesuit, was induced, during the reign of Elizabeth, to turn traitor to his friends by Walsingham's bribes. The treasonable correspondence of the Queen of Scots passed through his hands for delivery, and copies were taken by him, and sent at once to Walsingham. By this means the details of every Catholic plot were made known to the ministers almost as soon as conceived.

Gilbert, Sir Humphrey (1539?–83), a half-brother of Sir Walter Ralegh and nephew of Catherine Ashley, by whom he was introduced to the notice of Queen Elizabeth, first distinguished himself as a soldier in the expedition to Havre, 1563, and subsequently was made governor of Munster. In 1578, having obtained from Elizabeth a patent empowering him to take possession of any unappropriated lands he might discover, he sailed to North America, but returned without accomplishing anything. In 1583 he again set out on a voyage of discovery, and took possession of Newfoundland, but whilst on his return was lost with all his crew.

H. Samson, "Sir Humphrey Gilbert," 1921.

Gilbertines, The. [Sempringham, The Order of.]

Gilds. Following Dr. Gross's arrangement, it is convenient to make a division of gilds into three classes: (1) The religious and social fraternity; (2) The gild merchant; (3) The craft gild and mystery.

1. The Religious and Social Gild. This is the class which is met with first in England; in fact the one thing common to all the gilds of which we have knowledge before the Conquest is their non-trading character. It does not follow, of course, that no mercantile gilds existed in Anglo-Saxon times. What we do find evidence of are clubs of knights, or fighting men, formed "for religious and convivial purposes," and associations for mutual assistance in distress, banqueting, the maintenance of a standard of moral conduct, and so on. The *Judicia Civitatis Londoniæ* of the time of Athelstan describes itself as "ordained and confirmed by the bishops and reeves of London among our *frithgegildas* (brethren of a peace gild), as well eorlish as ceorlish," to supplement the decrees of recent witenagemots. It provides for common banquets, and the [singing of funeral psalms. But its chief object is the enforcement of mutual defence; payment is made towards a common insurance and police fund; directions are given for the pursuit of thieves and the exaction of compensation; and the members are arranged in bodies of tens and hundreds under headmen. While social and religious gilds existed to the close of the Middle Ages, there is no mention of frith-gilds after the Conquest. Some of these early associations may have had a continuous history over the ridge of the Norman Conquest, and gained a more commercial character, thus becoming merchant gilds. Religious gilds appear to have been formed frequently throughout the Middle Ages and to have flourished in many towns, founding schools, keeping up roads, and acting as charitable associations and friendly societies. In 1547 the funds of the religious gilds, and the religious funds of the other gilds (many gilds had a semi-religious character), were confiscated.

2. The Gild Merchant, or Hansa (*gilda mercatoria, ceapmanne gilde*). The earliest reference to a merchant gild is in the charter given to the town of Burford (1087–1107) by its lord. After this, evidence grows thick. Altogether, some hundred towns must have had merchant gilds, and among these it was in the smaller boroughs that this form of association became the most important and powerful institution. Certain large towns, like London, Norwich, and the Cinque Ports, seem never to have had one. It may have been that with their bigger and more varied trade a gild merchant would have been unwieldy. Although the gild was "an official organ or department of the borough administration" and was recognized as such in borough charters, it was

nevertheless a distinct organization; it had a later birth than the burghal entity, and, as gildsmen, its members were concerned only with the care of the town's trade, not with its civil and military government. In a few cases it has been difficult to distinguish the gild from the town government, partly because the personnel of the two was almost identical. A fundamental privilege of the gild merchant was the right of its members to exclusive trade, both wholesale and retail, within the town, without toll or hindrance. Protection from competition was thus one of the reasons for its formation. In practice it was useless to attempt a complete exclusion of foreign (i.e., extra-burghal) merchants, and these would generally be admitted to part of the trade under certain conditions. Some royal charters gave the members of merchant gilds exemption from toll throughout the kingdom, and thus "the grant of incompatible privileges to rival communities was a source of profit to the mediæval monarchy; the Crown secured payment in hand for the charters, and reaped the benefit of the inevitable dispute that followed." There was a certain communal quality about the relations of gild members. The right of Lot gave each the privilege of sharing in any purchase made by one of his fellows. In Southampton it was ordained that "a gildsman shall have a share in all the merchandise which another gildsman buys, if he is on the spot where the merchandise is bought." The officials of the gild, generally an alderman supported by two or more wardens or masters, had sundry duties to perform. The gild was responsible for the supervision of manufactures and the fixing of wages, until its functions were taken over by craft gilds. It had to carry out a number of charitable obligations when its members in one way or another came to grief; it had to take responsibility for its members' debts, which were a not infrequent cause of inter-municipal strife. Its court met regularly and strove to control the town's trade. The great period of the merchant gild in England was that covered by the reigns of Henry II, his sons and his grandson. In the fourteenth century the merchant gild is in decay and many of its functions are already being undertaken by industrial fellowships organized according to their trading functions. The "aggregate of the crafts superseded the old general gild merchant" (Gross). In some few places the gild merchant, shorn of many of its ancient privileges, survived for centuries.

3. The Craft Gild and Mystery. The problem of the origin of the craft gild has not the constitutional importance as that which pertains to the gild merchant. We shall not go far wrong in supposing that the craft gild arose spontaneously in a number of places round about the first quarter of the twelfth century as a result of the call for more specialization in the organization of industry and retail trading. The process began in the textile and leather industries, where considerable division of labour was already practised, and the first mention of the craft gild occurs in the Pipe Roll of 1130. The purpose of the association was the protection of a single local industry and not (at least yet) of local trade as a whole. In consequence of a division of interests and of the claim of yet another form of organization to a share in local political control it was inevitable that there should be friction between craft gild and town government. The craft gilds were seldom successful in winning more than conditions for a stable existence in the town's economy, for they encountered much opposition from borough authority, they were weakened by their own rivalries, and in some cases their growing importance stimulated the antagonism of the merchant gild. But any struggle there may have been between the craftsmen and the local aristocracy, whether of commerce or chivalry, had little of the bitterness of the great conflicts on the continent, and the view which was once held that the craft gilds forced their way in England to positions of predominance by dint of fierce attacks on the power of the merchant gilds is now discredited. Where the merchant gild existed, the master craftsman of the craft was probably a member. The master craftsman was a member of one of the three main classes of his own gild. Under him, but not necessarily as his social subordinates, were the journeyman and the apprentice. "The trade gilds became completely self-governing, and imposed on their members minute regulations as to trade processes and personal morality. In was an industry of small shops and of general equality; for each master employed only two or three workmen (who earned at least half as much as he did, and might fairly hope to become masters in their turn), together with an apprentice or so. But with the beginning of the fifteenth century it became in some crafts very difficult to rise to the position of master, and there are traces of the formation of separate yeomen's—i.e., journeymen's—gilds." Industrial control was the main activity of the craft organization. It existed to protect the consumer against defective wares, advancing a claim, in so doing, to the support of the local authorities; it existed, further, to protect the members of the craft against the disloyalty of those who might be tempted to employ cheap or unskilled labour. Its ordinances regulated the hours and conditions of work and the charges imposed on customers. The length and terms of apprenticeship were fixed by common agreement. Religious and social functions were secondary to these, although the association might often have its beginnings as a religious fraternity and maintain thereafter an elaborate programme of ritual observance. The craftsmen's plays and pageants in large towns like York and Chester and Coventry have left interesting material for the student of mediæval social life. The craft gild also under-

took the functions of a friendly society and provided arbitration machinery for members involved in mutual disputes.

In the fourteenth century the craft gilds approached as near as they ever did to the ideal condition of mediæval craft organization. But already the formation of societies to protect the interests of the journeyman indicates a change of balance in distributive justice, and in the same period we begin to notice those complex changes in the interrelations of the separate gilds which the late Professor Unwin has so brilliantly analysed. The tendency was for a class of capitalist employers to obtain control of the craft. Processes were often numerous, and in the various steps in the passage of an article from raw material to marketable commodity the members of several gilds were frequently employed. Those engaged in a certain process would gain predominance and hand out work to the others. Sometimes a gild which had found this way to prosperity would become a purely trading organization, keeping the industrial processes under its control. In 1517 the Leathersellers of London had swallowed up the Glovers, the Pursers, the Whitetawyers, and the Pouchmakers. In other cases (e.g., in the cutlery trades) a single industrial group destroyed the independence of the other crafts engaged in a chain of production. In the fifteenth century a good many of the smaller crafts, which were often specialized to a ridiculous degree, disappeared entirely or were absorbed by others which had acquired big capital resources. Sometimes a number would combine for predatory or, more generally, for defensive purposes. Especially in London are the changes noticeable. The fifteenth century saw the rise of the great livery companies, which included many crafts and, growing powerful, sought legal incorporation. "In some towns all the crafts were consolidated into a single fraternity; in this case a body was reproduced which regulated the whole trade monopoly of the borough, and hence bore some resemblance to the old gild merchant." Elsewhere several groups remained, and industrial and commercial capital struggled for control. Attempts were made to compel these masters' organizations to submit to supervision. A series of acts of the late fifteenth and early sixteenth centuries made it necessary for gilds to seek confirmation of their ordinances by municipal and, later, by national authority; an act of 1536 forbade restrictive agreements on the part of masters to prevent apprentices and journeymen starting in trade on their own account; another in 1531 instituted maxima above which no fees should be charged to youths entering or leaving apprenticeship.

The beginning of the break-up of the gild system is clearly perceptible in the Tudor period. New industries, or old ones re-established on a more effective basis outside the towns, challenged the old traditions. Within many of the gilds themselves the journeymen and sometimes the smaller masters were forced into an inferior organization, under the control of the mercantile element. At the end of the sixteenth century the small industrial craftsmen were often in revolt. When strong enough they succeeded in breaking away and in setting up a new fellowship. But those who were not independent masters were never powerful enough to recover their old position as partners in a mutual brotherhood of employers and employed. In the seventeenth century trade unions first make their appearance. [Boroughs; Burgess; Trade Unions; Apprentices.]

Lipson, "Economic History"; Ashley, "Economic History"; Boissonnade, "Life and Work in Mediæval Europe"; Gross, "The Gild Merchant"; article on *Gilds* by the same author in "Encyclopædia Britannica," 1911; Ballard, and Ballard and Tait, "British Borough Charters," 2 vols.; Maitland, "Township and Borough"; Dormer-Harris, Introduction to "Coventry Leet Book" (Early English Text Society); Green, "English Town Life in the Fifteenth Century"; Dunlop, "English Apprenticeship and Child Labour"; Hearnshaw, "Southampton Court Leet Records"; Unwin, "Gilds and Companies of London," and "Industrial Organization in the Sixteenth and Seventeenth Centuries"; Chambers, "The Mediæval Stage"; Kramer, "English Craft Gilds and the Government"; Renard, "Gilds in the Middle Ages"; Bland, Brown, and Tawney, "Select Documents."

[A. V. J.]

Gin Act, The (1736), was proposed by Sir Joseph Jekyll, in order to check drunkenness. He advocated a prohibitive duty of 20s. on every gallon sold by retail, and £50 yearly for a licence to every retailer. The measure was disliked by Walpole, who inserted a clause that £70,000 should be granted to the king to compensate him for the consequent diminution of the civil list. The act was repealed in 1743; and a new bill was passed, by which "a small duty per gallon was laid on spirits at the still head, and the price of licences reduced to 20s."

Ginkel, Godert de, Earl of Athlone (1630–1703), was one of the Dutch officers who accompanied William of Orange to England. In 1689 he reduced some Scottish regiments which had mutinied at Harwich when under orders to be in readiness to cross to the continent. He accompanied William to Ireland, and commanded a body of horse at the battle of the Boyne. When William left Ireland, Ginkel was appointed commander-in-chief. He reduced Ballymore without difficulty and proceeded to lay siege to Athlone, which he carried by assault, and subsequently won the victory of Aghrim (q.v.) over St. Ruth. This victory completed the conquest of Ireland (July 12). Ginkel then besieged Limerick, which he captured (October 2), and granted fairly favourable terms to the defenders. A violent dispute arose between Ginkel and Sarsfield, the Jacobite leader, as to the destination of the Irish troops; till at length it was decided that they might make their choice between England and France. For these

services Ginkel was created Earl of Athlone. The small estate that was given him in Ireland for his services was one of the objects of the Commons' attack in 1700. [Resumption Bill.] After the declaration of war with France he competed unsuccessfully against the Duke of Marlborough for the position of commander of the Dutch forces. Before the arrival of the great duke in Flanders, his clever occupation of Nimeguen prevented its seizure by Marshal Boufflers. Ginkel had little knowledge or understanding of English feelings and institutions; but his abilities as a general were certainly conspicuous.

Gipsies in England. The gipsies first appeared in England in 1514, and in Scotland rather earlier. In 1531 an act banished them from England, and in 1540 from Scotland, under pain of death. Henry VIII, as a milder measure, shipped some gipsies to Norway. A statute of 1562 made even intercourse with gipsies felony; and in 1592 five men were hanged at Durham "for being Egyptians." Not till 1783 was the act of 1592 repealed. In Scotland there are cases of executions of gipsies, for no other crime than their origin, in 1611 and 1636. Since 1866 gipsies have become Rumanian citizens.

H. T. Crofton, "English Gipsies Under the Tudors," 1886; D. MacRitchie, "Scottish Gipsies Under the Stewarts," 1894.

Girig, the son of Dungal, was associated with Eocha, son of Run, in the government of the Pictish kingdom (878–89). He is the hero of many stories, mostly dubious. He is said to have freed his country from the Danes, to have overrun Lothian, and to have subjugated Ireland; while, in consideration of certain privileges conferred on the monks of St. Andrews, he has been called "the Liberator of the Scottish Church."

Gisors, The Treaty of (1113), was concluded between Henry I and Louis VI of France, by which Louis resigned his claims to the overlordship of Brittany, Belesme, and Maine to Henry.

Gladstone, William Ewart (1809–98), son of Sir J. Gladstone, a Liverpool merchant, was born in Liverpool and educated at Eton and Oxford. He entered parliament in 1832 as Conservative member for Newark, and soon distinguished himself as an orator. He became a junior lord of the treasury under Peel in 1835, and in 1841 vice-president of the board of trade and master of the mint. When Newark rejected him on account of his free-trade principles he migrated to Oxford University until the fall of Peel. His reputation as a financier had meanwhile been achieved by the revised tariff of 1842, which had been largely his work. From 1847 until 1852 he studied the Italian question, and in 1851 wrote his famous letter to Aberdeen on the Neapolitan prisons. Under Aberdeen he was chancellor of the exchequer (1852); and when Roebuck's motion and the disasters of the Crimean War drove him into opposition he resisted the Divorce Bill of 1857. In 1858 he was sent by Derby on a special mission to the Ionian Islands, whose union with Greece (achieved in 1864) he warmly advocated. Next year he returned to the exchequer under Palmerston, when the financial experience which he had gained under Peel bore fruit in a series of notable budgets. On Palmerston's death Gladstone became leader of the House of Commons (1865) and (a Liberal now and representing South-west Lancashire) introduced the Reform Bill of 1866, which temporarily ousted the government until it returned on the Irish Church agitation. In 1868 he became prime minister. Gladstone's first ministry (1868–74) is notable in domestic politics for the Irish Church Disestablishment Act (1869), the first Irish Land Act (1870), the Elementary Education Act of 1870, the reform of the army, the abolition of religious tests in universities, and the Judicature Act (1873). In foreign affairs the ministry preserved a neutral attitude throughout the Franco-Prussian War (1870–1), concluding a treaty with each belligerent for the preservation of Belgian independence; harboured the Black Sea Conference of January 1871; and concluded the Treaty of Washington (q.v.). Gladstone resigned in 1874, and until his second administration he occupied himself chiefly with the Bulgarian massacres of 1876, the Balkan wars of 1875–7, the Treaty of Berlin (1878), and the Afghan and Zulu Wars (1879). His famous Midlothian campaign occurred in 1880. His second administration (1880–5) was concerned at home chiefly with Irish affairs—in particular the second Land Act of 1881 and the Phœnix Park murders—and with the Franchise Act of 1884, the Redistribution Act of 1885, and the Inland Revenue Bill of 1885. Attention abroad was concentrated in Egypt and Afghanistan: Gladstone stoutly resisted the claims of Arabi Pasha, and was alarmed in 1885 by the danger of Russian expansion in Afghanistan. [Panjdeh.] On his resignation in 1885 his party suffered in the general election as a result of its Egyptian policy and the death of Gordon. Gladstone returned to power in 1886, but fell again on his first Home Rule Bill. His fourth administration (1892–4) succeeded in passing the (second) Home Rule Bill. In 1895 he withdrew from public life, only emerging in 1896 to denounce the Armenian massacres. He died on May 19, 1898.

Biographies by G. W. E. Russell, 1891, and Lord Morley, 1903, cheap edition 1911; monographs by Sir E. Hamilton, 1898, and S. Buxton, 1901; P. Knaplund, "Gladstone and Britain's Imperial Policy," 1927. [A. C. F. B.]

Glamorgan Treaty, The (1645). Charles I, in 1644, unable to turn the Cessation (q.v.) to the advantage he had expected, and Ormonde being unwilling to grant more to the Catholics, sent Lord Herbert, son of the Marquis of Worcester, to Ireland, creating him at the

same time Earl of Glamorgan. He was entrusted with a commission sealed with the king's private signet, dated March 12, 1645, at Oxford, authorizing him to grant all the Catholics might demand, if they would send over 10,000 men to his aid. Glamorgan arrived at Kilkenny and concluded a public and a secret treaty with the Catholics (August 25 and December 20). By the first the demands that a Catholic deputation had made at Oxford in 1644 were granted. These were: the abolition of the Catholic disabilities of Poynings' Law, a general amnesty, and a period of limitation for all inquiries into the titles of land. The secret treaty granted to the Catholics the public exercise of their religion in all churches not actually in possession of the State Church; in return, 10,000 men under Glamorgan were to join the king in England, and two-thirds of the Church revenues were to be set aside to provide for their pay. This secret treaty was discovered among the papers of the Catholic Archbishop of Tuam, on his repulse from before Sligo. After this discovery, January 29, 1646, the king sent a message to the two Houses, denying that Glamorgan had any such powers; he wrote to Ormonde in the same strain. There can be no doubt, however, that Glamorgan only fulfilled the king's instructions.

Glanvill, Ranulf de, a famous judge, statesman, and administrator of Henry II's reign. He first appears as sheriff of Yorkshire between 1163 and 1170. In 1174 he did much to save the north from the revolt of feudal barons and the Scottish invasion, and was present at Alnwick. He succeeded Richard de Lucy as justiciar in 1180, and continued in office till Henry's death. It is probable that Glanvill inspired some of Henry's legal reforms. Richard I displaced him from office and compelled him to pay the enormous fine of £15,000. This was the end of his political career. He accompanied Richard on crusade and died at Acre in 1190. He has been generally credited with the authorship of the important treatise "De Legibus et Consuetudinibus Angliæ," which appears to have been completed about 1187; but although the book may have been written under his supervision, it is improbable that it was actually his own composition. It is of great importance as the earliest treatise on English law, and throws much light on many reforms of Henry II, of which otherwise we should know very little; and it long remained the standard text-book for English lawyers.

Glasgow owes its origin to the establishment in the sixth century by Kentigern, the apostle of Strathclyde, of a church which became the seat of a bishopric. The town which grew up round the see was in the domain of the bishop. In 1450 Bishop Turnbull founded the university. In 1491 the see was made an archbishopric. Alone of the Scottish cathedrals the church survived the Reformation. In 1638 a famous general assembly at Glasgow accepted the Covenant. The Treaty of Union first gave Glasgow importance as a port, by opening to Scotland the colonial trade. Since then the city has rapidly increased. It rivalled Bristol in the tobacco trade, and, when that was diverted by the American War of Independence, Glasgow industry took new channels. At last Glasgow became the great manufacturing centre of Scotland, while the improvement of the Clyde (chiefly since 1840) made it the first port.

G. E. Todd, "The Story of Glasgow," 1911.

Glassites, The, were members of a Scottish sectarian body which originated about 1730, when its leader, John Glas, was driven from his parish by the general assembly for a heresy on the kingdom of Christ. Glas taught the "voluntary principle" for the first time in Scotland, and his system of church government was practically congregational. Robert Sandeman, one of Glas's followers, gave another name to the sect and distinguished it by his doctrine of faith as "bare belief of the bare truth." The public worship of this small sect is of a peculiar character.

P. Hume Brown, "History of Scotland," 1911.

Glastonbury Abbey. The early history of this great monastic foundation is obscured by a mass of legend; but of its great antiquity there can be no doubt. It is perhaps the only monastic settlement which "carried the traditions of the British Church in unbroken sequence down to Saxon times." Dismissing the fable of its foundation by Joseph of Arimathæa, we have sufficient evidence that it existed long before the conquests of the western districts of Cenwealh and Ine under English sway. It was famed as the burying-place of Arthur, who was almost certainly the donor of the land known as Brent Knoll (*Mons Ranarum*). After Ine's second foundation, Dunstan's famous reformation and introduction of the Benedictine rule is the next great event in the history of the abbey. The church was rebuilt by Dunstan (946–57), the abbot Herlewin (1101–20), and by King Henry II. At the end of the twelfth century there began a long struggle between the Bishop of Bath and the monks, who eventually succeeded in securing the independence of their abbey (1218–19). It became immensely rich and influential. Its last abbot, Richard Whiting, was hanged by Henry VIII as a traitor, on the top of Glastonbury Tor (1539).

"Victoria County History: Somerset," vol. ii; J. A. Robinson, "Two Glastonbury Legends," 1926.

Glen Malure, The Battle of (1580), was fought in the Wicklow Mountains. Lord Grey de Wilton here suffered a severe repulse from the Irish septs.

Glencairn, Earls of. [Cunningham.]

Glencoe, The Massacre of (February 13, 1692), has left a dark stain on the reign of William III. The civil war continued to

smoulder in the Highlands for several years after the death of Dundee. The management of affairs in Scotland was at this time in the hands of the Dalrymples (q.v.). Viscount Stair, their head, was president of the Court of Session, and Sir John Dalrymple, the Master of Stair, was secretary for Scotland. A proclamation was issued promising pardon to all who should swear, before December 31, 1691, to live peaceably under the existing government. Macdonald of Glencoe, who dwelt at the mouth of a ravine near the south shore of Lochleven, deemed it a point of honour to take the oath as late as possible. On the appointed day he went to Fort William, but, finding no magistrate there, he had to go to Inverary, which he did not reach until January 6. This delay gave his enemies, the Campbells, a pretext for destroying him. Argyll and Breadalbane plotted with the Master of Stair. William was not informed that Macdonald had taken the oath at all. An order was laid before him for the commander-in-chief, in which were the words, "It will be proper for the vindication of public justice to extirpate that set of thieves." The excuse usually advanced for William, that he signed the order without reading it, is probably true, but it is at best a lame one. The order was remorselessly executed. A band of soldiers were sent to the glen, where they were hospitably received by the Macdonalds. At last, on a given day (February 13, 1692), the passes having been stopped by previous arrangement, the soldiers fell upon their entertainers. A failure in the plan led to the escape of many; but the houses were destroyed, the cattle stolen, and thirty-eight men killed on the spot. Others perished of want or cold on the mountains. The effect of the massacre was to promote better feeling between highlands and lowlands and so remove a great obstacle to Scottish national unity.

See articles DALRYMPLE for authorities; and P. Hume Brown, "History of Scotland," 1911.

Glendower, OWEN, or GLYNDWR; more accurately, GLYNDYFRDWY; called in his own time OWAIN AP GRUFFYD (1359?–1416?), was reputed a descendant of Llewelyn, the last native prince of Wales. He inherited considerable estates in Merioneth, and, coming to London, entered one of the Inns of Court, and subsequently became squire to Henry of Bolingbroke, afterwards Henry IV. A persistent tradition has associated him with Richard II rather than with his rival; and Welsh authorities assert that he accompanied Richard on his Irish campaign and was captured with him in 1399 at Flint Castle. The immediate causes of his hostility to Henry IV must, however, be sought elsewhere than in loyalty to the deposed king. Lord Grey of Ruthin, one of the lords marchers, and Glendower's neighbour, appropriated some of Owen's lands, and the latter's appeal to parliament was disregarded. Provoked by further injustice at the hands of Grey, Owen in 1400 took up arms, and, assuming the title of Prince of Wales, ravaged the lands of his enemy, and bursting into the Marches, wrought great havoc there. The Welsh, whose agrarian grievances were serious, repaired to him in thousands, and the strong Edwardian castles of Conway, Ruthin, and Hawarden soon fell into his hands. Early in 1401 Owen turned his attention to South Wales. Next year he repulsed three formidable armies led against him by Henry IV in person. Among the prisoners taken by him at Pilleth was Sir Edmund Mortimer, uncle of the young Earl of March; a capture which led him to enter in 1403 into a treaty with the Mortimers and Percys having for its object the overthrow of Henry. This alliance was dissolved by the battle of Shrewsbury, but Glendower continued the contest; and official record remains of many acts that prove the reality of his power in Wales. He displaced the Bishop of Bangor, and appointed with the concurrence of the Avignon pope a partisan of his own; and the Bishop of St. Asaph was his ambassador to the French king, with whom he made a treaty in 1405. It was probably in this year that he concerted with Northumberland and Mortimer plans for a tripartite division of England. Receiving aid from France and Scotland, he captured many English towns and castles, and at one time penetrated with his forces as far as Worcester. In perpetual inroads he harried all the Marches in a most merciless way. By the end of 1405, however, his influence had begun to wane. His armies suffered several heavy defeats, and South Wales was reconquered by Henry in 1408, but Owen still held out in the mountains of the north. Henry V, when about to embark on his expedition against France, endeavoured to enter into an arrangement with him, and twice offered him free pardon. But Owen never submitted, and died, probably in 1416, still maintaining his independence. His objects were the political and ecclesiastical independence of Wales, and the revival of learning by the creation of two national universities. In personal character and disinterestedness of aim he contrasts sharply with his contemporaries.

Biographies by A. J. Bradley, 1901, and D. R. Phillips, 1915.

Glenelg, CHARLES GRANT, LORD (1778–1866). [GRANT.]

Glenfruin, THE BATTLE OF, or "Slaughter of the Lennox" (February 7, 1604), is the name given to a sudden incursion of the Macgregors and other clans into the Lennox, and their slaughter of about 80 Lennox men; an affray for which James I never forgave them.

P. Hume Brown, "History of Scotland," 1911.

Glenlivet, THE BATTLE OF (October 4, 1594), was fought near Aberdeen, between the forces of James VI, commanded by the Earl of Argyll, and the rebellious Earls of Huntly and Errol. The rebels were inferior

in numbers, but were well armed and well led, and defeated Argyll's troops.

Glenmarreston, The Battle of (Mureston Water, flowing from the Pentland Hills), was fought in 638. Donald Brec, King of Dalriada, was defeated by the Angles.

Gloucester was the Roman municipality or "colonia" of Glevum, founded by Nerva (A.D. 96–8). It was early settled by the English, for Bæda speaks of it as a noble city. In 681 the monastery of St. Peter was founded here by Ethelred, and in 1022 it was brought by Bishop Wulfstan under the Benedictine rule. Gloucester was a frequent seat of courts and gemots. In 1541 it was erected into a bishopric by Henry VIII. It was united in 1836 with the see of Bristol, but separated again in 1897.

G. S. Blakeway, "The City of Gloucester," 1924.

Gloucester, Earls of. [Clare.]

Gloucester, Peerage of. Robert, a natural son of Henry I, was created Earl of Gloucester in 1122. He married Mabel, daughter and heiress of Robert Fitz-Hamon, Earl of Shrewsbury. His son William, who died 1183, transmitted the title to his three daughters: first, through the youngest, Hawise (or Isabel), to her successive husbands, John, afterwards King of England, and Geoffrey Mandeville, Earl of Essex; then to the issue of her eldest sister, Mabel, who married the Count of Evreux; and finally to the son of the second sister, Amicia, who married Gilbert de Clare, Earl of Hertford. Three generations of the de Clares were Earls of Gloucester, until the widow of the last, Johanna, daughter of Edward I, communicated the title, during her lifetime, to her second husband, Ralph de Monthermer, who, however, never acquired full comital rank. On the death of Johanna in 1307, the title passed to her son, Gilbert de Clare, killed at Bannockburn, whose second sister, Margaret, married Hugh of Audley, created Earl of Gloucester in 1337. At the latter's death, ten years later, the title was presumed to be extinct: it was, however, revived in 1397, in favour of Thomas, Lord Despenser. Thomas was degraded in 1399, when his honours became forfeit. In the meanwhile, 1385, a dukedom of Gloucester had been created for Thomas of Woodstock, sixth son of Edward III, who was succeeded by his son Humphrey. The latter died childless in 1399. Afterwards three several princes of the blood were created dukes by this title, none of whom left issue; namely (1) Humphrey, son of Henry IV, murdered in 1447; (2) Richard, brother of Edward IV, and afterwards king, and (3) Henry, youngest son of Charles I (*d.* 1660). There was a plan in 1717–18 of reviving the dukedom in favour of George I's grandson, Frederick, afterwards Prince of Wales; but this never took effect. Frederick's younger son, William Henry, however, was created Duke of Gloucester and Edinburgh, in 1764, and the peerage lasted until the death, without issue, of this prince's son, William Frederick, in 1834. [Clare.]

"G.E.C. Complete English Peerage," v, 1926.

Gloucester, Henry, Duke of (1639–1660), was the third son of Charles I and Queen Henrietta Maria. From the place of his birth he is often known as Henry of Oatlands. Charles, just before his execution, had an interview with his young son, in which he made him promise not to accept the crown from parliament to the detriment of his elder brothers. After his father's death he remained in the charge of parliament till 1652, when he was permitted to join his mother in France, Cromwell being anxious to get rid of one whom many were anxious to proclaim king. The queen exhausted all entreaties and threats to induce him to become a Romanist, but he remained staunch to his religion; and in 1654 left her and joined Charles at Cologne. In 1658 he fought in the Spanish army, and distinguished himself in the battle of Dunkirk. On the Restoration he returned to England, but died of small-pox very shortly afterwards.

Gloucester, Humphrey, Duke of (1390–1447), was the fourth son of Henry IV. He was created Duke of Gloucester in 1414, and took part in the French wars of Henry V's reign, being wounded in the battle of Agincourt. On his death-bed Henry appointed him regent of England during his son's minority, but parliament refused to allow this, and a council of regency was appointed with Bedford as protector, and in his absence from England, Gloucester. By his reckless folly in marrying Jacqueline of Hainault, and prosecuting her claims in Hainault and Zealand, Gloucester did much to alienate the Duke of Burgundy from the English, while his attempts to gain a foreign principality for himself were fruitless. In 1425 began Gloucester's quarrel with Beaufort, which continued with temporary reconciliation during the whole of his lifetime. The bright spot in Gloucester's character was his affection for his brother Bedford, who was frequently able to restrain his folly and recklessness. After Bedford's death (1435) his opposition to Beaufort became more and more violent, Gloucester representing the war party, popular in parliament and the nation, while Beaufort was the leader of the peace party, which was strongly represented in the council. It was the old struggle of the court and constitutional parties in another form. The trial and conviction for witchcraft of Eleanor Cobham, his second wife, was a great blow to Gloucester's influence, and this was still further injured when, in 1442, Henry VI came of age, and the protectorate was at an end. Suffolk and the Beauforts established themselves as the chief advisers of the Crown, and in 1447 Gloucester was accused of treason at their instigation. The merits of the case it is impossible to decide

upon; it is not improbable that Gloucester may have entertained the idea of making himself king, but on this point there is no evidence. At all events, Gloucester was suddenly arrested on February 18, 1447, at Bury St. Edmund's, and placed under arrest, and five days after was found dead in his bed. It is impossible to decide on the cause of his death; it may have arisen from chagrin, or have been the work of some person who hoped thereby to ingratiate himself with the court party, or it may (as popular legend with great probability asserted) have been caused by the orders of the Duke of Suffolk. It is certain that there is nothing to connect it with Cardinal Beaufort, who had now for several years retired from active participation in politics, and who himself died only six weeks after his ancient rival. As a patron of learning, and a benefactor to the University of Oxford, Gloucester deserves high praise, but his public and private career alike are stained with grievous errors, and his influence on English politics was only mischievous. Still, he was popular with the literary men for his patronage of learning, and with the people for his advocacy of a spirited foreign policy. From these causes he was known as the "good Duke Humphrey."

K. H. Vickers, "Humphrey, Duke of Gloucester," 1907.

Gloucester, Robert, Earl of (*d.* 1147), natural son of Henry I, was the great supporter of the claims of his half-sister Matilda against Stephen. In 1139 he landed in England, and became the empress's commander-in-chief during the war that ensued. In February 1141 he relieved Lincoln and captured Stephen, only to be himself captured at Stockbridge seven months later. Soon after he was exchanged for Stephen, and resumed the active conduct of the war. He died of fever at Bristol in 1147, having lived long enough to witness the collapse of the Angevin cause. He married the heiress of Fitz-Hamon, and so added the lordship of Glamorgan to the earldom of Gloucester.

Gloucester, Thomas of Woodstock, Duke of (1355–97), was the youngest son of Edward III. He married Eleanor de Bohun, elder daughter and co-heiress of Humphrey, Earl of Hereford, Essex, and Northampton. In 1377 he was created Earl of Buckingham, and in 1380 he became in his wife's right Earl of Essex. Five years later he was created Duke of Gloucester. He served in the French wars, and on his return to England in 1381 took a leading part in the affairs of state. The unpopularity of John of Gaunt, caused by his abandoning the traditional policy of the house of Lancaster in favour of a court policy, and his subsequent absence from England during his fruitless expeditions to Spain, made Thomas the natural leader of the constitutional opposition. His chief aim seems to have been his own aggrandizement, though the misgovernment and extravagance of the king gave him sufficient excuse for interfering. The heavy taxation demanded for the expenses of the French war gave Gloucester the opportunity he desired, and in 1386 he threatened the king with deposition unless he consented to the impeachment of his chief minister, de la Pole, and the appointment of a commission of reform. Richard consented for the time, but attempted, directly parliament was dissolved, to raise a force and assert his independence. But Gloucester was superior in strength, and the king's friends were either executed or obliged to seek safety in flight. Gloucester was the leading spirit in the Merciless Parliament (1388) (q.v.), and practically ruled the kingdom till 1389, when Richard declared himself of age to manage his own affairs, and assumed the government himself. By John of Gaunt's influence a reconciliation was effected between Gloucester and the king, and matters went on smoothly enough—though Gloucester held somewhat aloof from the court—till 1397, when Richard exacted his long-deferred revenge. Alleging that Gloucester was plotting against him, Richard secured the duke's arrest at Pleshey Castle. He was shipped forthwith to Calais, and when parliament met in September it was informed that the duke was dead. There can be little doubt that he was murdered by Richard's orders. A confession extorted from him on the day before his death was read in parliament, and he was declared guilty of treason and his estates and goods forfeited.

Gloucester, William, Duke of (1689–1700), was the son of Prince George of Denmark and Princess (afterwards Queen) Anne. He was informally created duke soon after his birth. The untimely death of the young prince—a boy of great promise—was received with sorrow by the nation. It necessitated the passing of the Act of Settlement.

Glynne, John (1603–66), eldest son of Sir William Glynne, of Carnarvonshire, was educated at Westminster School and at Oxford, attained great reputation as a lawyer, and represented Westminster in the Long Parliament. He was a strong Presbyterian, took a prominent part in the attack on the bishops and helped to draw up the charge against Laud and conduct the trial of Strafford. In June 1647 he was one of the members whose punishment was demanded by the army, and was expelled from parliament till the summer of 1648, when he was restored, only to be expelled again by Pride's Purge (q.v.). He sat in both of Cromwell's parliaments, presided at Penruddock's trial (1655), and supported the offer of the crown to the protector. In July 1655 he became chief justice, and held the post till the fall of Richard Cromwell. He assisted in promoting the Restoration, and on the return of Charles II was made king's serjeant and knighted. He was employed in the prosecution of the regicides, and in Vane's trial. Public opinion condemned him as a renegade, and re-

joiced in an accident which befell him on the day of the coronation.

Goderich, Frederick John Robinson, Viscount (1782–1859). [Robinson.]

Godfrey, Sir Edmund Berry (1621–78), was a London magistrate, before whom Titus Oates made a deposition concerning the Popish Plot. Some three weeks after this deposition was made, Godfrey was found dead in a ditch near Primrose Hill (October 17), with his own sword run through his body, a livid crease round his neck, and his pockets unrifled. It was at once assumed that he had been murdered by Roman Catholics, but there is not even now sufficient evidence to prove whether a Romanist was guilty or whether the crime was committed by the party of Titus Oates to further their own ends. Three of the queen's servants were tried for the murder, and executed. The Popish Plot agitation really began in the excitement which Godfrey's murder caused.

A. Marks, " Who Killed Sir E. Godfrey ? " 1905.

Godfrey (Guthred) **MacWilliam** (*d.* 1212) was the son of Donald Bane MacWilliam, and, like his father, attempted, in 1211, to wrest the Scottish crown from William the Lion. The royal troops under the Earls of Atholl and Fife achieved various successes, but the rebellion was not crushed until Godfrey was betrayed into the hands of the Earl of Buchan and beheaded at Kincardine (1212).

Godolphin, Sidney, Lord, afterwards Earl (1645–1712), was educated as a page at Whitehall. He held various offices at the court of Charles II, including that of groom of the bedchamber, and sat in parliament for Helston. In 1678 he was sent as envoy to Holland, and on his return was sworn of the privy council. In 1679 he was placed on the treasury commission. In 1680 he supported the Exclusion Bill, and persuaded Charles to dismiss the Duke of York to Scotland before parliament met. He became secretary of state in 1684, and in the same year, on the resignation of Rochester, he took his place on the commission of the treasury. On the accession of James he was removed from the treasury, and made chamberlain to the queen. In his official capacity he did not scruple to conform to Roman Catholic observances. In 1687, on the fall of the Hydes, he was again placed on the treasury commission. He was sent as a commissioner to treat with William. On the accession of William and Mary, the treasury business was placed in his hands. In 1690 he resigned, but was recalled as first commissioner against the will of Carmarthen. He had a large share of William's confidence, but influenced by Marlborough, he intrigued with the Jacobites, especially with Middleton, James's secretary of state. He was implicated in the confession of Sir John Fenwick (q.v.); but William, with great magnanimity, ignored the charges brought against him. But the Whigs resolved to drive him from office, and were successful. In 1700 he was recalled to the king's councils; but on the fall of his party, in the last year of William's reign, he was again dismissed. On the accession of Anne he was made lord treasurer, through the influence of Marlborough, whose daughter had married Godolphin's eldest son. In 1708 Godolphin, seeing that his attempt at a composite ministry was a failure, determined to join the Whigs. He was compelled to dismiss Harley and the moderate Tories. For the rest of his administration he was under the rule of the Whig junto. In 1710 he agreed to Sunderland's advice and impeached Sacheverell. The popular outcry proved that the queen and the Tories might venture to upset the ministry. Without Godolphin being consulted, Shrewsbury was made lord chamberlain. Godolphin swallowed the insult; but the dismissal of Sunderland was shortly followed by his own. During the tumult that followed Sacheverell's trial both he and Marlborough intrigued with the Jacobite court at St. Germains. He died of the stone on September 15, 1712.

H. F. Elliot, " Life of Godolphin," 1888; and biography by Spencer Walpole.

Godwin (Godwine), Earl (c. 990 ?–1053), was, according to the most probable account, the son of Wulfnoth, the South Saxon who was outlawed in 1009. Of his early life nothing certain is known, but from 1018 onwards we find him witnessing charters as *dux*, and shortly after marrying the king's cousin Gytha. In 1020 he was made Earl of the West Saxons, and towards the end of the reign of Canute he enjoyed a position in the realm second only to that of the king himself. On the death of Canute, Godwin at first espoused the cause of Hardicanute, and when the latter obtained Wessex he became one of the chief advisers of Emma, who acted as regent. It was at this time that Alfred the son of Ethelred came to England, and was murdered by Harold Harefoot. It seems impossible in the face of the evidence of contemporary writers to doubt that Godwin betrayed the young Etheling to Harold, though the accusation of complicity in Alfred's death, which was brought against Godwin in 1040, resulted in the acquittal of the earl. In any case, Godwin transferred his support in 1037 to Harold, who remained supreme until his death in 1040. Thereafter for two years Hardicanute ruled in England. On his death in 1042 Godwin was foremost in procuring the election of Edward the Confessor to the throne, and during the early part of the reign of that prince he exercised the chief power in the kingdom. His daughter was married to the king, and his sons promoted to earldoms. During this period (1043–51) we find Godwin supporting the English interest, and strenuously opposing that introduction of foreigners which

was the great weakness of Edward's reign. But the Normans were too strong for him. The appointment of Robert of Jumièges to the archbishopric of Canterbury in 1051 marked the decline of Godwin's power, and the triumph of the Norman party. The refusal of Godwin to punish the burgesses of Dover for the riot occasioned by the insolence of the followers of Eustace of Boulogne led to the outlawry of Godwin and his family (1051). The next year the tide turned; feeling showed itself in favour of Godwin. He came back from his shelter in Flanders at the head of a fleet. In most parts of England he was welcomed; he sailed up the Thames to London; the army gathered by the king refused to fight against him; and he and his family were restored to all their offices and possessions. The next year Godwin was smitten with a fit at the king's table, and died April 15, 1053. Godwin has been portrayed as the representative of all English feeling, as the leader of every national movement, and as enjoying in consequence an extreme popularity; but the attempt to make a national hero of him is futile. He was an acute and wary statesman, able to practise the baser as well as the nobler arts of statesmanship. His vast wealth suggests a covetous disposition, and he certainly promoted his sons without much care for their deserts. But he could show astonishing moderation at moments of crisis, and as a strong man and a vigorous ruler he was of the type of which England had at that time the greatest need.

E. A. Freeman, "Norman Conquest," 1867–71.

Godwin, William (1756–1836), was born at Wisbech and educated locally under Robert Akers. He went to London in 1773, became successively minister of Ware, Stowmarket and Beaconsfield, and cultivated the friendship of Thomas Holcroft and Horne Tooke (q.v.), under whose influence, as well as that of Thomas Paine (q.v.), he published in 1793 his "Political Justice," the first philosophical exposition of English Radicalism, and the precursor of anarchist doctrines during the nineteenth century. The ideas of "Political Justice" were embodied in 1794 in Godwin's novel, "Caleb Williams." They included a belief in the fundamental goodness of man, a denunciation of governmental restraint, a condemnation of punishment, and a spirited attack on private property. By his attack on property (book 8) Godwin links Individualism with Communism. In 1797 he married Mary Wollstonecraft, the author of the "Vindication of the Rights of Women," who died, however, in the following September. He fell now under the influence of Coleridge, who won him over from atheism to agnosticism, and moderated his politics. But his later life was spent in comparative seclusion and poverty, embittered by the suicide of his step-daughter Fanny (1816) and the elopement of his daughter Mary with Shelley (1813). In 1833 Lord Grey made him yeoman usher of the exchequer, a sinecure office in which he continued till his death.

"Political Justice," 1793, latest edition 1926; Life by C. K. Paul, 2 vols., 1876, and Ford K. Brown, 1926. [A. C. F. B.]

Goffe (or Gough), William (*d.* 1679 ?), was son-in-law to Colonel Whalley, and consequently connected with Cromwell, to whom he was strongly attached. He fought in the Parliamentary army, was one of the members of the High Court of Justice, and signed the warrant for Charles I's execution. He accompanied Cromwell to Scotland in 1651, and assisted in clearing out the Barebones' Parliament. He was one of the major-generals appointed in 1655, and a member of Cromwell's House of Lords. He was one of the few officers in favour of Cromwell's assuming the title of king, and attached himself subsequently to Richard Cromwell. On the Restoration he fled with Whalley to America, where he remained during the rest of his life.

E. Stiles, "History of Three of the Judges of Charles I," 1839.

Golab Singh, originally a running footman, attracted the attention of Ranjit Singh and rose to favour. As a Rajput, he was detested by the Sikhs. On the death of Ranjit Singh, 1839, he aimed at becoming supreme in Kashmir, and even engaged in a war with Tibet. At the end of the first Sikh war the principality of Kashmir was sold to him by the British (1840). A formidable opposition was organized against him, which was with difficulty suppressed by Major Henry Lawrence.

J. D. Cunningham, "Sikhs," 1849 and 1919.

Gold Coast. [West Africa, British Dominions in.]

Good Parliament, The (1376), gained its title from the beneficent measures it passed and its bold attitude in reforming abuses. Edward III, old before his time, was entirely under the influence of a worthless woman, Alice Perrers, through whose means John of Gaunt contrived to appropriate to himself the whole of the royal authority, and to appoint his own creatures to all the great offices of state. The parliament which met in April 1376, after an interval of three years, determined to do away with this state of things, and in this resolution they were strongly supported by the Black Prince. Peter de la Mare (q.v.) was chosen as spokesman by the Commons, and he at once demanded in their name that the national accounts should be audited, and that trustworthy counsellors and ministers should be appointed. The Commons next proceeded to accuse certain persons—of whom the chief were Lord Latimer and Richard Lyons—of malversation and fraud, and they were condemned to imprisonment and forfeiture. This is the first instance of impeachment. Alice Perrers was next attacked, and it was ordered that henceforward no woman should interfere

in the administration of justice, on pain of forfeiture. The Black Prince having died in the meantime (June 8), the parliament demanded that his son Richard should be brought before them, that they might see the heir to the throne. This, which was intended to checkmate John of Gaunt, who was supposed to be aspiring to the throne, was forthwith done. The Commons also proposed that an administrative council of twelve should be appointed, some of whom were always to be in attendance on the king; this, with certain modifications, was agreed to. But besides these acts, they presented to the king no fewer than a hundred and forty petitions on various subjects, of which the most important were that parliament might be held annually; that the knights of the shire should be freely elected, not merely nominated by the sheriff; that the sheriffs should be elected, and not appointed at the exchequer; the law courts should be reformed; the abuse of papal provisions, etc., should be removed. The work of the Good Parliament could be carried out only under the leadership of some powerful personage, such as the Black Prince. Now that he was dead, the power passed once more into the hands of John of Gaunt, who, when once the Good Parliament was dissolved, immediately proceeded to destroy its work. Not one of the petitions became a statute. Alice Perrers regained her place and influence at court, Lyons and other offenders were pardoned, Peter de la Mare was sent to prison, and the council of reform dismissed. But though the work of the Good Parliament was for the time rendered nugatory, the year 1376 forms, nevertheless, an important epoch in the history of parliament. The responsibility of ministers, the rights of impeachment and of inquiry into grievances and abuses, were tentatively asserted, and were destined to receive extension and confirmation in the ensuing period.

"Rolls of Parliament," II, 321 et sq.

Goodman, Cardell (1649 ?–99), was a Jacobite adventurer in the reign of William III. He had been an actor, a paramour of the Duchess of Cleveland, two of whose children he had attempted to poison, and a forger of bank notes. In 1696 he was confined to jail for raising a Jacobite riot in London in conjunction with Charnock (q.v.). He was one of the conspirators in the Assassination Plot (q.v.), and as his evidence could procure the conviction of Sir John Fenwick (q.v.), efforts were made to get him out of the country. An adventurer named O'Brien met him in a tavern in Drury Lane, and persuaded him to go abroad by offering him an annuity of £500. This he accepted, and arrived safely at St. Germains, where he died of fever in 1699.

Goodrich, Thomas, lord chancellor of England (*d.* 1554), made Bishop of Ely by Henry VIII, was a staunch supporter of the Reformation. In December 1551 he succeeded Sir Richard Rich as lord chancellor, and in that capacity was induced, after much solicitation, to set the great seal to the patent altering the succession in favour of Lady Jane Grey. He continued to support Northumberland until he saw that the cause was lost, when he at once resigned his office and retired to his diocese, where, partly from his sacred character and partly from his real insignificance, he was not molested.

Gordon, The Family of. The origin of this great Scottish house is extremely obscure. The first prominent bearer of the name was Sir Adam Gordon, justiciar of Lothian under Edward I (1305). His adhesion to Bruce gave him estates in the north that transferred the chief seat of the house from the Merse to Deeside and the Spey valley. The direct male line died out in 1402; but from his female and illegitimate descendants a large circle of Gordons sprang up. His grandson was made Earl of Huntly (1445), a peerage which, elevated to a marquisate in 1599, and a dukedom (of Gordon) in 1684, became extinct in 1836. But the title of Marquis of Huntly passed to another branch of the family, which had acquired the title of Viscount Melgund and Aboyne in the year 1627, and Earl of Aboyne in 1660. Other peerages in the family were—the earldom of Sutherland (1512), the barony of Lochinvar and viscounty of Kenmure (1633)—in abeyance since 1847—and the earldom of Aberdeen (1682), belonging to a collateral branch traceable from the fifteenth century.

Gordon, "Genealogical History of the House of Gordon."

Gordon, Lady Catherine (*d.* 1537), was a daughter of the Earl of Huntly, and, on her mother's side, a cousin of James IV, by whom she was married to Perkin Warbeck. Taken prisoner by Henry VII, with her husband, she became an attendant to his queen, and afterwards married Sir M. Cradock.

Gordon, Charles George (1833–85), known as Chinese Gordon, received a commission in the Royal Engineers in 1852, and saw service in the Crimea. In 1862, as commander of the Ever-Victorious Army, he suppressed the formidable Tai-ping rebellion in China. In 1874 he was appointed governor of the tribes in the Sudan by the Khedive of Egypt, and signalized his two years of office by putting down the slave trade, an object to which he again addressed himself when, in 1877, he became governor-general of the Sudan and the Equatorial Provinces. In 1882 he was appointed commander-in-chief of the Cape forces; and in 1884 was sent to Khartoum to bring away from the Sudan several garrisons that were hemmed in by the followers of the Mahdi. He was, however, himself shot in the city of Khartoum, and the *avant-coureurs* of the relief expedition arrived only to find that

the city had fallen, and that its heroic defender was slain (February 26, 1885).

Lord Cromer, "Modern Egypt," 1908; A. E. Hake, "Gordon in China and the Soudan," 1896, and "Story of Chinese Gordon," 1884.

Gordon, George, 4th Earl of Huntly (1514–62), was one of the last peers in Scotland to oppose the Reformation. He was a man of vast power and wealth, his possessions lying chiefly in the north and west of the Highlands. In his earlier years he defeated the English troops at Haddenrig (1542), and at the head of the Scots army narrowly watched the Duke of Norfolk's invasion of the same year, on which occasion, though avoiding an engagement, he succeeded in materially checking the progress of the English. He was one of the commanders at the battle of Pinkie, where he was taken prisoner (1547). After escaping from prison he became a great supporter of Mary of Guise, the queen-regent, and in later years a strong opponent of the Lords of the Congregation. When Mary, Queen of Scots, returned to her own country (1561) the Earl of Huntly found part of the estates which had been in his possession transferred to James Stuart, the queen's half-brother (Earl of Moray), and plotted the murder of that nobleman. In 1562 he took up arms, and openly denied Mary admittance to her castle of Inverness, which he then held. The castle, however, was soon taken by the royal troops, and shortly afterwards Huntly was defeated and slain at Corrichie, near Aberdeen.

Gordon, George, 5th Earl of Huntly (*d.* 1576), second son of George, 4th earl (q.v.), for whose rebellion the family estates had been forfeited to the Crown, was restored to his title and possessions, August 1565. Soon afterwards his sister, Lady Jane Gordon, was married to Bothwell, while Huntly himself married a daughter of the Duke of Châtelherault. After the murder of Darnley (1567) Huntly accompanied Mary to Seton, and was one of the councillors who presided at Bothwell's trial. Having afterwards taken up arms against the Regent Moray, he was forced to make submission (1569), and to join the party of the government. On Moray's death (1570) Huntly once more raised forces on behalf of Queen Mary, but was soon forced to enter into a pacification with the new regent (1573). He died suddenly in 1576.

Gordon, George, 6th Earl and 1st Marquis of Huntly (1562–1636), only son of George, 5th earl (q.v.), was one of the supporters of James VI after the Raid of Ruthven (q.v.). A staunch adherent of the Catholic faith, he was accused in 1589 of being in league with Philip of Spain, and a year or two later signed the "Spanish Blanks" (q.v.). In 1592 he put the Earl of Moray to death, nominally as an accomplice in Bothwell's rebellion (1591), but most probably in revenge for the treatment which the Gordons had experienced from the Regent Moray. In 1594 he defeated the Earl of Argyll, who attacked him at the instance of the government; but became reconciled to him in 1597, when he also changed his faith and obtained the reversal of his forfeiture. He was not, however, a particularly zealous convert; in 1616 he was excommunicated on suspicion of receiving and protecting Jesuits in his castle. In 1630 his feud with the Crichtons culminated in the loss of his eldest son at the "burning of Frendraught" (q.v.). Shortly afterwards he himself died of a broken heart (1636).

Gordon, George, 2nd Marquis of Huntly (*d.* 1649), eldest son of George, 1st marquis (q.v.), was appointed Charles I's lieutenant in Scotland, and after having refused all the overtures made to him by the Covenanters took the field in opposition to the Marquis of Argyll (1644). Next year he refused to lay down his arms even at the command of the king, who was then under the control of the Parliament. In 1647 he was taken prisoner, and ultimately beheaded at Edinburgh on March 22, 1649.

Gordon, Lord George (1751–93). [Gordon Riots.]

Gordon, George Hamilton-, 4th Earl of Aberdeen (1784–1860), in 1801 began his diplomatic life as attaché to Lord Cornwallis at Paris when engaged in negotiating the Peace of Amiens. In 1806 he was elected a representative peer of Scotland. In 1813 he was employed on a mission to induce Austria to break with Napoleon, and in this he was highly successful. He followed the allied armies; was present at Lützen, Bautzen, and Leipzig; was employed to detach Murat from Napoleon; and was the colleague of Lord Castlereagh at the Congress of Châtillon. He took no further share in public life until 1827–8, when he was offered the chancellorship of the duchy of Lancaster by the Duke of Wellington with a seat in the cabinet, and shortly after was promoted to the foreign office. In this capacity he took a prominent share in the management of the Greek question, and the formation of the Hellenic kingdom, recognized by the Porte in 1830. In general, however, he was in favour of a policy of neutrality in continental questions. He recognized Louis Philippe immediately; he refused to employ the British power to dispossess Dom Miguel of the crown of Portugal; and he strongly objected to the Quadruple Alliance which Lord Palmerston negotiated. His first tenure of office ended in 1830. He was colonial secretary under Sir Robert Peel in 1834–5, and foreign secretary to the same statesman in 1841. He assisted in carrying the repeal of the Corn Laws and the commercial reforms of Peel, and on the death of that statesman he became the acknowledged head of his party. When in succession both Whigs and Tories had failed to carry on the government, and there was no course left but to apply to the Peelites, Lord Aberdeen was invited to form a government,

1852. He formed a coalition ministry, embracing "men of all parties, from the extreme Tory to the extreme Radical." It was his misfortune to be met by the complications in foreign politics which led to the Crimean War. It was thought at the time, and the opinion has been frequently expressed since, that a greater display of vigour on the part of the ministry might have averted the war. The mismanagement of the campaign completed the unpopularity of the ministry. On January 25, 1855, J. A. Roebuck (q.v.) moved for a select committee to inquire into the state of the army and the conduct of the war. On the motion being carried Aberdeen resigned, and during the remainder of his life took no further share in public affairs. In his home policy he represented the advanced section of the Conservatives, regarding Catholic Emancipation and the repeal of the Corn Laws as advantageous measures rather than as necessary evils. In foreign politics he was the advocate of the principles of friendship with foreign powers, and non-intervention, which he perhaps attempted to apply too indiscriminately. Lord Aberdeen, "the travelled thane, Athenian Aberdeen," of Byron's "English Bards and Scotch Reviewers," was an accomplished scholar, specially learned in Hellenic antiquities.

Biographies by Sir A. Gordon, 1893, and Lady F. Balfour, 1923.

Gordon, Sir John (*d.* 1562), was the third son of the 4th Earl of Huntly. He was one of the numerous suitors of Mary, Queen of Scots, whose favour, however, he lost on the occasion of a brawl in the streets of Edinburgh. He was beheaded at Aberdeen for treason in 1562.

Gordon Riots, The (June 1780), were the most formidable popular rising of the eighteenth century. In 1778 a bill, brought in by Sir George Savile and Dunning, for the relaxation of some of the harsher penal laws against Catholics, passed almost unanimously through both Houses. Protestant associations were formed in Scotland; a leader was found in Lord George Gordon, a son of Cosmo George, 3rd Duke of Gordon, a young man of twenty-eight years of age; and the agitation spread to England. On June 2, 1779, a body of 50,000 persons met in St. George's Fields to petition for the repeal of the Catholic Relief Act. The mob forced their way into the lobby of the House, and, continually encouraged by Lord George Gordon, prevented the conduct of business. The House adjourned till Tuesday, the 6th. The mob dispersed; but only to begin their work of destruction by demolishing the chapels of the Sardinian and Bavarian ministers. In the evening of the next day the mob renewed their ravages in Moorfields. On Sunday, the 4th, they proceeded to worse extremities. The next day they attacked the house of Sir George Savile, which was carried and pillaged. The alarm spread. Burke had to leave his own house, and take refuge with General Burgoyne; and Lord George Gordon himself saw that the riots were proceeding too violently, and disavowed his old friends. On the 6th the Houses met after their adjournment. A motion was passed that the petitions should be considered "as soon as the tumults subside which are now subsisting." On the very same evening, one detachment of the rioters broke open Newgate and released the prisoners; others were meanwhile releasing, in the same violent way, the malefactors at Clerkenwell. The Fleet Prison was burnt and towards midnight the rioters burnt Lord Mansfield's house in Bloomsbury Square, with its priceless library, the occupants barely escaping. The magistrates did not venture to read the Riot Act; and the Guards would not act until this formality had been gone through. On the 7th the king called a council, and showed, as usual, that where courage was required he would not be wanting. The cabinet wavered on the right of the troops to interfere until the Riot Act had been read; but the attorney-general, Wedderburn, disposed of this difficulty, and the king insisted on prompt action. A proclamation was issued, warning all householders to close their houses and keep within doors; and orders were given to the military to act without waiting for directions from the civil magistrates. Soldiers everywhere drove the rioters before them; but in some cases it was necessary to resort to the use of musketry. The returns sent in show that 200 persons were shot dead, while 250 more were lying wounded in the hospitals, and still more were no doubt carried away and concealed by their friends. On Thursday morning the plunder and conflagrations were completely at an end. One hundred and ninety-two of the rioters were arrested; twenty-five were executed. Lord George Gordon subsequently became a convert to Judaism, and died in Newgate in 1793, having been convicted for libel in 1787.

E. Paul de Castro, "The Gordon Riots," 1926.

[W. R. S.]

Gorges, Sir Ferdinando (1566 ?–1647), was one of the supporters of Essex in his rebellion of 1601. He saved his life by releasing the ministers whom the earl had taken prisoner, and by appearing as a witness against Essex at his trial.

Goring, George, Baron (1608–57), afterwards Earl of Norwich, was a Royalist partisan who betrayed the Army Plot (q.v.) to Pym, but got command of Portsmouth and held it valiantly for Charles I. Afterwards he fought at Lincoln, Preston, and Marston Moor, commanded the Royalist army in the south-west, and attempted to capture Taunton. In 1649 he went abroad, taking service later in Spain, where he died in poverty.

Gorst, Sir John Eldon (1835–1916), after a distinguished career at Cambridge, was

for a time (1861–3) civil commissioner of Waikato, New Zealand. Called to the bar at the Inner Temple in 1865, he took silk in 1875, and in 1885 was appointed solicitor-general. In 1886 he became under-secretary for India, and in 1890 a privy councillor. He was financial secretary to the treasury in 1891–2.

Goschen, George Joachim, 1st Viscount (1831–1907), was educated at Rugby and Oriel College, Oxford. Elected one of the members for the City of London in 1863, he became vice-president of the board of trade in 1865, and in 1866 entered the cabinet as chancellor of the duchy of Lancaster. In 1868 he was appointed president of the board of trade, and in 1871 first lord of the admiralty. In 1880–1, as ambassador-extraordinary to the Porte, he effected the settlement of the Greek and Montenegrin frontier questions. His tenure of the office of chancellor of the exchequer (1887–92) was signalized by a measure for the conversion of the National Debt. From 1895 to 1900 he was first lord of the admiralty. In 1900 he retired and was created Lord Goschen of Hawkhurst, in Kent.

Biography by A. R. D. Elliot, 1911.

Gossipred, or compaternity, is a widespread custom amongst the Irish. The extremely strong feelings of attachment arising from it were among the most powerful agents in completely denationalizing the Norman invaders. The Statute of Kilkenny, 1366 (q.v.), made it felony to enter into this relation of godfather with natives, but exemptions were very often granted.

Gough, Hugh, Viscount (1779–1869), entered the army and distinguished himself on many occasions during the Peninsular War. In 1837 he commanded the British army in the Chinese War, and achieved the capture of Canton. For his services he was created a baronet (May 1841). In 1843 he was appointed commander-in-chief in India. He commanded during the first Sikh War, and for his services was created Baron Gough. He also commanded during the second Sikh War, and his crowning victory of Gujarat (q.v.), 1849, was rewarded with a viscounty.

Biography by R. S. Rait, 1903.

Gough, William (*d.* 1679 ?). [Goffe.]

Goulburn, Henry (1784–1856), became member for Horsham in 1808. In 1810 he was made under-secretary of state for the home department. At the general election of 1812 he was elected for St. Germans. From 1812 to 1821 he was under-secretary of state for the colonies. He accepted the post of chief secretary for Ireland in 1821, and held that office until 1828, when he became chancellor of the exchequer. He went out of office in 1830, was elected member for Cambridge University in 1831, and in December 1834 was appointed home secretary. In 1839 he was proposed as Speaker of the House of Commons, but the Whigs carried Charles Shaw-Lefevre. In 1841 he was again chancellor of the exchequer. He retired with Sir Robert Peel in 1846, and from that time took no very active part in politics.

Gowrie, Earls of. [Ruthven.]

Gowrie Conspiracy, The (1600), is a name given to a mysterious affair which occurred during the reign of James VI of Scotland. On August 5, 1600, while the king was hunting in Falkland Park in Fife, he was met by Alexander Ruthven (brother of the Earl of Gowrie) who invited him to Gowrie House near Perth, saying that he had caught a Jesuit with a large sum of money in his possession. James, being in need of money, accepted the invitation, and after dinner went with Alexander Ruthven alone, to interrogate the captive. Instead of a prisoner, however, he found an armed retainer of the earl, named Henderson; Ruthven at once told the king he was a prisoner, reminding him of the execution of his own father (William Ruthven, 1st Earl of Gowrie—q.v.) in 1584. James, however, managed to raise an alarm in spite of Ruthven's efforts to stab him, and his attendants hastened to his assistance. Sir John Ramsay, his page, forced his way up a stair to the turret where the struggle was going on, and stabbed Ruthven twice; his brother, Lord Gowrie, was subsequently dispatched by Sir Thomas Erskine and Sir Hugh Herries. The king had considerable difficulty in escaping from Gowrie House, as the citizens of Perth, with whom Gowrie was very popular, wished to put him to death. It was said at the time by the king's enemies that the whole affair had been arranged by James, who wished to get rid of the Ruthvens, but subsequent evidence indicated that there had been a conspiracy between Lord Gowrie, his brother, and Robert Logan, to seize or kill the king. It has also been said that Elizabeth was privy to the scheme.

Andrew Lang, "James VI and the Gowrie Mystery," 1902; S. Cowan, "The Gowrie Conspiracy and its Official Narrative," 1902.

Grace, The Act of (May 20, 1690), was issued by William III (2 Wm. and Mary, s. 1, c. 10), and as such was received with peculiar marks of respect, and read only once in the Lords and once in the Commons. It excepted from its operation the survivors of the High Court of Justice which had sat on Charles I, and his two nameless executioners. "With these exceptions, all political offences committed before the day on which the royal signature was affixed to the act were covered in general oblivion." The act was opposed by the more violent Whigs because, they said, it had completely refuted his declaration.

Burnet, "History of His Own Time," ed. O. Airy, 2 vols., 1897–1900.

Grace, Pilgrimage of. [Pilgrimage of Grace.]

Graces, The. In 1628, the government of Ireland being greatly embarrassed by James I's prodigality, an arrangement was concluded by which, in return for the Voluntary Aids, Lord Falkland, as lord deputy, granted, in the king's name, some fifty-one "graces" or concessions. The most important were: (1) Recusants to be allowed to practise in courts of law, and to sue for livery of their lands in the Court of Wards, on taking the oath of allegiance only; (2) the claims of the Crown to land to be limited by a prescription of sixty years; (3) inhabitants of Connaught to be permitted to make a new enrolment of their title-deeds; (4) a parliament to be held at once to confirm these "graces." A parliament was indeed held, but as it was called by Lord Falkland in defiance of Poynings' Law, its acts were considered null and void by the English council. In 1634 Strafford, Falkland's successor, promised, if parliament voted a subsidy in its first session, to hold a second one for considering the "graces." He broke his promise and declared that the most important could not be conceded. When the system of "Thorough" broke down in England, a deputation went over to England and contrived to get all its requests granted by Charles I, 1641, but of course the Parliament was not bound thereby. [Aids, Voluntary.]

"Strafford Papers"; R. Bagwell, "Ireland Under the Stuarts," 1909–16.

Grafton, Dukes of. [Fitzroy.]

Graham, James, 5th Earl of Montrose (1612–50), at first espoused the cause of the Covenanters, whose troops he commanded in the north of Scotland. Having got possession of his enemy, Huntly, by violating his safe-conduct (1639), Montrose sent him to Edinburgh, and continued his movements against the Gordons and other Royalists, whom he defeated at Stonehaven, subsequently routing them again at the Bridge of Dee. In 1641, annoyed at the Covenanters refusing him the supreme command, Montrose went over to the side of the king, who created him a marquis in 1644. In his Highland campaign (1644–5) he was most successful, defeating the Covenanters at Tippermuir, Aberdeen, Inverlochy, Auldearn, Alford, and Kilsyth, though he was himself beaten at Philiphaugh (September 1645). In 1650 he undertook a fresh invasion of Scotland on behalf of Charles II, but was defeated at Invercarron, taken prisoner, and hanged at Edinburgh.

Biographies by John Buchan, 1913, M. Morris, 1889, and Mrs. H. Pryce, 1912.

Graham, Sir James Robert George (1792–1861), son of Sir James Graham, of Netherby, entered parliament in 1818 for Hull. In 1824 he succeeded to the baronetcy, and being returned in 1826 for Carlisle, soon became a prominent Whig. On the formation of Earl Grey's ministry, he was made first lord of the admiralty. In 1834 he retired from Lord Grey's cabinet owing to dissensions within it on the Irish Church question, and with a small party of friends formed an intermediate party known by the sportive title of the "Derby Dilly" (q.v.). In 1841 he accepted office under Sir Robert Peel as home secretary. He was exposed to an attack of extraordinary bitterness in consequence of his ordering the correspondence of Mazzini to be opened at the post office (1844). The way in which he dealt with the question of the Scottish Church, especially at the crisis of the Disruption, produced a most exasperated feeling against him in Scotland. He supported Peel during the crisis produced by the repeal of the Corn Laws; and in 1852 he was appointed by Lord Aberdeen first lord of the admiralty, and now incurred more unpopularity than in any former tenure of office. He underrated both the charges and responsibilities of the war. Sir Charles Napier's failure in the Baltic and quarrel with the admiralty damaged Graham's reputation, and he retired from politics.

Biography by T. MacCuilagh, 1863.

Graham, John, of Claverhouse, Viscount Dundee (1649 ?–89), was the captain in a troop of horse employed in coercing the Covenanters and Cameronians in the latter part of Charles II's reign and that of James II. His cruelty made him specially hateful to the rebels. He was defeated by the Cameronians at Drumclog (June 1679), but subsequently had a large share in Monmouth's victory over them at Bothwell Bridge a few days later (June 22). In 1688 he was made a peer. He was at the head of the opposition to William III's accession in Scotland, and after vainly trying to interrupt the work of the Convention of Estates, he retired to the Highlands and raised a body of troops there for King James. On July 27, 1689, he defeated Mackay at the pass of Killiecrankie, but was himself killed in the battle.

M. Barrington, "Grahame of Claverhouse," 1911; C. S. Terry, "Graham of Claverhouse," 1905.

Graham, Sir Robert (*d.* 1437), was the uncle of Malise Graham, Earl of Strathern, and the chief conspirator against James I of Scotland. On February 20, 1437, he led a band of 300 men to the abbey of Black Friars, at Perth, where the king was residing, and slew him with his own hand. The indignation aroused by this crime was so great that all the conspirators were speedily brought to justice, Sir Robert Graham being tortured to death at Stirling.

P. Hume Brown, "History of Scotland," 1911.

Graham, Thomas, Baron Lynedoch (1748–1843), a gentleman of fortune in Perthshire, served as a volunteer under Lord Mulgrave at the siege of Toulon, in 1794, and showed such military genius and courage that he was publicly thanked by the commander. Returning to England he raised the 90th Foot in Perthshire, and was appointed colonel of it. For the next few years he served with the Austrian army, and then returned to his regi-

ment at Gibraltar. In 1808 he accompanied Sir John Moore to Sweden as his aide-de-camp, and afterwards followed him to Spain. On the return to England after Corunna he was appointed to command a division at the siege of Flushing; but he was soon afterwards ordered to the Peninsula, where he was nominated second in command. During the winter of 1810 he held Cadiz; but in the spring of the following year, by a series of masterly tactics, he brought on a battle with Victor, whom he defeated at Barrosa (March). He then joined Wellington, and was present with him at the siege of Ciudad Rodrigo, after which he went to England to recruit his health. He returned to Spain in time to take part in the campaign of 1813. He commanded the left wing of the army at Vitoria, and to him was confided the whole charge of the siege of San Sebastian, which, after two partial failures, his firm resolution and skilful management at length reduced. After crossing the Bidassoa he was compelled again to seek rest; but in the following year was appointed to command the expedition to the Low Countries (1814). The expedition was a failure; not, however, in any way through the fault of the commander-in-chief. In May 1814 he was raised to the peerage.

Biographies by J. M. Graham, 1877, and A. M. Delavoye, 1880.

Graham Land is a dependency of the Falkland Islands Colony (q.v.).

Gramont, Philibert, Comte de (1621–1707), a French noble, was for a long time one of the most brilliant and characteristic members of the court of Charles II. His memoirs, written up by his brother-in-law, Anthony Hamilton, give a lively picture of the licence allowed by that monarch amongst his courtiers. [Hamilton, Anthony.]

Grampound, in Cornwall, is one of the most famous historical examples of a rotten borough. It returned two members to parliament from 1553 onwards, though it contained hardly fifty freemen. Its disfranchisement occurred in 1821, as the result of an inquiry into the wholesale corruption which had characterized the elections of 1812 and 1818. In 1812 each supporter of one of the candidates had received £100.

Granby, John Manners, Marquis of (1721–70). [Manners.]

Grand Alliance, The, was the name given to the alliance between Great Britain, Holland, and the Empire concluded at The Hague, September 7, 1701. The treaty declared the desirability of compensating the emperor for the loss of Spain, and of providing for the security of England and Holland. The allies also demanded of Louis XIV a pledge that the crowns of France and Spain should never be united. As, however, William III could not at the moment be sure of energetic support in England, he pledged himself, in case the overtures of the allies were rejected by France, to attempt only to conquer Milan for Austria, and the barrier fortress for Holland. The alliance was afterwards joined by Prussia, January 20, 1702; by Portugal, May 16, 1703; and by Savoy, October 25, 1703. Its object became the conquest of all the Spanish Empire, and especially of Spain itself. [Partition Treaties; Spanish Succession, War of.]

Grant, Charles, Lord Glenelg (1778–1866), was the eldest son of Charles Grant, for many years M.P. for Inverness-shire. He was educated at Magdalene College, Cambridge, and entered parliament as member for Fortrose, 1811. He represented Fortrose from 1807 to 1818, and Inverness-shire from that date till 1835. From 1819 to 1823 he was chief secretary for Ireland; from 1823 to 1827 vice-president, and from 1827 to 1828 president, of the board of trade. From 1830 to 1834 he was president of the board of control, and from 1834 to 1839 secretary to the colonies. But the Canadian rebellion of 1838 was fatal to his reputation. He approved of Lord Durham's famous ordinance, the gist of which was that those of the rebels who had acknowledged their guilt and submitted to the queen's pleasure were to be sent off to Bermuda, but under constraint, and punished with death if they returned. The ordinance was disallowed; Lord Durham was recalled, and Lord Glenelg retired from public life.

Grantham, The Fight of (May 13, 1643), occurred during Cromwell's advance on Newark. A second skirmish occurred near Grantham in the following July, when Cromwell defeated Charles Cavendish.

Grantham, Sir Thomas Robinson, 1st Baron (1695–1770). [Robinson.]

Grantley, Fletcher Norton, 1st Baron (1716–89). [Norton.]

Granville, Earls. [Carteret; Leveson-Gower.]

Grattan, Henry (1746–1820), was born in Dublin, and educated at Trinity College. In 1772 he was called to the Irish bar; but practice did not flow in, and in 1775 he was raised to a more congenial sphere by his return to parliament for Charlemont. He at once joined the opposition, and acquired almost unprecedented popularity by drawing up the Irish Declaration of Rights. He was the leading orator of the party whose success secured the repeal of Poynings' Act and the legislative independence of Ireland. In 1785 it was proposed that "the Irish legislature should from time to time adopt all such Acts of the British parliament as related to commerce." The popularity of Flood had for a time almost eclipsed Grattan's, but his successful opposition to this measure quite restored him to extreme popularity. In 1790 he was elected to represent the city of Dublin. During the unhappy period between 1790 and 1800

Grattan urged the government to adopt a conciliatory policy, and he was strongly in favour of granting the claims of the Catholics. On the question of the Union he held consistently to his old wish to see Ireland independent, and consequently did his utmost to prevent the passing of the Act of Union. In 1805 he was returned to the British parliament as M.P. for Malton, and he afterwards represented his old constituents of Dublin. His oratory was as brilliant as ever, but his views had become more moderate; and he did not escape the suspicion of having abandoned his old patriotism under the influence of flattery from high quarters. The suspicion was groundless. His old ideal of an independent Ireland had been swept away by the Union, in spite of his strenuous resistance; but the policy which held the next place in his heart—Catholic emancipation—seems to have become a more and more engrossing passion. On June 4, 1820, he died in London.

Grattan's "Life," by his son, 1839–46, and by R. Dunlop, 1888, P. M. Roxby, 1902, A. E. Zimmern, 1902.

Gravelines, The Battle of (1558), resulted in a victory for Count Egmont and the Imperial forces over the French. The English navy, under Lord Clinton, had a share in it, and thus wiped out in some degree the disgrace of the loss of Calais.

Graves, Thomas, Lord (1725–1802), served successively as governor of Newfoundland and rear-admiral in command of the American station (1780). He brought de Grasse to a partial engagement in September 1781. In the naval engagement off Ushant (June 1, 1794) he was second in command to Lord Howe, and was rewarded with an Irish peerage and a pension.

"Graves Papers," ed. F. E. Chadwick, 1916.

Gray, Patrick (*d.* 1612) (the Master of Gray), was educated in France, whence he returned to Scotland (1581), and speedily became a favourite of James VI. He was sent on a mission to Elizabeth, to whom he is said to have revealed many of the secrets of Mary, Queen of Scots; and while at the English court concerted measures for the ruin of Arran, which he accomplished on his return to Scotland (1585). In the following year he was sent, in company with Sir Robert Melville, to intercede for Queen Mary, whose cause, however, he is not likely to have aided by the private intimation which he is said to have given to Elizabeth that James was, in reality, in no way averse to his mother's execution.

P. Hume Brown, "History of Scotland," 1911; R. S. Rait and A. T. Cameron, "King James's Secret," 1927.

Gray, or Grey, John de (*d.* 1214), was one of King John's ministers. In 1200 the king gave him the bishopric of Norwich, and in 1205 John caused him to be elected Archbishop of Canterbury. But the pope refused to confirm the election, and appointed Stephen Langton in his stead. He, with Peter des Roches, was the only bishop to abstain from flight during the period of the Interdict, and he is charged by Matthew Paris with being one of the king's evil counsellors throughout that time. In 1210 he was appointed justiciar of Ireland, an office which he held till 1213. In that year he went to Rome to obtain absolution from the pope, and while returning to England next year died at Poitiers.

Gray, or Grey, Walter de (*d.* 1255), was the nephew of John de Gray. He was chancellor from 1205 until 1213, when, while on a mission to Flanders, he was superseded by Peter des Roches, but reinstated in 1214 until his election to the see of Worcester in the same year. During John's struggle with the barons, he supported the king, who rewarded him with the archbishopric of York (1215). He devoted himself to the cause of Henry III, with whom he subsequently stood in high favour. After being employed by the king in various capacities, particularly of a diplomatic nature, we only meet with him when he was appointed regent in 1242 during Henry III's absence in France.

Great Britain is a name originally applied to the whole island of Britain, to distinguish it from Britannia Minor, or Brittany, and often used in poetry or exalted prose, but never for official purposes until after the accession of James I; though the Lords of the Congregation, in 1559, had suggested the union of the two kingdoms under this name. James's assumption of the title of King of Great Britain meant that he claimed, as the old-English monarchs had done, to be lord of the whole island, and not merely king of both halves separately. Much opposition was raised against this title in parliament, and the judges declared it illegal. But in 1604 James definitely styled himself King of Great Britain on his coins. [United Kingdom.]

Great Charter. [Magna Carta.]

Great Rebellion. [Rebellion, The Great.]

Great War, The (1914–18). [The origin of the war and the assessment of "War Guilt" are problems too complex for discussion here. See G. P. Gooch, "Recent Revelations of European Diplomacy," 1927.] The immediate cause, the assassination of the Austrian Archduke Franz Ferdinand at Sarajevo on June 28, 1914, was the work of the widespread Jugoslav revolutionary movement which had long been growing up within the Habsburg Empire. The Serbian government was not to blame: but the impossibility of preserving friendly relations between Serbia and Austria-Hungary led the latter to charge Serbia with responsibility for the crime and adopt an alternative policy of destroying her Serbian menace. Serbia's inability to accept two of the ten demands contained in the Austrian ultimatum of July 23 led to war on the 28th. The rest of the powers were soon involved, in virtue of their individual obligations under the Triple Alliance

(q.v.) and the Triple Entente (q.v.). Sir Edward Grey's proposal for mediation went astray in Berlin; Russia began mobilization in the interests of Serbia, July 31; Germany replied with an ultimatum to Russia, and ignored Grey's question, addressed to both Berlin and Paris, regarding Belgian neutrality; Germany declared war on Russia on August 1 and demanded to know the attitude of France, who mobilized in reply and was offered naval support by Great Britain; on August 3 Great Britain mobilized, and Germany declared war on France and crossed the Belgian frontier. The British ultimatum of August 4 to Germany, expiring at midnight unanswered, ushered in four years of war destined to be waged on many fronts—Flanders and France, Italy, Russia, South Europe and the Balkans, Egypt, Syria, and Palestine, all the German colonies—and on the sea and in the air.

The German plan for a rapid invasion of France, culminating in an attack on Paris within six weeks, before Russia could come into action, was put into operation in several regions, but chiefly in Belgium, where the advancing armies took Liége, Brussels, and Namur by August 23, while a French offensive in Lorraine was crushed at Lunéville by the Crown Prince of Bavaria. By August 17 Sir John French had landed in Flanders with 110,000 British troops, but the German onset forced a retreat from Mons on August 23, accompanied by the breaking of the French line at Charleroi and the fall of Châlons and Rheims. The allied armies fell back to the Marne by September 3, where von Kluck's abrupt turn southwards brought on the battle of the Marne (q.v.—September 6–9), resulting in his failure to break the line. The German advance received a fateful check. By September 18 the line was stabilized on the Aisne, and held in the north from Arras to Lens. With the repulse of a German attack on Verdun (October 3) and the extension of the British line to the coast at Nieuport on the advice of Generals French and Joffre (October 3), a western front was established from the coast to the Alps. Its southern part—from Rheims to Verdun and St. Mihiel—remained almost unaltered throughout the war. But by October the Germans held Arras, Lille, Douai, and Antwerp, and were perpetrating atrocities in Malines and Louvain in reply to sundry Belgian sorties. France and Flanders gradually settled down to what was for four years " a single battle, varying in its intensity from season to season and place to place, but constant in its continuity and in its absorption of the principal forces of the belligerents." The casualties were already enormous.

The eastern front underwent many changes before its ultimate collapse. Russia mobilized with surprising rapidity, and invaded East Prussia under the Grand Duke Nicholas while Austria attacked her at Lemberg. But Hindenburg rushed German troops across, and two-thirds of the Russian army were lost at the disastrous battle of Tannenberg (August 26–9). The fall of Lemberg and Przemysl to Russia, however, enabled the Russians to take Cracow (the key to Berlin and Vienna) on December 8. Austria was meanwhile driven out of Serbia by August 24, and her renewed invasion after the entry of Turkey into the war on November 1 failed to take Belgrade. Hindenburg concentrated next on Warsaw, launching three attacks by January 1915. By February he had rolled back the whole 900 miles of the Russian front, in an endeavour to drive Russia out of the war and so be free to concentrate on the western front; while the Turks advanced to Ardahan and the Russians regained Przemysl and secured Erzerum. To relieve the pressure on Russia the allies landed forces in the Persian Gulf (November 22) and at the Dardanelles (April 25, 1915). But in the summer of 1915 Russia became the main object of the German offensive, weakened as she was by the lack of munitions and by the vulnerability of her Polish defences. Mackensen advanced from Gorlice in April, Bülow got half way to Riga in May, the Austrians took Lemberg on June 22, and Warsaw fell to Leopold of Austria on August 5, followed by Kovno and Brest-Litovsk (August 17) and Vilna. Russia had collapsed as the result of inefficiency in her Tsarist bureaucracy; and only with terrible difficulty was her line repaired by Ruszky. The Russian prisoners went to make munitions for Germany. Early in 1916, however, recoveries were made. Brussilov won Trebizond (April 29) and bombarded the whole front from the Pripet marshes to the Rumanian border, advancing fifty miles in a fortnight and entering Czernowitz (June 17) and Brody (July 28). Ludendorff organized a successful defence of Kovel during the July rains, but 16 German divisions had to be withdrawn from the western front and sent east; while Rumania, encouraged by the German hold-up at Verdun and the losses of Turkey in Asia Minor, joined the allies on August 27 at the dictates of her desire to obtain parts of the Habsburg Empire. The Rumanian campaign was at first successful; but 8 German divisions under Falkenhayn contrived to capture Bucharest by December 5. Three months later came the first Russian Revolution, heralded by the execution of Rasputin on December 29. It began on March 8, 1917, and produced within a week the abdication of the Tsar (March 15) and the formation of a Soviet led by Lvov, Miliukov, Guchkov, and Kerensky. The hopes of the allies were raised at this prospect of increased efficiency in the Russian administration; but power gradually passed to the Bolshevik extremists of the Social Democratic party. The appointment of Kerensky as war minister (May) led to a disastrous attack on Lemberg which wilted under the severe summer rain and a German counter-attack (June–July), involving the loss

of Czernowitz and the revolt of Lenin at Petrograd. Kerensky proclaimed a dictatorship on October 15, but the revolt of Trotsky (Leo Braunstein) on November 5–7 forced him to flee. The government fell to a self-constituted body of People's Commissars under Lenin and Trotsky, who at once opened negotiations with Germany (November 22). Russia retired completely from the war by the Treaty of Brest-Litovsk, March 2, 1918.

The Balkan campaigns were not everywhere conspicuous for decisive results. The Dardanelles expedition (q.v.), planned as early as January 1915, suffered from lack of reinforcements. An Anglo-French attack on the Narrows on March 18 was succeeded by the landing of Sir Ian Hamilton's 120,000 men on April 25. With the withdrawal of the *Queen Elizabeth* in June the attack became a military siege. A landing was made at Suvla Bay on August 6, marked by feint attacks at Anzac Cove, but only six miles of front were established. Ultimately the reports of Sir Charles Monro (October) and Lord Kitchener (November) resulted in the evacuation of the troops with great skill from Anzac (December 18–19) and Cape Helles (January 7–8, 1916). Championed by Kitchener and Winston Churchill from the outset, in opposition to Lord Fisher, the expedition had not been useless. Neglect of the east in the autumn of 1915 would have left Greece and Egypt at the mercy of Germany and her allies. In October 1915 Bulgaria entered the war, and Serbia, who had refrained (at the advice of the allies) from anticipating the move by an attack on Sofia, was rapidly overrun. Mackensen, joined by the Bulgars, won Belgrade by October 15. The defence of Serbia fell to the allies, Greece declining to accept her treaty-obligation to help Serbia (Venizelos resigned in protest on October 5). In these circumstances a Franco-British expedition was landed at Salonika under Generals Sarrail and Bryan. But its arrival (October 5–7) came too late: the Serbians were being forced into Albania by the German-Bulgar advance; Prilep and Novibazar fell, the Salonika railway was cut, and Monastir fell on December 5. At the same time Montenegro collapsed on the capture of Cettinge by Austrian troops (January 13, 1916). By January 1916 all the Balkans were in enemy hands, save Salonika and Avlona. Before the end of that year the entry of Rumania (August) was neutralized by the fall of Bucharest on December 5; while the outbreak of civil war in Greece on the establishment of a provisional government by Venizelos in September resulted in the repulse of the allies from the Piræus by the troops of King Constantine (December 1). The Bulgarian advance into Greece, however, was checked on the Bistritza by Sarrail and the Serbians (October). In the summer of 1917 the Russian reverses facilitated another onslaught on Rumania by Mackensen, which was with difficulty held up on August 19 at the battle of Marasesti. But the Turks had meanwhile been suffering at the hands of the British. Cyprus had been annexed on November 5, 1914, and a landing effected in the Persian Gulf to strike northwards. Basrah and Amara fell, and by June 1915 Sir John Nixon had opened the way to Baghdad. Trouble arose simultaneously in Egypt, where the Arabs proclaimed their independence and a British campaign reduced Sollum and El Arish by May. The Mesopotamian advance was continued to Kut (q.v.) by September 29. A pro-German revolution in Persia meanwhile led to a Russian occupation of Teheran (November 1916). But the Russians were unable to relieve Kut, which surrendered to the Turks after a five months' siege (April 29, 1916). Sir S. Maude resumed the Syrian offensive on December 12 from Sanna-i-Yat on the Tigris, regained Kut, and entered Baghdad on March 11, 1917; while the fall of Senussi to British troops secured the safety of Egypt as a base against the Turks. Maude now linked up with the Russians, won Samara, and forced the Turks back to Gaza. Here the resistance was strong, but Beersheba and Gaza had fallen by November 7, and Allenby entered Jaffa (November 14) and Jerusalem (December 9). Jericho fell in February 1918.

Meanwhile Germany had lost all her colonies. Japan had entered the war on August 23, 1914, and reduced Tsing-Tao by November; Australia had taken German New Guinea and the Gilbert and Caroline Islands; New Zealand had taken Samoa and the Marshall Islands. In Africa the struggle lasted longer. Togoland and the Cameroons fell to allied troops by September 1914, but General Smuts's campaign in South-West Africa (October) had to be renewed by Botha in February 1915 and was not completed until July; while East Africa was regained by the Germans in 1915 and not reduced until Smuts's offensive of March 1916.

In southern Europe, Italy entered the war against Austria in May 22, 1915, according to a treaty signed in London on April 26 guaranteeing to her at the close of the war parts of "Italia Irridenta" and Dalmatia. (She did not declare war on Germany, however, till August 27, 1916.) Her first offensive, towards Trieste, won Caporetto by June 20, but then degenerated into indecisive fighting until Austria attacked along the Isonzo in 1916. Cadorna checked the advance in June, and countered by an Italian advance along the Isonzo and Carso during the Russian offensive in the summer, with great success. In 1917, however, Italy suffered grievously. Ludendorff's plans for a German offensive on the western front in 1918 (below) included a diversion in the Alps directed by Bülow. The Italian flank, exposed at Caporetto, was turned in October after an abortive movement by Cadorna towards Trieste in August; and, using gas-shells in place of a preliminary bombardment, Bülow effected a speedy advance with 13 divisions. The Italians were driven back

with terrible losses to the Piave—within their own frontier—where they rallied.

Fighting on the sea was spasmodic. The weakness of naval attacks on strongly-defended coasts was forcibly demonstrated at the Dardanelles; and Great Britain retained the command of the sea throughout. The return of the German fleet to Kiel on August 26, 1914, left several vessels abroad, of which the *Goeben* and *Breslau* fled to Turkey and the rest were either interned or sunk; notably the *Emden*, sunk off the Cocos Islands on November 9, 1914. Mine-sowing and submarine warfare began early, but apart from naval battles off Heligoland Bight (q.v.—August 28), Coronel (q.v.—November 1), the Falkland Islands (q.v.—December 8), the Dogger Bank (q.v.—January 24, 1915), and Jutland (q.v.—May 31, 1916) the sea witnessed only skirmishes and raids, among which the sinking of the *Lusitania* by a German submarine on May 7, 1915, and of the *Hampshire* (with Lord Kitchener on board) by a mine on June 5, 1916, will never be forgotten. Unrestricted submarine warfare was declared by Germany early in 1917, with considerable effect. One-quarter of the ships which left British ports in April 1917 did not return. This U-boat campaign was the final straw which brought the United States into the war.

Parallel with it went a policy of air-raids on England (q.v.), lasting from January 19, 1915, to May 19, 1918, with the first aeroplane raid on November 28, 1916. The menace from the air brought the war home to civilians in Great Britain. Conscription was introduced at Christmas 1915 for all single men under the age of 42, following the recruiting scheme of Lord Derby, and was extended to married men in May 1916 and to an age-limit of 51 during the German offensive in April 1918. Defence of the Realm Acts were passed, the Press was muzzled, and England became a "vast laboratory of death," rationed in food during the later stages of the war, and inflamed by such acts as the shooting of Edith Cavell (October 12, 1915) and Captain Fryatt (July 27, 1916). Discontent due to lack of munitions led to the appointment of Lloyd George as minister of munitions in May 1915, while Fisher left the admiralty because of a quarrel over the Dardanelles, and a coalition government was formed under Asquith. The collapse of the Balkans and the indecisiveness of the Somme campaign of 1916 (below) wearied public opinion. Lloyd George became premier in December 1916 and Nivelle succeeded Joffre in France. The Kaiser's peace-offer of December 12 was rejected on December 30. Similar proposals put forward by the pope in August 1917 were also declined.

But the war was won on the western front, in campaigns of unprecedented length and intensity, involving casualties of fabulous numbers. The extension of the line to the Flanders coast was effected by a double movement northwards from La Bassée, the Germans aiming to reduce the Channel ports, the French to isolate Antwerp, relieve Brussels, and threaten the German rear on the Aisne. In October the Germans entered Bruges and Ostend. The first battle of Ypres (q.v.) which followed was hardly a contest of strategy, for the chance to outflank had passed and left a deadlock. The battle gave the allies Arras and the Germans Neuve Chapelle (October 20 and 27); necessitated the flooding of the Nieuport-Dixmude area by the Belgians; and degenerated thereafter into winter torpor, during which the Germans utilized French and Belgian mines and the allies recruited troops at a feverish pace. In March 1915 the allies opened an offensive round Lille and Neuve Chapelle (q.v.) which succeeded in part, simultaneously with a French advance near Verdun, but was followed by the first gas attack of the war at the second battle of Ypres (q.v.) on April 22. By May 24 the line had to be shortened at a point only three miles from Ypres. The allied offensive failed with an unsuccessful attempt (May 9) to capture Lille and Loos via Vimy Ridge. Two months later the Germans introduced liquid fire, at Hooge (July 30). In the autumn the allies resumed the offensive from La Bassée to Arras and in Champagne (September 23) in an endeavour to cut the enemy's Aisne communications, but by October 30 all their gains had been lost. The British attack at Loos (q.v.—September 25) just failed to take Lens. From 1916 onwards, however, Germany's efforts were directed more to prolonging her defence and securing a profitable negotiated peace than to achieving a military victory. The plan for 1916 centred on the reduction of Verdun in February, the crushing of Italy in May, and the defeat of Russia in the summer. The Verdun attack opened on February 21 on a limited front and secured the key to the last line of defence, but was then checked by Pétain, who held his ground on the Meuse. It was revived on May 3 with more success, penetrating to within four miles of the town; but was again held up in August. To relieve the pressure on the French, the British Fourth Army (and the French Sixth Army) opened the Somme campaign (q.v.) on July 1. The first phase secured meagre results; the second captured the bulk of Delville Wood; the third stage in September culminated in a general attack at Thiepval, but the advent of the rainy season left the Germans secure in the Bapaume salient after an allied attack (November 15) on Beaumont Hamel. The total casualties on the Somme were about a million. Early in 1917 Haig began an advance on the Ancre round Arras (q.v.) which forced the enemy to retreat along the full 100 miles of the Somme salient to the Hindenburg (Siegfried) Line. This line ran from Arras to a point seven miles west of Cambrai and thence to near St. Quentin, where the French continued it to Moy (on the Sambre canal) and the Aisne. Its flanks lay at Vimy Ridge in the north and the Chemin des Dames in the south. Haig

took Vimy Ridge on April 9 and threatened Lens. In June, when the first American divisions landed in France (the United States declared war on April 5), Nivelle's offensive on the Aisne, which had opened in April in an endeavour to outflank the enemy and win Rheims, concluded in failure, though Haig balanced it by capturing Bullecourt on May 17. The attack then shifted northwards to Messines and Wytschaete, to turn the north flank and win the coastal submarine bases. The ridges fell in June and the front was active all through the summer. On November 6 it ended after the fall of Passchendaele to the allies (October 4), with a net gain of five miles in three months. Pétain meanwhile restored the Meuse line round Verdun to its position prior to the German 1916 advance, where it remained unaltered. But not so the northern parts of the front.

Ludendorff was preparing a gigantic offensive for the spring of 1918, to anticipate the arrival of American troops. In the winter Haig employed tanks in an attack on the high ground round Cambrai, finding them useless in the mud of the plains. These tactics, however, of a surprise attack without preliminary bombardment, were returned by the Germans in November with equally devastating effect. Ludendorff opened his final offensive on March 21, 1918, against 14 divisions under General Gough, from Arras to Rheims. Favoured by dry weather and fog, the attack crossed the Somme, won Péronne and Combles, and within five days had cleft gaps between the British and French and between Byng and Gough. In the north the advance ended at Beaumont Hamel, but Gough had to retire in the Arras sector. On March 25 the allies secured unity of command under Foch. The second German attack (April 9) in the north, though on a smaller scale, won Neuve Chapelle, Armentières, and the Ridges; but in an effort to extricate himself from the salient so formed Ludendorff wasted energy in consecutive attacks at Ypres, Béthune, and the Kemmel Ridge. His onslaught nevertheless had the effect of drawing forth 300,000 fresh troops from England. The final phase, in June, took place round Montdidier and Noyon, and was aimed at Paris. It penetrated as far as the Aisne position of 1914, advancing thirty miles in three days; but was checked in the north by July 13, and at Rheims by the 17th. On July 18 the tide turned, and the allies began an advance to victory made possible by the arrival of American battalions, the new unity of command, the effects of revolutionary propaganda in Germany, and the fact that the German armies were massed at Amiens and not on the Marne. Foch advanced along the whole front, which on July 18 ran roughly from Nieuport, through Ypres, Merville, La Bassée, Lens, Arras, Albert, Moreuil, Montdidier, Fontenoy, Château-Thierry, Rheims, Varennes, Verdun, and St. Mihiel, to the Swiss frontier. There were really six offensives between July and November, radiating from Dixmude, Loos, Montdidier, Château-Thierry, Varennes, and St. Mihiel. The contest opened at Château-Thierry on July 18; on August 2 the Marne was crossed; on the 24th Bapaume fell, followed by Péronne (September 1) and Lens (September 3). The Verdun salient was flattened out by the Americans (September 12). Austria and Germany began overtures for peace on September 15, influenced by the collapse of Bulgaria (who concluded an armistice on September 30) and Turkey (Allenby won Aleppo on October 26, and an armistice followed four days later). On October 1 the British captured St. Quentin, while a Franco-American advance on the Meuse pushed the Germans back to the Serre. Cambrai fell on October 9, Ostend and Lille and Douai on the 17th, Bruges and Zeebrugge on the 19th. On the 26th Ludendorff resigned, and next day the Italian crossing of the Piave induced Austria to sue for an armistice (concluded November 3). On November 1 the German line was broken by the Americans: Mons fell to the Canadians on the 11th. With the signing of the armistice at 6 a.m. on that day the war ended—where it had begun.

The terms of the armistice were severe. Germany was to withdraw her armies across the Rhine, leaving the bridgeheads to the allies and a neutral zone on the right bank; surrender all prisoners; annul the Treaty of Brest-Litovsk; evacuate Russian, Rumanian, and Turkish territory; and surrender guns and submarines, and her navy. The Kaiser abdicated on November 9.

G. L. Dickinson, "The International Anarchy, 1904–14." 1925; J. W. Headlam, "The Outbreak of War," 1926; R. W. Seton-Watson, "Sarajevo," 1926; "Collected Diplomatic Documents [on] the Outbreak of the European War" (Blue Book, Cmd. 7860), 1915; Lord E. Gleichen, "Chronology of the War," 3 vols. and atlas, 1921; J. Buchan, "History of the Great War," 4 vols., 1922; A. F. Pollard, "Short History of the Great War," 1920; Sir J. Corbett, "History of the Great War, Naval Operations," 1920–1; H. W. V. Temperley (ed.), "History of the Peace Conference at Paris," 6 vols., 1920, etc.; British Museum, "Subject Index of Books [on] the Great War, to 1920," 1922; G. P. Gooch and H. W. V. Temperley, "British Diplomatic Documents [on] the Origins of the War," 11 vols., 1927, etc.

[A. C. F. B.]

Greece, Relations with, date from 1823, two years after the outbreak of the war of Greek Independence, when Canning recognized the Greeks as belligerents. England became strongly Philhellene, and volunteers went out to join the Greek cause; notably Byron, who perished at Missolonghi in April 1824, and Lord Cochrane and Sir Richard Church, who became commanders respectively of the Greek sea and land forces in 1827. The sympathetic policy of Canning embodied in the Treaty of London (q.v.—July 6, 1827) was, however, modified by the Wellington government of 1828–30 in favour of merely an autonomous Morean Greece. Wellington deplored Navarino (q.v.) as an "untoward event," and succeeded in restricting the frontier of Greece fixed by the protocol of February 3, 1830, though the collapse of Turkey and the Treaty of Adrianople induced

him to concede full independence. In the years 1847–50 the affairs of Don Pacifico (q.v.) and Finlay (q.v.) made for strained relations, but in 1862 Prince Alfred, son of Queen Victoria, was chosen king on the expulsion of Otto I, though the self-denying ordinance imposed on Great Britain as a protecting power invalidated the choice and secured instead the accession of Prince William George of Denmark as George I (1863). Great Britain at the same time (June 5, 1863) ceded to Greece the Ionian Islands (q.v.). When the Cretan problem became acute in 1885–6, and again in 1894–7, the powers intervened to prevent fighting and to induce the Greeks to disarm, and finally forced an armistice to conclude the "Thirty Days' War" of 1897 between Turkey and Greece. Great Britain, France, Russia, and Italy each occupied a coast town, and Prince George was appointed commissioner in Crete for eight years. In 1905 he resigned and was succeeded by Venizelos, whereupon the annexation of Crete to Greece was again demanded. But no solution was attained until 1909, when the powers evacuated Crete on the restoration of order by Zaimis. Fresh disturbances occurred until the elevation of Venizelos to the Greek premiership in 1910. During the Balkan Wars a conference was held in London on December 13, 1912, presided over by Sir Edward Grey, and the first war was concluded by a treaty signed in London on May 30, 1913. During the Great War of 1914–18 (q.v.) British and French troops under Generals Bryan and Sarrail were sent to Salonika in October 1915 following the entry of Bulgaria into the war. They were repulsed from the Piræus on December 1, 1916, by the troops of King Constantine, after the outbreak of civil war in Greece and the formation of a provisional government by Venizelos. When King Constantine returned to Athens in 1920 the allies curtailed financial assistance to Greece and decided to reconsider the unratified Treaty of Sèvres (August 10, 1920), which had accorded Greece Thrace and a mandate in Asia Minor. In the ensuing Greco-Turkish war the interests of Greece were placed in the hands of Lord Curzon by the prime minister, Gounaris. Peace was ultimately secured at Lausanne (q.v.) on July 24, 1923.

G. Finlay, "History of Greece," 7 vols., 1877; W. A. Philips, "War of Greek Independence," 1897; J. A. R. Marriott, "The Eastern Question," 1917; W. Miller, "The Ottoman Empire and its Successors," 1923; A. J. Toynbee, "The Western Question in Greece and Turkey," 1922; Foreign Office Handbook on Greece, 1920; E. Driault and M. Lhéritier, "Histoire Diplomatique de la Grèce," 4 vols., 1925-6.

[A. C. F. B.]

Green, Sir Thomas (*d.* 1399), one of the knights of Richard II's household, was used by the king as a tool in the many arbitrary acts of the latter years of his reign, and particularly in the extortion of money by illegal means. On the landing of Henry of Lancaster he fled to Bristol, but was surrendered by the governor of the castle to Henry, and summarily executed.

Green Cloth, The Board of. A board attached to the royal household, presided over by the lord steward. It had power to punish offenders within the precincts of the palace, and issued the warrants which were necessary before a servant of the household could be arrested for debt.

Green Ribbon Club, The, was an organization founded by the Whigs in 1675 at the King's Head Tavern, Chancery Lane. It sent out agents to mould opinion in the country, and recruited men of all classes and professions under the presidency of Lord Shaftesbury. The Insurrection and Assassination Plots of 1682, directed against Charles II and James, Duke of York, were the work of the Green Ribbon and its partisans. With Shaftesbury's decline, however, the organization disintegrated, and was extinct by 1688.

Greenwich was the seat of a royal palace much occupied by the Tudor princes, and pulled down after the Restoration. The site was assigned by William III for the erection of his great hospital for retired seamen (1705). Since 1873 the building has been devoted to the Royal Naval College.

A. D. Webster, "Greenwich Park," 1902.

Greenwood, John (*d.* 1593), a prominent Barrowist, was tried on a charge of promulgating seditious and schismatical opinions, and executed in 1593.

Gregg, William (*d.* 1708), was clerk in the office of Harley, Queen Anne's secretary of state. He was first employed by that minister as a spy. In the course of the years 1707 and 1708 he was engaged in a treasonable correspondence with M. de Chamillart, the French secretary of state. He slipped his letters into those of Marshal Tallard, whose correspondence passed through Harley's office. One of these packets was opened on suspicion in Holland. Gregg was tried, pleaded guilty, and was sentenced to death. The House of Lords, bitterly opposed to Harley, entered on a searching investigation of the case, with the object of establishing the minister's complicity. Gregg was told that if he would make a full confession he might hope for the intercession of the House. He refused, and was hanged.

Biography by P. Lorrains, 1708.

Grenada, one of the Windward Islands, was discovered by Columbus in 1478 and called "Conception." It was included in the 1627 Carlisle grant, but was colonized in 1650 by the French governor of Martinique, who had bought it from the French West India Company, and who massacred the Caribs systematically; and, in 1674, on the collapse of the French West India Company, the island, which it had acquired in 1665, lapsed to the French crown. It was captured by the British in 1762, and was formally ceded to them by the Treaty of Paris (1763). In 1779 the island was retaken

by the French, but was restored by the Treaty of Versailles (1783). In 1795 there was a negro insurrection, caused mainly by the intrigues of the French planters. Emancipation in 1837 led to the introduction of coolies in 1877. The government is vested in a governor (who also exercises jurisdiction over the rest of the Windward Islands) and a nominated legislative council of 7 official and 7 unofficial members. Each town has an elective board for local affairs. French law was abrogated by proclamation in 1764.

S. Wells, "Historical and Descriptive Sketch of Grenada," 1890.

Grenville, Sir Bevil (1596–1643), a grandson of Sir Richard Grenville, was a gallant officer who joined the Royalist army in 1642, defeated the Parliamentary forces at Stratton, and was slain at the battle of Lansdown (July 5, 1643). Clarendon declared that the Royalist successes in Cornwall were almost entirely due to his energy.

Biography by Sir Alfred Robbins, 1884.

Grenville, George (1712–70), was the second son of Richard Grenville, of Wotton, by Hester, Countess Temple. In 1741 he was elected M.P. for Buckingham, which town he continued to represent until his death. In 1744 he was appointed a junior lord of the admiralty, in Henry Pelham's administration. In 1747 he was promoted to the same office in the treasury: and on Newcastle becoming prime minister in 1754 he became treasurer of the navy. In 1762, when Lord Bute became first lord of the treasury, Grenville was made secretary of state in his place, and leader of the House of Commons. On Bute's resignation in the following April, Grenville became at once prime minister and chancellor of the exchequer, on the nomination of Bute, who expected to find him a very willing tool; but he soon discovered his mistake. Grenville, who feared the king as little as he did the people, complained bitterly of Bute's secret influence, and at once became odious to the king in consequence. The death of Lord Egremont, secretary of state, in August, gave George III an excuse for changing his ministry; and accordingly, through Bute's means, he opened negotiations with Pitt. These, however, failed; and he was again obliged to fall back upon Grenville, who strengthened his position by enlisting the Bedford faction on his side. But the new accession of strength did not save the ministry. The issue of general warrants, and the struggle with Wilkes, cost the ministry £100,000, and lost them any share of popularity they ever possessed. This measure was soon followed by the Stamp Act (q.v.). In July 1765 the king, seeing his way to form a new ministry, summarily dismissed Grenville and the Duke of Bedford. In 1769 Grenville became reconciled to his brother-in-law, Lord Chatham, and took an eager part in the debates on the expulsion of Wilkes. In 1770 he carried his bill on Controverted Elections, by which he transferred the trial of election petitions from the House at large to a select committee of the House. [Elections.] For some time past his health had been declining, and in the autumn of 1770—only a few months after passing his Election Bill—he died. "He took public business," Burke said of him in the House of Commons, "not as a duty he was to fulfil, but as a pleasure he was to enjoy; he seemed to have no delight out of the House, except in such things as some way related to the things that were to be done in it. If he was ambitious, I will say this for him, his ambition was of a noble and generous strain."

Grenville's "Correspondence," 1852. [W. R. S.]

Grenville, Sir Richard (1541 ?–91), one of the renowned sailors of Queen Elizabeth's reign, was sent out to the West Indies in 1585 to inflict what damage he could on Spanish commerce. In 1587 he was a member of the council of war which was charged with the duty of making preparations to withstand the attack of the Armada; and he did good service for his country against the Spaniards. In 1591 he took part in an expedition under Lord Thomas Howard, which sailed for the Azores to intercept the Spanish treasure ships on their return from South America. The design of the English was discovered by Spain, and fifty-three ships of war were sent out as a convoy. A furious engagement took place, in which Sir Richard, after performing prodigies of valour, was killed on board his ship, the *Revenge*. His memory was subsequently defended from any blame for the failure of the expedition by his friend Sir Walter Ralegh. "From the greatness of his spirit," says Ralegh, "he utterly refused to turn from the enemy, protesting he would rather die than be guilty of such dishonour to himself, his country, and her Majesty's ship."

R. P. Chope, "Sir R. Grenville," 1918.

Grenville, Richard Temple, Earl Temple (1711–79), was the elder brother of George Grenville, and was elected, in 1734, by the help of family interest, to represent the borough of Buckingham, but subsequently for a time represented the county. In 1752 he succeeded to the earldom, and four years later Pitt, who had married his sister Hester, gave him a place in his administration as first lord of the admiralty. In the following April he was summarily dismissed by the king, and Pitt's dismissal followed within a few days. Pitt, however, was recalled, and Lord Temple became lord privy seal, which post he retained until Pitt's resignation in October 1761, when he too withdrew. In 1766 he broke with Pitt on the question of the Stamp Act, Temple upholding his brother's policy while Pitt was bent on obtaining its repeal. And he went farther, by refusing to accept office under Pitt in 1766, not wishing to be "stuck into a ministry as great cypher." A reconciliation,

however, took place on Lord Chatham's retirement in 1768. In 1770 Lord North began his long reign. Thenceforth Lord Temple took but an intermittent interest in political affairs, now and then actively opposing the ministry. He has been suspected, not without some reason, of being the author of the "Letters of Junius."

"Grenville Papers," ed. W. J. Smith, 1852–3; "Chatham Correspondence," 1838–40.

Grenville, William Wyndham, Lord (1759–1834), youngest son of George Grenville, was educated at Eton and Christ Church. In 1782 he was elected M.P. for Buckingham, and in the same year became secretary to his brother, Earl Temple, lord-lieutenant of Ireland. In December 1784 he succeeded Burke as paymaster-general, and began to give his cousin Pitt valuable assistance at a time when he most needed it. In 1789 he was elected Speaker of the House of Commons on the death of Cornwall, but he held the chair for only four months, being then made home secretary, an office which afforded him more active employment. In 1790 he was raised to the Upper House, and in the following year went to preside over the foreign office, where he remained for ten years till Pitt's resignation. As foreign minister he thoroughly carried out Pitt's policy, and rejected all peace with the revolutionary government of France. He was the mover in the House of Lords of the Treasonable Practices Bill (q.v.) in 1795. He was even a stronger supporter of the Catholic claims than Pitt, and during Pitt's last ministry he remained in opposition on this ground. On Pitt's death he combined with Fox to form the administration of "All the Talents" (q.v.). That ministry, however, was but short-lived; and on being dismissed Grenville remained in opposition during the continuance of the war. The close of his life was spent in literary retirement, when he did valuable work, the result of which has been to throw much new light on the inner workings and party intrigues of the early years of the reign of George III. He lived on at Dropmore in Buckinghamshire till 1834, where he died on January 12. Twice had overtures been made to him to take office again—in 1809 and in 1812. But Catholic Emancipation had to be an essential element in any line of policy which Grenville would support. With the high sense of honour and integrity which always distinguished him and Lord Grey, they both excluded themselves from office for twenty years. As a foreign minister Grenville is considered by some to rank above Pitt. His oratorical powers were at times the wonder of the House of Lords; but, like Fox, he was too liberal-minded not to have the misfortune to be generally in opposition.

[W. R. S.]

Gresham, Sir Thomas (1519–79), a famous merchant, the son of Sir Richard Gresham, lord mayor of London, who died 1549, first attained fame as a financier by negotiating certain loans for Edward VI in 1551. He was subsequently employed on several occasions by Elizabeth, who found him exceedingly useful in obtaining money from foreign merchants and in raising loans from merchants in England. In 1566 he founded the Royal Exchange, which was opened by the queen in person, 1571. [It was totally destroyed in the Fire of London, refounded by Charles II in 1667, and again burnt in 1838. The present building was opened in 1844.]

F. R. Salter, "Sir Thomas Gresham," 1925; A. E. W. Mason, "The Royal Exchange," 1920.

Grey, Arthur, 14th Baron Grey de Wilton (1536–93), was the son of a celebrated commander of Henry VIII's time. He was lord-lieutenant of Ireland in 1580. In that year he suffered a severe repulse in Glen Malure from the Wicklow septs. It was to him, however, that the suppression of Desmond's rebellion was largely due, and he was in command of the troops at Smerwick (q.v.). As a stern Puritan, he made himself unpopular by his severity, and was recalled in 1582. He was one of the commissioners who passed judgment on Mary, Queen of Scots, and was created a knight of the Garter.

Grey, Lady Catherine (1538 ?–68). [Seymour, Lady Catherine.]

Grey, Charles, 2nd Earl Grey (1764–1845), son of Charles, 1st Earl Grey, was educated at Eton, and King's College, Cambridge. He was returned to parliament for the county of Northumberland in 1786, and joined the Whig opposition under Charles James Fox. He displayed such ability in his first speech that he was from that time a prominent leader of the party, and as such was chosen one of the managers of the impeachment of Warren Hastings. In 1792 he became a member of the great society, "the Friends of the People," the avowed object of which was to obtain a reform in the system of parliamentary representation. In 1795 he opposed the liquidation of the Prince of Wales's debts. In the same year he unsuccessfully moved the impeachment of Pitt. In 1797 he brought forward a plan of reform, which was rejected by 169 votes. He remained one of Pitt's bitterest opponents till his death. On the accession of Fox to power, 1806, Grey, now Lord Howick, was appointed first lord of the admiralty. On the death of Fox he became leader of the House of Commons and foreign secretary. The Catholic Relief question, however, overthrew the ministry. In 1807 he succeeded his father as Earl Grey. In 1810, when the Duke of Portland resigned, negotiations were opened with Lords Grey and Grenville, who, however, refused to unite with the proposed ministry. In 1812 a similar attempt failed. In 1827 Grey declined to support Canning. The sudden termination of the Wellington ministry in 1830 brought him from his retirement as the only man capable of dealing with the difficult

question of parliamentary reform. In accepting office he stipulated that the reform of parliament should be made a cabinet question. The support of the great majority of the nation greatly facilitated the task which he had undertaken, and enabled him to construct his ministry without much difficulty, the most serious impediment being created by the position of Brougham, which was got over by making him lord chancellor. A Reform Bill was introduced by Lord John Russell on April 12, 1831, but after a long discussion General Gascoyne successfully carried his motion against the government, and a dissolution became necessary, to which the king at last consented. The danger, however, became pressing, as Lord Wharncliffe had threatened to move an address in the Lords, praying the king not to dissolve. The House was dissolved the very day Lord Wharncliffe's threatened address was to have come on (April 22). The election of 1831 sent back a large reforming majority to parliament, and on June 24 Lord John Russell again introduced the bill, which passed the Commons on July 8 but was thrown out in the Lords. The struggle from this time lay in the Lords. On April 9, 1832, Earl Grey moved that the third Reform Bill be now read a second time. The second reading was carried by the aid of Lord Wharncliffe and the Trimmers. Lord Lyndhurst now moved in committee that the consideration of the disfranchising clauses should be postponed until the enfranchising clauses had been considered. This motion was carried against the government in spite of Grey's warning to the House that he should consider its success fatal to his measure, and he resigned, May 9. The state of the country became terrible. Sir Robert Peel declined office. The Duke of Wellington found it impossible to construct a government. It became necessary to recall Grey, and he obeyed the summons. But before he left the presence of the king he had obtained from him a written promise that he would "create such a number of peers as will be sufficient to pass the Reform Bill." The bill was eventually carried by the personal influence of the king, though violent altercations and recriminations occurred on the subject in the House of Lords. Wellington withdrew sufficient peers to enable it to pass. The reformed parliament gave the Whigs an overwhelming majority. The first business was to consider the state of Ireland, and it was found necessary to pass a Coercion Bill (1833). In 1834 the Duke of Richmond, the Earl of Ripon, Mr. Stanley, and Sir James Graham resigned. ["Derby Dilly."] This shook the ministry, and in order to avoid any further secessions an Irish Church Commission was hastily appointed to procure evidence. Littleton's Irish Tithe Bill gave another shock to the ministry, and the motion of O'Connell and Littleton on the Coercion Bill, which produced the resignation of the premier and Lord Althorp, ended Lord Grey's political career. He resigned to save the rest of his ministry. From this time he took little part in public affairs.

G. M. Trevelyan, "Lord Grey of the Reform Bill," 1920; J. R. M. Butler, "Passing of the Great Reform Bill," 1914. [B. S.]

Grey, Edmund, Earl of Kent (*d.* 1489), known in the early part of his life as Baron Grey of Ruthin, was originally on the Lancastrian side, but during the battle of Northampton (1460) he deserted to the Yorkists, to whose victory he contributed greatly by this piece of treachery. On Edward IV's accession, he was received into the royal favour, and created lord high treasurer (1463) and Earl of Kent (1465). He managed to preserve his titles and estates till his death, notwithstanding the different changes of government.

Grey, Edward, Viscount Grey of Fallodon (*b.* 1862), entered parliament in 1885 as member for North Berwick, and was under foreign secretary from 1892 until 1895. In 1905 he joined the Liberal ministry as foreign secretary, continuing in that post at the general election of 1906, contributing to the satisfactory issue of the Algeciras Conference (1906) and reaching an understanding with Russia (1907) [Entente]. In the Agadir crisis of 1911 (q.v.) he adopted a firm tone which induced the German Emperor to moderate his demands, and next year he authorized the famous Haldane mission to Berlin. In July 1914 he worked strenuously to avert a European war, but he refused to bargain with Germany for British neutrality at the expense of France or Belgium, and when Germany declared war on France (August 3) he determined on a policy of action. With the support of cabinet and parliament he met the German violation of Belgium by a declaration of war (August 4). He continued to hold the foreign office until forced to resign in December 1916, through failing eyesight, after a tenure of eleven years. For the next few years he entered little into public affairs, devoting most of his energy to the cause of the League of Nations. His "Twenty-Five Years, 1892–1916," appeared in 1925.

Gilbert Murray, "The Foreign Policy of Sir Edward Grey," 1915.

Grey, Forde, Earl of Tankerville (*d.* 1701), better known as Lord Grey of Werk, took a prominent part in the debates of 1681 as a most zealous Exclusionist; and for his supposed share in the design for insurrection was committed to the Tower, but escaped by making his keepers drunk. He fled to the continent (1682). There he employed his influence on his friend the Duke of Monmouth to urge him to invade England. He landed at Lyme Regis with Monmouth, and was appointed commander of the cavalry. He was driven from Bridport by the militia. He dissuaded Monmouth from abandoning the enterprise at Frome. At the battle of Sedgemoor his cavalry was easily routed by the

royal troops, chiefly, it is said, because of his pusillanimity. He fled with Monmouth, and was taken in the New Forest. In his interview with the king he displayed great firmness, and would not stoop to ask for pardon. He was suffered to ransom himself for £40,000 and went abroad. He returned to England with William of Orange, and attempted to redeem his character by taking an active share in politics. In 1695 he was created Earl of Tankerville. He supported the Association Bill in a brilliant speech, and also spoke in favour of the bill for Fenwick's attainder. He vigorously opposed the bill for disbanding the army (1699). His political services were rewarded by the office of lord privy seal (1700). But his health was broken, and in the following year he died.

Burnet, "History of His Own Time," ed. O. Airy, 2 vols., 1897–1900.

Grey, Sir George (1799–1882), was the only son of Charles, 1st Earl Grey. During his long career he held many cabinet posts. He was under-secretary for the colonies for a few months in 1834, and again 1835–9; judge advocate and chancellor of the duchy of Lancaster in 1839; home secretary 1846–52, 1855–9, and 1861–6; colonial secretary 1854–5; and chancellor of the duchy again in 1859. His parliamentary career ended with the fall of Gladstone's first ministry in 1874.

Grey, Sir George, K.C.B. (1812–98), was born at Lisbon, educated at Sandhurst, and for some time held a commission in the 83rd Regiment. After conducting explorations in Western Australia, he was appointed governor of South Australia in 1841, of New Zealand in 1845, of Cape Colony in 1853, and again of New Zealand in 1861–7. In 1874 he became superintendent of the province of Auckland; member of House of Representatives for Auckland City (1874–94), and privy councillor on his return to England.

G. C. Henderson, "Sir George Grey," 1907.

Grey, Henry, 3rd Marquis of Dorset (*d.* 1554), married Frances, daughter of Charles Brandon, Duke of Suffolk, and Mary, sister of Henry VIII. By her he became the father of Lady Jane Grey His weak and ambitious character caused him to lend a ready ear to Northumberland's proposals for obtaining an alteration of the succession in favour of his daughter. When this plot failed, Suffolk was pardoned on payment of a fine, but in the following year raised a rebellion in the midland counties, in conjunction with that of Sir Thomas Wyatt (q.v.) in Kent. His few troops were defeated near Coventry by the Earl of Huntingdon, and the duke, having taken shelter with one of his retainers named Underwood, was by him betrayed to his pursuers. He was condemned, and executed February 23, 1554, a few days after his daughter, Lady Jane Grey.

Grey, Lady Jane (1537–54), was the daughter of Henry Grey, Marquis of Dorset, and Frances Brandon, daughter of the Duke of Suffolk. On the approaching death of Edward VI becoming apparent in 1553, the Duke of Northumberland conceived the idea of aggrandizing his own family by obtaining the crown for Lady Jane, and marrying her to his son Lord Guildford Dudley (q.v.). Accordingly, he induced Edward VI to alter the succession in her favour. On the young king's death Lady Jane was informed by the duke that she was queen, and was proclaimed by him in various parts of the country, but the people refused to recognize the usurpation. After a brief reign of nine days, the crown was transferred to Mary, and Lady Jane and her husband were sent to the Tower and subsequently condemned to death. They were kept in captivity for some time, and were not executed until after Wyatt's rebellion (February 12, 1554). Lady Jane Grey, whose education had been entrusted to John Aylmer and Roger Ascham, was as accomplished as she was beautiful, and was a fluent scholar in Hebrew, Greek, and Latin.

R. P. B. Davey, "The Nine Days' Queen," 1909
I. A. Taylor, "Lady Jane Grey," 1908.

Grey, John, of Groby, 8th Baron Ferrers (commonly called Sir John Grey) (*d.* 1461), was a Lancastrian who fell in the second battle of St. Albans (1461). He was the first husband of Elizabeth Woodville, afterwards wife of Edward IV.

Grey, Lord Leonard (*d.* 1541), was the sixth son of Thomas, 1st Marquis of Dorset (q.v.). He was sent over to Ireland in 1535 to assist Sir William Skeffington. On Skeffington's death he became lord deputy, 1536. Together with Lord James Butler he destroyed O'Brien's Bridge over the Shannon, long an object of alarm to the English, and he induced the O'Connor to come to terms. His sister, Lady Elizabeth Grey, was the second wife of Gerald, 9th Earl of Kildare, and it now became his duty to try to capture his own nephew, that nobleman's heir, an object which he did not succeed in effecting. In 1538 he attacked the Island Scots. He was compelled to retreat, however, in spite of Ormonde's help, before the combined forces of Desmond and the O'Briens. Lord Leonard was a staunch Catholic, and this, together with the favour he showed the Geraldines and the natives, made him hated by Ormonde. Soon after his recall, at his own request in 1540, he was accused of a treasonable understanding with his kinsmen, the Fitzgeralds, and executed in 1541.

Brewer, "Introductions to the Letters and Papers of Henry VIII's Reign."

Grey, Sir Patrick (*fl.* 1450), was captain of the guard to James II of Scotland. Having a bitter feud with the Earl of Douglas, on account of the murder of his nephew in Douglas Castle,

he gave the earl his death-wound, after he had been stabbed by the king, in Stirling Castle (1452).

Grey, Lord Richard (*d.* 1483), was the younger son of Sir John Grey, by Elizabeth Woodville, and consequently half-brother of King Edward V. In 1483 he was seized, together with his uncle, Earl Rivers, at Northampton, by Richard, Duke of Gloucester, and eventually put to death without trial at Pontefract.

Grey, Sir Thomas (*d.* 1415), was a knight of Northumberland who, in 1415, joined the conspiracy of the Earl of Cambridge to place the Earl of March on the throne. He was seized, and having confessed his guilt, was immediately executed.

Grey, Thomas, 1st Marquis of Dorset (*d.* 1501), was a son of Elizabeth Woodville, the subsequent wife of Edward IV, by her first husband, Sir John Grey. Sharing in his mother's prosperity, he was created Marquis of Dorset in 1475, and escaped the hostility displayed by Gloucester in 1483 to all the members of the queen-dowager's family by taking sanctuary at Westminster. Escaping thence in safety, he joined with his uncle, Sir Richard Woodville, in an attempt to seize the Tower and raise a fleet; but failure drove him once again to concealment, until Buckingham's rebellion afforded him another opportunity of being actively hostile to Richard III. This movement likewise failing, he forthwith fled over the sea to make one of the powerful party of malcontents supporting the Earl of Richmond in Brittany. On his return from France, where he had been left by Henry VII as security for the French king's loan, he enjoyed the royal favour, though during the Simnel imposture he was imprisoned in the Tower, but soon released. In the same reign he served against the French (1492); five years later he was one of the leaders of the royal army against the Cornish rebels.

Grey, Lord Thomas (*d.* 1554), brother of Henry, Duke of Suffolk, joined in the rebellion in the midland counties (1554) organized by the duke in conjunction with that of Sir Thomas Wyatt in Kent. After the defeat of Suffolk's forces by Lord Huntingdon at Coventry, Thomas Grey escaped to Leicester and thence to Wales, but was taken prisoner, and executed (April 1554). He was a man of ambition and daring, and his unbounded influence over his brother, the duke, was believed to have drawn the latter into this enterprise.

Grey, William, 13th Baron Grey de Wilton (*d.* 1562), was governor of Berwick in the reign of Edward VI, and in that capacity distinguished himself at Pinkie (1547) and in several raids across the border, in one of which (1548) he took and fortified Haddington. He did much to quell rebellion in the west of England (1549). In 1551 he was sent to the Tower by order of Warwick, who mistrusted him as a friend of Somerset, though a year or two afterwards he is found implicated in the conspiracy to place Lady Jane Grey on the throne. Made governor of Guines by Mary, he kept a close watch upon the French, and had his advice been listened to, Calais might have been saved. The fall of Calais was quickly followed by that of Guines, which Grey found himself compelled to surrender. On his return to England he was sent to the north, where, after a lengthy siege, he made an unsuccessful assault upon Leith.

Grimston, Sir Harbottle (1603–85), a strong Presbyterian, represented Colchester in the Long Parliament. He was one of the members excluded by Pride's Purge (q.v.). On the king's execution he left England, and remained abroad for several years. In 1656 he was elected M.P. for Essex, but was excluded from the House. In April 1660 he was elected Speaker of the Convention Parliament. He was also one of the commissioners sent to Charles at Breda. For his services at the Restoration he was created master of the rolls in November 1660. During the reign of Charles II he distinguished himself by asserting the right of the Commons to choose their own Speaker (1679) and by his hostility to the Catholics.

Grindal, Edmund (1519?–83), Archbishop of Canterbury, was born near St. Bees and educated at Cambridge. He was made prebendary of Westminster in 1552, and chaplain to Edward VI, at whose death he was obliged to take refuge on the continent. On the accession of Elizabeth he returned to England a strong Puritan, and greatly influenced by Geneva; but he waived his objections to vestments so far as to accept the see of London on the deprivation of Bonner in 1560. He had taken an active part in the theological controversy at Westminster, 1559, and was a sound theologian and noted preacher; but he constantly incurred the queen's displeasure for his mildness in enforcing the Act of Uniformity. Yet in 1570 he was made Archbishop of York, and on the death of Archbishop Parker, 1575, was translated to Canterbury. His administration was in some ways unsuccessful; his Puritan sympathy made him refuse to put down the "prophesyings," and in consequence he was sequestered from the exercise of his jurisdiction for five years, being restored in 1582, a year before his death, though he never regained the favour of the queen. As Archbishop of Canterbury, Grindal made no mark. His difference of opinion with the queen made it impossible for them to work in harmony, yet he was a man of profound learning, deep piety, and some moderation; mild, affable, and generous, and much admired by his own party.

Griqualand West is separated from Cape Colony by the Orange River. After the discovery of diamonds there in 1867 the district was made a British colony, and in 1877 was made a province of Cape Colony, of which it now constitutes four out of seventy divisions. [South Africa, Union of.]

Grith, in Anglo-Saxon law, is a word of narrower meaning than "frith," with which it is often coupled. It signifies a special or localized peace or protection, particularly that granted by the king or a high official. While "frith" was primarily personal, the peace of an individual, the "grith" was territorial, the peace of a district.

Grocyn, William (1446 ?–1519), Greek scholar, was born at Colerne (Wilts) and educated at Winchester and Oxford, becoming divinity reader at Magdalen about 1481 and a fellow of New College (1467). He was among the first to teach Greek publicly at Oxford. In 1488 he went to Italy, where he studied for two years and met Linacre and Latimer. On his return he was joined by More and Colet in spreading the New Learning at Oxford. He accompanied Colet to London in 1504, became the firm friend of Erasmus, and occupied the living of St. Lawrence Jewry from 1496 until 1517.

Grosseteste, Robert (1175 ?–1253), Bishop of Lincoln, one of the most eminent of mediæval ecclesiastics and schoolmen, was born at Stradbroke, in Suffolk, of poor parents. He studied at Oxford and Paris, where he gained a very great reputation as a student and teacher. He became "rector scholarum" at Paris, and first rector of the Franciscans at Oxford. He received various preferments, but in 1232 resigned all but one in order to continue at Oxford. In 1235 his election as bishop of Lincoln gave him both a wider sphere of work and a special relation to his university. As administrator of his huge diocese he was both active and successful. A long struggle with his chapter was only ended by the personal intervention of the pope, Innocent IV, who at the Council of Lyons practically decided in the bishop's favour. His drastic visitation of the monasteries of his see, though hampered by the disfavour shown to him at Rome, where the gold of the monks was all-powerful, was resolutely carried through. A sturdy champion of liberty, he prevailed in 1244 in preventing the grant of a royal subsidy, and kept together the opposition when likely to be broken up by the king's intrigues; and he ensured the reading of the sentence of excommunication against violators of the Great Charter in every parish of his diocese. A similar spirit actuated the refusal in 1251 to admit foreigners ignorant of English into rich preferment in his diocese, and led to a papal suspension, which, however, was of short duration. In 1252 he prevented the collection of a tenth imposed upon the clergy by the pope for Henry III's necessities. In 1253 he refused to induct the pope's own nephew into a prebend at Lincoln. His celebrated letter of refusal, while accepting the ultramontane position, was thoroughly decided in its tone. After his death miracles were reported at his tomb, but the effort to obtain canonization for so bad a papalist failed. Grosseteste had a wide acquaintance over which he exercised great influence. The spiritual adviser of Adam de Marisco, the intimate friend of Simon de Montfort, and the tutor to his sons, he was yet the friend of the queen and even of the king. The sturdy practical temper illustrated by all his life's acts was combined with vast knowledge, great dialectical and metaphysical subtlety, activity in preaching and teaching, and real spiritual feeling; his leisure, too, was devoted to the cultivation of French love poetry.

Perry, "Life of Grosseteste"; "Grosseteste's Letters" in Rolls Series, edited, with valuable introduction, by Luard; Matthew Paris, "Historia Major." [T. F. T.]

Guadeloupe, The Island of, is a French possession in the Antilles discovered by Columbus in 1493. Settled in 1635 by the French, it resisted British attacks in 1691 and 1703, but was captured in 1759, restored in 1763, and again captured in 1794. Restored in 1802 by the Peace of Amiens, it was reconquered in 1810, surrendered to Sweden in 1813, and restored to France in 1814. In 1816 the British finally withdrew.

J. Ballet, "Guadeloupe," 1890.

Guader, Ralph, the son of Ralph the Staller and a Breton mother, was born in England in the reign of the Confessor. He was made Earl of Norfolk by William I, but in 1075, being irritated at the king's disapproval of his marriage with the sister of the Earl of Hereford, he organized a conspiracy for the division of England between himself, the Earl of Hereford, and Waltheof, Earl of Huntingdon. The plot was betrayed by Earl Waltheof and Ralph fled to Brittany. Eventually he joined the first Crusade, and died in Palestine. The name of Guader or Wader derives from the castle of that name in Brittany, which was part of Ralph's inheritance from his mother. [Norwich, Bridal of.]

Gualo was appointed papal legate in England in the year 1216. He strongly supported King John against Louis of France, and on John's death was instrumental in obtaining the recognition of the young King Henry. With William Marshal, who became "ruler of the king and kingdom," Gualo controlled the whole policy of the new reign. In conjunction the cardinal and the regent reissued the Great Charter in 1216, and again in 1217, and secured the pacification of the country. Gualo was replaced in 1218 by Pandulf.

Guernsey. [Channel Islands.]

Guiana, British, the only British possession on the Spanish Main, consists of the three provinces of Essequibo, Demerara, and Berbice, and is bounded by Venezuela on the west and Dutch Guiana on the east. From Columbus to the end of the sixteenth century its history is one of Spanish exploration on the coast line. Then comes a period during which the English and Dutch strove to find Eldorado. The Dutch succeeded in establishing a colony, while every British attempt, Leigh's (1604–6), Harcourt's (1609–12 and 1626–31), and Harvey's (1617), either failed or was crushed by Portuguese or Dutch rivalry. Confirmed to the Dutch by the Treaty of Breda (1667), Guiana remained in their hands until 1814, although it had been captured in 1796 and restored again in 1802, only to be recaptured the following year. The history of the three provinces is not one under the Dutch, separate constitutions having been granted Berbice (1737) and Demerara (1773). The three were united into one colony in 1831. The old Dutch constitution of 1787, slightly modified, was retained until 1891, Wodehouse's constitutional amendments of 1855 having been rejected. The constitution consisted of a governor, who, with the Court of Policy, performed the functions of a British Crown colony executive and legislature, with the exception that six elected financial representatives had to participate in matters of taxation, so forming the combined court. In 1891 the administrative functions of the Court of Policy were transferred to an executive council, while the court (7 officials, 8 elected members) became the legislature. The College of Electors, who had previously chosen the four unofficial members of the Council of Policy, was abolished and unofficial members were to be elected directly by the people. The combined court retained the six financial members, and could discuss taxation initiated by the governor in his executive council of five officials and three others, all nominated by the Crown. In 1909 election qualifications were revised, and in 1917 the Roman-Dutch law, then in force, was greatly changed in favour of the English criminal code. The boundary with Venezuela was defined in 1899 after a long dispute. The British claim (1886) was that of Schomburgk's survey of 1842–3, and was based upon the original Dutch claim to the Essequibo watershed. Venezuela claimed that the Spanish province of Guayana extended to that river. In 1887 Venezuela broke off diplomatic negotiations; in 1897 a treaty was signed providing for arbitration by a court of two judges each from the High Courts of England and the United States. Schomburgk's line was altered a little in Venezuela's favour. [Venezuela, Relations with.] The boundary with Brazil, about which a dispute had lasted since 1843, was decided in 1904, when the King of Italy, as arbiter, adjudged half the Brazilian claim to Great Britain.

J. A. Williamson, "English Colonies in Guiana," 1923; J. A. J. de Villiers, "The Formation and Development of British Guiana" (*Geographical Journal*, July 1911); J. Rodway, "Guiana," 1912, and "History of British Guiana," 3 vols., 1891–4; C. A. Harris and J. A. J. de Villiers (ed.), "Storm van's Gravesande's Rise of British Guiana," 2 vols., Hakluyt Society, 1911; H. V. P. Bronckhurst, "The Colony of British Guiana," 1883. [H. R.]

Guilford Court-house, The Battle of (March 15, 1781), during the closing period of the American War of Independence, was almost the only gleam of success that shone on Cornwallis's fatal advance into the north. At the beginning of the year he entered North Carolina. Nathanael Greene, with much prudence, refused to attack him, and retreated. On February 20 Cornwallis, halting at Hillsborough, invited all loyalists to join him; but a small detachment of them on their way to take advantage of the proclamation were cut to pieces by the Americans, and the rest took fright. Again Cornwallis advanced, and Greene at length determined to give him battle. On some strong ground near Guilford Courthouse Cornwallis attacked, and his regulars carried Greene's position despite inferiority in numbers. In results, however, the victory was signally deficient, for Cornwallis, too weak to advance, and receiving no reinforcements, had to fall back on Wilmington. [American Independence, War of.]

Guilford, Lord Frederick North, 2nd Earl of. (1732–92). [North.]

Guiscard, Antoine, Marquis de (1658–1711), was a French adventurer of good family. For some unknown offence he was expelled from France, and came to England after a variety of adventures. Godolphin made him colonel of a regiment of French refugees; and he became a companion of St. John in his wild orgies. In the year 1706 he proposed a descent on the coast of Languedoc, and twelve regiments were placed in readiness, but the expedition never sailed, probably because Godolphin thought his schemes too visionary. Guiscard was discharged with a pension of £500 a year. He almost immediately began a treacherous correspondence with the French court. On its detection he was brought before the privy council. Finding that everything was known, and wishing for a better death than hanging, he stabbed Harley twice with a penknife he had secreted. The wounds were slight. Guiscard was soon overpowered, and died in Newgate from injuries received in the struggle (some accounts say from poison). To the last he denied that the attack was premeditated.

Guiscard's "Memoirs," 1705.

Gujarat, The Battle of (February 22, 1849), was fought during the second Sikh War, between the British under Lord Gough and Major-General Lawrence, and the Sikhs under Shere Singh. The latter were completely routed by means of an artillery attack.

Gunpowder Plot, The, is the name usually given to the great Roman Catholic conspiracy of James I's reign. The Catholics were deeply disappointed at finding that the

king had no intention of remitting the severe laws against recusancy. In their resentment a plot was formed by several Roman Catholic gentlemen. It was probably originated by Robert Catesby, who was joined by Thomas Winter and John Wright in the spring of 1604; and later by Thomas Percy, Robert Winter, Sir Everard Digby, Rookwood, Tresham, the Jesuit Garnet, and Guy Fawkes, an Englishman, who had long served as a soldier of fortune in Flanders, and was closely connected with the English Jesuits. The plot was matured in the summer of 1605. It was arranged that Fawkes was to secrete some barrels of gunpowder in cellars adjacent to the Houses of Parliament. After the explosion, which was to take place when the king and Prince of Wales were present, the young Prince Charles and Princess Elizabeth were to be seized and a rising attempted in the midland counties. After the prorogation parliament was to meet on November 5, 1605, and this was the day on which the enterprise was to be carried out. Several of the conspirators were, however, anxious to save the Catholic members of the House of Lords. A letter was received by Lord Monteagle from one of the conspirators (probably Tresham) warning him not to be present at the opening of parliament. The letter was shown to Cecil. Orders were given to search the vaults on November 4, and Fawkes was arrested. Most of the other conspirators had taken the alarm and already fled to Dunchurch, where Sir Everard Digby had collected a large number of Catholic gentlemen. They dispersed in various directions. The leading conspirators attempted to make a stand at Holbeach. Several of them were wounded by an accidental explosion. Catesby, Percy, and the Wrights were killed in the course of the flight; most of the other leaders were captured. They were tried, and executed in January and February 1606.

An attempt to show that the Government encouraged the plot so as to trap the conspirators has been made by Father Gerrard, S.J., in his "What was the Gunpowder Plot?" 1897, and replied to by S. R. Gardiner in "What the Gunpowder Plot was," 1897. Later works on the subject by P. Sidney, 1902, and M. W. Jones, 1909.

Gurkha War (1814–16). The Gurkhas had encroached continually on the British frontier, and at last laid claim to two districts, Butwul and Sheoraj, which they had seized, though they had been ceded to Lord Wellesley in the year 1801 by the nawab. Lord Minto remonstrated with them, and Lord Hastings, his successor, ordered their expulsion. Money was obtained from the vizir, and four armies were prepared. The Gurkhas were divided into three; one-third, under Amar Singh, guarded the fortresses on the Sutlej; two thousand were distributed between the Jumna and Kali; the rest protected the capital. The British at first met with nothing but disaster, failing entirely to capture Jitgarh, or to reach the capital. These disasters were somewhat retrieved by the brilliant success of General Ochterlony, who was entrusted with the difficult task of dislodging Amar Singh from the forts on the Upper Sutlej. The discomfiture of their ablest general and loss of their most valuable conquests induced the Nepalese government to sue for peace. The conditions proposed by Lord Hastings were that they should resign all claims on the hill rajas west of the Kali, cede the Terrai, restore the territory of Sikkim, and receive a British resident. The treaty was agreed to on December 2, 1816, but the influence of Amar Singh and the other chiefs induced the Gurkha government to break it, and another campaign under Sir David Ochterlony and a complete rout at Mukwanpur were necessary before the treaty of Seganli was finally concluded, March 2, 1816.

Guthrum, or GUTHORM I (Mod. Dan., *Gorm*), was a Danish chief who became King of East England. After conquering Mercia, he started from Cambridge in 875 with half the "great host," while Halfdene went another way with the other half to colonize Northumberland. With two of his fellow chiefs, he attacked Wessex by land and sea. He withdrew next year to Gloucester, but in 878 he renewed his attack in midwinter, forcing Alfred to take refuge in Athelney. He then raised a great stockade at Chippenham, but after being defeated at Ethandun was besieged there by the English king, and forced by blockade to accept terms of peace. This treaty is still in existence. Guthrum was baptized with thirty of his chief men, and in 880 he settled with his host in Essex and East Anglia. He seems to have done his best to keep the peace, but his followers were not always obedient, and in 886 they seem to have given assistance to the Danish host that attacked Rochester. The outcome was the conclusion of a new peace between Alfred and Guthrum which defined the frontiers between English and Danish territory, and gave London to Alfred. It was not till after the death of Guthrum in 890 that the East English Danes again became a danger to Alfred. Guthrum's baptismal name was Athelstan, which alone appears on his coins. The theory, however, that he, not the English king, was the foster-father of Hakon the Good reposes on a false chronology and is quite unnecessary. Guthrum was succeeded by Eohric, or Yorick, who was possibly, but not certainly, his son. [ALFRED.]

Guthrum II, King of East England, nephew of Guthrum I, succeeded Yorick in 902. He made a peace with Edward the Elder in 906 on the lines of the treaty of 886. It was against him that Edward's policy of building a line of forts (burhs) across the Midlands was chiefly directed, a policy which led to the submission successively of the Danes of Hertford (911), of Bedford, under Earl Turketil (913), and finally to the campaign of

916, in which Edward defeated and slew Guthrum at Tempsford. His death, and the submission of Earl Thurfrith of Northampton, the Danes of Huntingdon, the "host of Cambridge," and the East Anglian Danes, in the same year, brought to an end the Danish rule in East England.

Gwalior is a protected state of Central India, which includes most of Malwa. The capital of the same name is situated on a rocky hill, rising sheer from the level plain. It is ruled by the line of Mahratta princes called Sindhia. The fortress of Gwalior was taken by Major Popham in 1780, and restored to its former ruler, the Raja of Gohad, but in 1784 was recovered by Sindhia. In February 1804 it was again taken by the British under Sir H. White, but was restored to Sindhia the next year. In 1843, on the death of the reigning Sindhia, without heirs, the dissensions at Gwalior led to an expedition to restore order there. The British defeated the Gwalior army at Maharajpur. A treaty was concluded, by which the fortress of Gwalior was ceded to Great Britain and the native army reduced to 9,000 men (1844). In 1857 it was a seat of the Mutiny, but Sindhia remained unswervingly faithful.

J. C. Grant Duff, "History of the Mahrattas," 1826 and 1921.

Gwyn, Eleanor (1650–87), was of humble origin, and was early in life an orange girl at the Theatre Royal. She subsequently became an actress and mistress to Lord Buckhurst, and eventually one of Charles II's mistresses, besides being appointed one of the ladies of the bedchamber to the queen. By Charles II she had two sons, one of whom died very young. The other was Charles Beauclerk (*b.* 1670), who was created Duke of St. Albans. Her personal beauty was very great, while her generosity and kindliness made her more popular than most of the king's favourites.

P. Cunningham, "Story of Nell Gwyn," 1927.

Gwynedd, the old name for North Wales, was a district roughly corresponding to the domains of the "Princes of Wales" who reigned at Aberffraw. [Wales.]

Gyrth (*d.* 1066) was the fourth son of Earl Godwin. He shared in his father's banishment and return, and in 1057 he received an earldom which seems to have included Norfolk, Suffolk, Cambridgeshire, and Oxfordshire. He took part in the battle of Hastings, where he was killed, it is said, by William's own hand.

Gytha was the sister of Ulf and cousin of Canute. She married Earl Godwin, and was banished with him in 1051. After the battle of Hastings, she begged the body of Harold to inter it at Waltham, but this was refused by William, though she is said to have offered him Harold's weight in gold. In 1067 she took refuge in the Flatholm, and went thence to St. Ouen, where she remained till her death.

H

Habeas Corpus, The Writ of, is a writ issuing from one of the superior courts, commanding the body of a prisoner to be brought before it. It rests upon the famous 39th section of Magna Carta: "No freeman shall be taken and imprisoned unless by the lawful judgment of his peers or by the law of the land." This clause was directed specifically against John's practice of putting execution before judgment; and the theory that it forbade arbitrary imprisonment is now exploded. Arbitrary imprisonment did not cease to be practised by the king's privy council, and in 1352 a statute was passed to prevent this abuse of the liberty of the subject, which was twice re-enacted in the reign of Edward III. Under the Tudors, prisoners, when committed by the council generally, or even by the special command of the king, were admitted to bail on their habeas corpus, but there were frequent delays in obtaining the writ. The question whether a prisoner could be detained by special command of the king, signified by a warrant of the privy council, without showing cause of imprisonment, was argued out in Darnell's case, when the judges, relying upon an obscure declaration of their predecessors in the 34th of Elizabeth, decided for the Crown. The House of Commons retorted by protesting in the Petition of Right against the illegal imprisonment of the subject without cause. They based their protest on clause 39 of Magna Carta, but the interpretation was legally unsound though politically expedient.

The arbitrary arrest of Sir John Eliot (q.v.) and the other members on the dissolution of 1629 was an attempt to evade the Petition of Right, and was met by the provision in the act which abolished the Star Chamber, that any person committed by the council or the king's special command was to have a writ of habeas corpus granted him, on application to the judges of the King's Bench or Common Pleas, without any delay or pretence whatever. Nevertheless, Lord Clarendon's arbitrary custom of imprisoning offenders in distant places revived the grievance, and the Commons, under Charles II, carried several bills to prevent the refusal of the writ of habeas corpus, but they were thrown out in the Lords. In 1676 Jenkes's case called fresh attention to the injustice of protracted imprisonment. At last, in 1679, the famous Habeas Corpus Act was passed. It enacted that any judge must grant the writ of habeas corpus when applied for, under penalty of a fine of £500; that the delay in executing it must not exceed twenty days; that any officer or keeper neglecting to deliver a copy of the warrant of commitment, or shifting the prisoner without cause to another custody, shall be fined £100 on the first offence, and £200, with dismissal, for the second; that no person once delivered by habeas corpus shall be recommitted for the same offence;

that every person committed for treason or felony is to be tried at the next assizes, unless the Crown witnesses cannot be produced at that time; and that, if not indicted at the second assizes or sessions, he may be discharged; and that no one may be imprisoned out of England. The defects in this great act have since been remedied by the Bill of Rights, which declares that excessive bail may not be required; and by the act of 1757 "for securing more effectually the liberty of the subject," which extended the remedies of the Habeas Corpus Act to non-criminal charges, and empowered the judges to examine the truth of the facts set forth in the return. By an act of 1862, based on the fugitive slave Anderson's case, it was provided that no writ of habeas corpus could issue from an English court into any colony where local courts exist having authority to grant and issue the said writ. The Habeas Corpus Act was extended to Ireland in 1782; in Scotland the liberty of the subject is guarded by the Wrongous Imprisonment Act of 1701.

In times of political and social disturbance the Habeas Corpus Act has now and again been suspended. It was suspended nine times between the Revolution and 1745; again during the troubles which followed the French Revolution (1794–1800), after which an Act of Indemnity was passed; as again after the Suspension Act of 1817. In Ireland it has been suspended no fewer than six times since the Union; but after 1848 the government, in times of disaffection, had recourse to coercion acts.

W. S. McKechnie, "Magna Carta" (2nd edn., 1914), pp. 374–95; "Magna Carta Commemoration Essays," ed. H. E. Malden, 1917. [L. C. S.]

Habeas Corpus Act, The, in Ireland, was not passed till 1782, when an act resembling that in England was carried through the Irish parliament. It was suspended in 1797, in 1800, 1802 to 1805, 1807 to 1810, 1814, 1822 to 1824, 1866 to 1869, and partially by the Westmeath Act, 1871, and other coercion acts.

Hacket, William (*d.* 1591), was a fanatic who, with two companions named Coppinger and Arthington, endeavoured to procure a following in London by predicting the immediate end of the world. Their divine mission failed, however, to save them from being convicted as traitors. Arthington was pardoned, Coppinger starved himself to death, and Hacket was executed on July 28, 1591. This fanaticism caused the persecution of the Puritans to be redoubled.

Hackston, David, of Rathillet (*d.* 1680), was one of the party which committed the murder of Archbishop Sharp, though he did not take part in the actual deed. After the crime he escaped into Stirlingshire by giving out that he and his companions were troopers in pursuit of the murderers. He afterwards fought at Drumclog (q.v.) and Bothwell Bridge (q.v.) on the side of the Covenanters. He was captured at Airds Moss (q.v.—1680), and soon afterwards executed at Edinburgh.

Haddington, eighteen miles east of Edinburgh, was burnt by John in 1216, by Henry III in 1244, and by Edward III in 1355. In 1547 it was taken by the English shortly after the battle of Pinkie; but was recaptured by the Scots in the following year. It was here that the Estates of the Realm met to discuss the marriage of their young Queen Mary with the dauphin (1548). In 1715 it was occupied by the Jacobites.

J. Robb, "History of Haddington," 1891.

Hadrian, Emperor of Rome (117–38), visited Britain in the year 120. He restored the southern part of the island to order, and drove back the Caledonians. The wall from the Solway to the Tyne was built by his orders. [Romans in Britain.]

Sir C. Oman, "England Before the Norman Conquest."

Hadwisa, or Hawisa, wife of King John, was the granddaughter of Robert, Earl of Gloucester, natural son of Henry I. Her marriage with King John in 1189 gave him a share of the great Gloucester earldom of which she was co-heir, but in 1199 she was divorced on the pretext of affinity, and subsequently married Geoffrey de Mandeville, Earl of Essex. [Gloucester, Peerage of.]

Haig, Douglas, 1st Earl Haig (1861–1928), was born at Edinburgh and educated at Oxford. He entered the army in 1885 and served in Egypt (1898), South Africa (1899), and India (1909–12). On the outbreak of the Great War he was placed in command of the 1st Army Corps. At the close of 1915 he succeeded Sir John French in the chief command, in which capacity he was responsible for the launching of a campaign in Flanders in 1917. It was due to his advice that the battle was extended northwards in 1918 and so achieved the breaking of the Hindenburg Line. For his services Haig was raised to the peerage as Earl Haig of Bemersyde, and awarded a grant of £100,000. He later became president of the British Legion.

Haldane, Richard Burdon, 1st Viscount Haldane (*b.* 1856), was educated at Edinburgh and Göttingen, and called to the bar in 1879. He entered parliament in 1885. In 1905 he became secretary for war in the Liberal ministry, and during his term of office was responsible for the abolition of the volunteers and militia, and the introduction of the territorial system. He was raised to the peerage in 1911, and appointed to the judicial committee of the privy council. In 1912 he undertook a mission to Berlin to discuss disarmament proposals. On his return he became lord chancellor, an office which he held again in 1924 in the Labour ministry of Ramsay MacDonald.

Hale, Sir Matthew (1609–76), was called to the bar in 1636. He took the side of the king in his struggle with the parliament, and defended the Duke of Hamilton and other Royalists in 1649. Later he took the engagement to be faithful to the Commonwealth, and in 1654 was made a judge of the Common Pleas, in which capacity he showed great fearlessness and impartiality, refusing to assist in the trial of Penruddock in 1655, and on one occasion dismissing a jury which had been illegally returned at Cromwell's bidding. On the death of Oliver Cromwell he resigned his office, but in 1660 was made by Charles II chief baron of the Exchequer, and in 1671 was promoted to the chief justiceship of the King's Bench. In private and public life alike, he was distinguished by his candour, kindly disposition, and piety; his habits and tastes were most simple, and to the end of his life he was an earnest student of theology and law.

W. Hasbach, "Sir M. Hale und J. Brucknor," 1905.

Hales's Case, 1686, is an important case in English constitutional history. Edward Hales had been appointed colonel of a foot regiment in 1673, but had not taken the oaths of allegiance and supremacy required by the Test Act (q.v.). He was indicted and convicted at Rochester assizes in 1686, when, following his formal reconciliation to the Roman Catholic Church (November 1685), James II gave him a dispensation by letters patent. His case was heard on appeal in the King's Bench. Eleven of the twelve judges decided in his favour and vindicated the royal power of dispensation. Hales subsequently became lieutenant of the Tower and master of the ordnance (1687).

C. Grant Robertson, "Select Statutes, Cases and Documents," 4th ed., 1923.

Halfdene (*d.* 910), a Danish leader, is mentioned in the "Anglo-Saxon Chronicle" as one of the two kings leading the Danish army at the battle of Ashdown (871). Four years later he went with part of the host into Northumbria, subdued the land, and harried the Picts and the Strathclyde Welsh. Next year (876) he divided the south part of Northumbria (Deira) among his followers, who settled down in their new abodes as peaceful inhabitants. At the end of a year, however, Halfdene was expelled by his subjects "because of his tyranny." Many years later the name of Halfdene again occurs in the "Chronicle" in connexion with an expedition that ravaged England as far south as Tottenhall (910). On its return the Danish army was overtaken by Edward the Elder, and put to rout. Several of the Danish leaders were slain in this engagement, and amongst them a King Halfdene. It is probable that he was a son of the Halfdene who had established himself at York in Alfred's day. [Danes.]

Halidon Hill, The Battle of (July 19, 1333), was fought near Berwick between the English troops, led by Edward III in person, and the Scots under Sir Archibald Douglas. The English were posted on a hill, and also protected by the marshy ground before them. When the Scots advanced to the attack, their troops floundered in this morass, and, being open to the English archers, were reduced to a mere fragment ere they reached the enemy's ranks. Disorganized and hopeless, they were then slaughtered by the English men-at-arms.

P. Hume Brown, "History of Scotland," 1911.

Halifax, Charles Wood, 1st Viscount (1800–85). [Wood.]

Halifax, Charles Montagu, Earl of (1661–1715). [Montagu.]

Halifax, George Savile, Marquis of (1633–95). [Savile.]

Halifax, George Montagu Dunk, 2nd Earl of (1716–71). [Dunk.]

Hall, Arthur (*fl.* 1563–1604), member for Grantham, who had been previously arraigned at the bar of the House of Commons "for sundry lewd speeches" (1572), was expelled from the House, fined, and imprisoned in the Tower, for having published a book "not only reproaching some particular good members of the House, but also very much slanderous and derogatory to its general authority, power, and state, and prejudicial to the validity of its proceedings in making and establishing of laws" (February 1581). Hall had previously incurred the anger of the House, which suspected him of having connived at the fraud of his servant, John Smalley (q.v.), whom they had sent their sergeant-at-arms to deliver from jail in 1575. When Hall's book was condemned the author made his submission, but was not liberated till the dissolution of parliament. Notwithstanding his misfortunes on this occasion, he seems to have sat in later parliaments. Hall's Case is the chief precedent for the power of expulsion which the House of Commons has always retained.

H. G. Wright, "Life and Works of Arthur Hall of Grantham," 1919.

Hall, Joseph (1574–1656), Bishop of Norwich, was one of the deputies sent to represent the established religion of England at the Synod of Dort (1618). In 1627 he was made Bishop of Exeter, and Bishop of Norwich in 1641, in which year he joined twelve of his fellow-bishops in protesting against all laws passed in their absence from the House of Lords. For this offence he was imprisoned. He died at Higham, near Norwich, in 1656. Hall's chief poetical works are two books entitled respectively "Toothless Satires" (1597) and "Biting Satires" (1598), both of which are of some value as presenting a picture of the manners of his time. He was also the author of a work entitled "Hard Measure"

(published 1647), which gives an account of the treatment he met with at the hands of the Puritan party.

Hallam, Robert (*d.* 1417), held the archdeaconry of Canterbury, and was nominated by the pope to the archbishopric of York after the execution of Archbishop Scrope (1405). Henry IV, however, refused his sanction to the appointment, and Hallam had to content himself with the bishopric of Salisbury (1407). In 1411 he was raised to the cardinalate owing to some technical irregularity, but seems never to have enjoyed the full state of a cardinal. From 1414 onwards he took a very prominent part in the Council of Constance. He died at Gottlieben near Constance in 1417.

Hamilton, originally called Cadzow or Cadyow, derives its name from Walter, son of Gilbert de Hameldane or Hamilton, who, according to a persistent but unauthenticated tradition, was descended from the Beaumonts, lords of Hamilton in Leicester. Walter Fitz-Gilbert was granted the barony of Cadzow at the end of the thirteenth century. Hamilton was made a royal burgh by Queen Mary in 1548. Hamilton Palace is noted as the place in which Mary, Queen of Scots, took refuge on her escape from Lochleven (1568), and where her supporters mustered round her. It was the chief seat of the Hamiltons, and was taken by the Regent Moray later in the same year.

Hamilton, Family of, is descended from Sir Gilbert de Hamilton, who lived in the reign of Alexander II of Scotland. His son, Sir Walter Hamilton, received the lordship of Cadzow from Robert Bruce. Sir James Hamilton, 6th Lord of Cadzow, was created an hereditary lord of parliament, with the title of Lord Hamilton, in 1445. His son James was created Earl of Arran in August 1503. James, 2nd earl, was declared heir-presumptive to the crown in 1543, and in 1548 was created by Henry II Duke of Châtelherault in France. John, his second son, was, in 1591, created Marquis of Hamilton. James, grandson of this peer, was created Duke of Hamilton, 1643. On the death of William, the 2nd duke, without male heirs in 1651, the duchy descended to his niece Anne, who married Lord William Douglas, and the title has remained with their descendants. The holders of the dukedom of Abercorn are descended from Claud, fourth son of the Duke of Châtelherault.

Hamilton, Dukes of. [Douglas.]

Hamilton, Anthony (1646 ?–1720), was the son of Sir George Hamilton and nephew of James, 2nd Earl of Abercorn, on his father's side, while on his mother's he was great-grandson of Walter, 11th Earl of Ormonde. He was born in Ireland, and educated in France. Under James II he was given the command of an infantry regiment in Ireland, and the government of Limerick. At the battle of Newtown Butler (1689) (q.v.) he was wounded and defeated, and was also present next year at the battle of the Boyne; but shortly afterwards followed the dethroned king into exile. It was at Sceaux, the seat of the Duchess of Maine, that he wrote his "Memoirs of Gramont," which were first printed anonymously in French in Holland, in the year 1713. An English translation was issued in the following year. This work contains much information on court politics of the reign of Charles II. (Hamilton's eldest sister, Elizabeth, was the Comtesse de Gramont.)

Hamilton, Emma, Lady (1761–1815), was the daughter of Henry Lyon, a native of Cheshire living in humble circumstances. She lost her character in early years, but after various adventures she was married to Sir William Hamilton, the British ambassador at Naples (1791). At this court she soon became very intimate with the queen, Maria Carolina, and did not hesitate to use this intimacy for the purpose of unravelling state secrets which she claimed to be of importance to Great Britain. In 1793 she made the acquaintance of Nelson (q.v.), whose mistress she soon became. His execution of Caracciolo has been ascribed, though undoubtedly wrongly, to her influence. In 1800 she returned to England with Nelson. Lady Hamilton survived Nelson ten years, and died in mean circumstances in Calais (1815). Before her death she published two volumes containing her correspondence with Nelson (1814).

Lady Hamilton, "Memoirs" (1815 and 1891); biography by W. S. Sichel, 1905.

Hamilton, Sir James (*d.* 1540), was a natural son of James, 1st Earl of Arran. He was a favourite of James V of Scotland, for whom he superintended the erection or the improvement of many royal palaces and castles, e.g., Falkland, Linlithgow, Edinburgh, and Stirling. He was present at the conflict of "Cleanse the Causeway" (q.v.) in 1520, and took an active part in the martyrdom of Patrick Hamilton (q.v.) in 1528. In 1540, being accused of treason and embezzlement, he was found guilty and executed.

Hamilton, James, 2nd Earl of Arran, and Duke of Châtelherault (*d.* 1575), the head of the house of Hamilton, and a near relative of James V of Scotland, acted as regent for some time, until he was displaced by his rival the Earl of Angus, the head of the house of Douglas. On the death of James V he again became regent. The confirmation of a treaty with England, 1543, was quickly followed by a league on the part of the regent and Cardinal Beaton against all English interference, and soon afterwards the English ambassador, Sir Ralph Sadler, was requested to withdraw. In 1547 Arran was defeated at Pinkie, and in 1554 the regency was transferred to Mary of Guise, Arran being rewarded for his acquiescence by the dukedom

of Châtelherault, conferred on him by the French king. He joined the Lords of the Congregation and supported the reformers; and by his opposition to the Darnley marriage incurred the resentment of Queen Mary, so that he judged it prudent to retire to England. Returning some time afterwards, he was reconciled to the queen, and during the Civil War he and the rest of the Hamiltons supported her against the reforming lords. On the abdication of Mary, 1567, he was named one of the council of regency. In 1569 he was imprisoned by Moray in Edinburgh Castle. He was a man of fickle and vacillating character, of courteous manners and pleasant address, but by no means fitted to fill the high position to which he was called.

P. Hume Brown, "History of Scotland," 1911.

Hamilton, James, 3rd Earl of Arran (1530–1609), was the son of the Duke of Châtelherault and the heir of the Hamiltons. Having left France, where his life was in danger from the Guises, he became one of the numerous suitors of Mary, Queen of Scots, whom he planned to carry off in 1561. His failure in his suit seems to have affected his reason. He became mad, and continued so until his death.

Hamilton, James, of Bothwellhaugh (*fl.* 1566–80), fought for Queen Mary at Langside and forfeited his estate in consequence of espousing the royal side. On February 23, 1570, he shot the Regent Moray from the balcony of a house in Linlithgow belonging to Archbishop Hamilton. Within a few days he escaped to France, where he lived for some time in receipt of a pension from Queen Mary. In 1572 his name was excepted from the benefit of the truce between the members of the king's party and the queen's party.

Hamilton, James, 3rd Marquis and 1st Duke of Hamilton (1606–49), succeeded his father, James, 2nd marquis, in 1625, and was sent in 1638 by Charles I as commissioner to the Covenanters, to demand the rescinding of the whole Covenant. Having failed to effect a compromise, he was empowered to make an entire surrender of the Service Book, the Book of Canons, and the high commission. In 1639 he was again sent to Scotland in command of a fleet conveying five regiments of royal troops. In 1643 he was raised to the rank of duke, but was subsequently imprisoned on a charge of disloyalty. In August 1648 he was defeated by Cromwell at Preston and taken prisoner. He was beheaded in London in the following March, after a summary mock trial before Bradshaw.

Hamilton, John (1511 ?–71), Archbishop of St. Andrews, was the natural son of James Hamilton, 1st Earl of Arran, and is said by Scottish historians to have "ruled all at court," and to have been French at heart. He was also very friendly with Cardinal Beaton. He was appointed privy seal and treasurer (1543), and was strongly opposed to the Duke of Somerset's plan of marrying Edward and Mary (1547). By this time he had become Archbishop of St. Andrews on the assassination of Cardinal Beaton. He was a strenuous opponent of the reformed doctrines, and in 1558 condemned the aged Mylne to be burnt for heresy. He baptized James VI in 1566, and about the same time signed a bond in favour of Bothwell. He was a member of Mary's privy council, and continued faithful to her cause, though in 1563 he was empanelled for saying Mass, and committed to ward by her orders. Hamilton, though an archbishop, lived in open adultery, and had to obtain several acts of parliament for the legitimation of his children. He was a party to Darnley's murder; and it was he who in 1567 divorced Bothwell from his wife, and so enabled him to marry the queen. He was hanged at Stirling in April 1571, shortly after the fall of Dumbarton Castle, in which he had taken refuge. The charges against him were complicity in the murders of Darnley and Moray.

J. Herkless and R. K. Hannay, "Archbishops of St. Andrews," vol. v, 1907.

Hamilton, Patrick (1504 ?–28), the "proto-martyr of Scotland," had held one of the lay benefices of the Church, being Abbot of Ferne, in Ross-shire. He is said to have studied theology in Germany, under Luther and Melanchthon. In 1528 he was accused of heresy and burnt at St. Andrews.

Hamilton, Richard (*fl.* 1688), was the grandson of James Hamilton, 1st Earl of Arran. Though a Catholic by religion he had a seat in the Irish privy council, and commanded the Irish troops sent over to England in 1688. After James II's flight he submitted to William, and was sent over to Ireland by the new king as his envoy, having first pledged himself to return in three weeks. Finding, however, that Tyrconnel was determined on resistance, he broke his parole, marched into Ulster at the head of an Irish force, and routed the Protestants at Dromore, March 1689. For some time he was in command of the besiegers of Londonderry, and at the battle of the Boyne led the cavalry in their gallant efforts to retrieve the day. In their last stand he was severely wounded and captured. William did not revenge himself on him for his treachery, and he was exchanged for Mountjoy in 1692, and died in the service of Louis XIV.

Hamilton, Rowan (1751–1834). [Rowan, Archibald Hamilton.]

Hamilton, William Gerard (1729–96), was elected member for Petersfield in 1754. It was in the next year that he delivered (during the debate on the address) the famous fifteen hours' speech which won for him the title of "Single-speech Hamilton" (November 13). After this occasion he only once addressed the

House of Commons again (March 1756), fearing, so it was currently reported, to lose the reputation he had acquired by his great effort. In 1761 he was appointed secretary to Lord Halifax and was for twenty years chancellor of the exchequer in Ireland. He was one of the numerous reputed authors of "Junius," and Fox is credited with having once said, in reference to this question, that he would back him against any single horse, though not against the whole field. Hamilton retired into private life in 1784.

Hammond, Robert, Colonel (1621–54), took part in the siege of Bristol in 1645, and was made governor of the Isle of Wight in 1647. When Charles I escaped from Hampton Court, negotiations were opened on his behalf with Hammond, who, it was hoped, would espouse his cause, as he had often expressed dissatisfaction with the violence of the soldiers. But Hammond was a trusted friend of Cromwell, and, having married a daughter of John Hampden, was attached to the Parliamentary cause. Accordingly he could only be induced to promise that he would treat the king as might be expected from a man of honour, and confined him in Carisbrooke Castle, though with much show of respect. While negotiations were being carried on during the next few months, Hammond frequently requested to be discharged from the care of the king's person, and in consequence was looked upon with more or less suspicion by the officers of the army, till the king was removed to Hurst Castle, whereupon Colonel Hammond was discharged from his government, November 1648. He played no important part in affairs thereafter.

Hampden, John (1594–1643), was the son of William Hampden, of Great Hampden, Bucks, and Elizabeth Cromwell, aunt of Oliver Cromwell. He was born in London, educated at Thame School and Magdalen College, Oxford, and entered the Inner Temple in 1613. In the parliament of 1621 he represented Grampound; in 1626, Wendover; in 1640, Buckinghamshire. In 1627 he was imprisoned for refusing to pay the forced loan. When the second writ for ship-money (q.v.) was issued, by which that tax was extended to the inland counties (1637) he refused to pay it. The case was tried in respect of twenty shillings due from lands in the parish of Stoke Mandeville, and of the twelve judges seven decided for the Crown, two for Hampden on technical grounds, and three for him on all counts. This trial made Hampden "the argument of all tongues, every man inquiring who and what he was that he durst of his own charge support the liberty and property of the kingdom, and rescue his country from being made a prey to the court." When a parliament was again summoned "the eyes of all men were fixed upon him as the pilot which must steer the vessel through the tempest and rocks which threatened it. In the Long Parliament he played an important part, generally moderating by his influence the pressure of the popular party. Thus he urged the Commons to proceed against Strafford by impeachment rather than by bill of attainder, and attempted to arrange a compromise on the Church question. The king's attempt to arrest the Five Members (q.v.) obliged him to alter his policy and urge stronger measures. He was appointed a member of the Committee of Safety, and raised a regiment whose flag bore the significant motto, "Vestigia nulla retrorsum." He distinguished himself by his activity in the first weeks of the war, seizing the king's Commissioners of Array, occupying Oxford, and defeating the Cavaliers in many small skirmishes. He arrived too late to fight at Edgehill, but both after that battle, and after the battle of Brentford, urged vigorous measures on Essex, and in the Committee of Safety argued for a march direct on Oxford. After the capture of Reading in 1643, he again counselled in vain a direct attack on the king's head-quarters. On June 18, 1643, at Chalgrove Field, in endeavouring to prevent the retreat of a body of cavalry which had made a sally from Oxford, he was mortally wounded and died six days later. Clarendon describes him as "a very wise man and of great parts, possessed with the most absolute faculties to govern the people of any man I ever knew."

Lord Nugent, "Memorials of Hampden," 1831.

[C. H. F.]

Hampden, John (1653–96), grandson of the famous John Hampden, distinguished himself by his opposition to the succession of the Duke of York, on the ground of his religion. Later, he was implicated in the Rye House Plot (q.v.), and was arrested, together with Essex, Russell, and others (1683). He was condemned to pay an enormous fine (£40,000). After the Revolution, he was chairman of a committee appointed to prepare an address to William III inveighing against the conduct of Louis XIV. The same year (1689) he attacked Lord Halifax, not only in the House of Commons, but also before the Lords. In 1690 he failed to obtain a seat in the new Tory parliament. Disappointed in his ambition, and perhaps ashamed of the reproaches his own conduct brought upon him, he committed suicide in 1696.

Hampden, Renn Dickson, The Case of (1847). Notwithstanding the fact that his doctrines were in many quarters considered to be highly unorthodox, especially by the Tractarian party, Dr. Hampden (1793–1868), fellow of Oriel and principal of St. Mary Hall, had been appointed in 1836 Regius Professor of Divinity in the University of Oxford by Lord Melbourne. This appointment was censured by the convocation of the university, and in consequence the university authorities deprived him of the privilege of granting certificates to the candidates for holy orders who attended his lectures. In spite of this, in 1847 Lord John

Russell advised the Crown to appoint him to the vacant see of Hereford. This produced a great outcry, and a strong protest from many of the High Church clergy. The forms of election were, however, gone through, in spite of the opposition of the dean of Hereford. The election was formally confirmed in the Court of Arches, and an appeal was made in vain to the court of Queen's Bench.

"Annual Register," 1847.

Hampton Court Conference (1604). On the accession of James I there was a general feeling that some concessions might be made both to the extreme High Church and the extreme Presbyterian sections of the nation. The leading Puritans were ready to soften down their demands, and a great part of the laity—Bacon amongst the number—were, at all events, not opposed to a compromise. On his progress to London, James had received the "Millenary Petition" (q.v.) from the Puritan clergy, and in January 1604 gave orders for a conference to be held between representatives of the Established Church and the Puritans. The conference opened on January 14; the Archbishop of Canterbury, eight bishops, and other Church dignitaries were the champions on the one side; four moderate Puritans on the other. But the nomination of the last party was a mere farce. They were not admitted to the discussions between the king and the bishops, which were carried on in the presence of the lords of the council. In this manner the extent of the concessions that would be granted was arranged before the complainants' case was heard; and when, on the second day, the Puritan spokesman, Reynolds, proposed some alterations in the articles, and proposed to introduce the Lambeth Articles of 1595 (q.v.), and to inquire into the authority for confirmation, Bishop Bancroft interrupted him, and kneeling down before the king, begged him not to listen to a "schismatic speaking against his bishops." Then the conference proceeded to discuss questions of doctrine, and James accepted Reynolds's proposal for a new translation of the Bible. The debate next passed on to the comparative value of a learned and unlearned ministry, of prayers, and of preaching; but each party wished in the first place to make its own views and customs binding on the other; the true spirit of compromise was absent. At last the subject of "prophesyings" (q.v.) came forward, a religious exercise of which many moderate men like Bacon did not disapprove; but unluckily Reynolds proposed that disputes during the prophesyings should be settled by the bishop and his presbytery. James took offence at the word, which reminded him of all that he had endured in Scotland. From this moment the question was settled, and on the third day's conference the king and the bishops agreed to a few trifling alterations in the Prayer Book and to the appointment of commissions with a view to inquire into the best means for obtaining a preaching clergy. It was then announced to the Puritans that they would have to subscribe to the whole Prayer Book, the Articles, and the king's supremacy. And so the Hampton Court Conference ended, without any reasonable concessions having been made to the Puritan party.

W. Stephens and W. Hunt, "History of the Church of England," 1901–10, vol. v.

Hampton Court Palace was built by Cardinal Wolsey. From Wolsey's possession it passed (1526) into the hands of Henry VIII, and has continued to be the property of the Crown ever since. Henry VIII greatly enlarged it, and formed around it a royal park. Having been, until George II's time, a favourite residence of the kings of England, Hampton Court has naturally been the scene of several interesting events in the history of our royal family. The birth of Edward VI, the death of his mother, Jane Seymour, and the famous conference (q.v.) of James I's reign between the High Church party and the Puritans, all took place there. Charles I was imprisoned there for a time and the palace was the occasional residence of Protector Cromwell during the Commonwealth, and in later years of Charles II and James II. By William III the palace was to a great extent rebuilt, and its park and gardens laid out in the formal Dutch style.

Sir E. Law, "History of Hampton Court Palace," 1890.

Hanover, The House of, is lineally descended from the famous Guelfs, or Welfs of Bavaria, who, in the twelfth century, struggled for the Empire against the Hohenstaufen and gave their name to the papal faction of mediæval Italy. Henry the Proud became Duke of Saxony as well as Duke of Bavaria, and in 1180, on the fall of his son Henry the Lion, the allodial lands of the Guelfic house in the former duchy were saved from the forfeiture which befell their greater possessions. After the last struggle of Otto IV, aided by his uncles Richard and John of England, the Guelfs acquiesced in their new position, and in 1235 the districts of Brunswick and Lüneburg were erected into a duchy in their favour by Frederick II. After various partitions and reunions the whole of the duchy of Brunswick fell, in 1527, into the hands of Duke Ernest, a zealous adherent of Luther. His two sons effected a partition of the duchy, which has continued to the present day. The elder son of Ernest became the Duke of Brunswick-Wolfenbüttel. William, the younger son of Ernest, became Duke of Brunswick-Lüneburg, and the ancestor of the house of Hanover. A further division of Lüneburg was made in favour of George, the only one of William's seven sons who was allowed to marry. He was made Duke of Calenberg, with the town of Hanover for his capital, Celle being the chief town of Lüneburg.

After various shiftings, his second son, George William, became Duke of Lüneburg or Celle; and his fourth son, Ernest Augustus, Duke of Calenberg or Hanover (1679). The latter was an able and ambitious prince. He introduced primogeniture, and married Sophia, the daughter of Frederick, the Elector Palatine, and Elizabeth, daughter of James I of England. In 1692 his constant adherence to the cause of the emperor was rewarded by the creation of a ninth electorate in his favour, on conditions which ensured his hearty support to the league against Louis XIV. This electorate was properly called the electorate of Brunswick (*Kurbraunschweig*), but as the dukes of Wolfenbüttel had especially appropriated the title of dukes of Brunswick with their claims over that once free town, the new electors were often called Electors of Hanover, which name, hitherto strictly confined to the town, was henceforth used as the name of the district as well. The Act of Settlement (1701) made the Electress Sophia heiress to the English throne. Ernest had already died in 1698, and their son George Louis, by marrying Sophia Dorothea of Celle, the daughter and heiress of George William of Lüneburg, succeeded on the latter's death, in 1705, to his dominions. Calenberg and Lüneburg were thus reunited, and the new elector put in possession of dominions more adequate to sustain his dignity. In 1714 he became King of England. From that date to 1837 the electorate of Hanover and the English monarchy were united. In 1815 Hanover was erected into a kingdom with large accessions of territory. But in 1837 the accession of Queen Victoria resulted in Ernest, Duke of Cumberland, becoming King of Hanover, as males only were allowed to occupy that throne. Thirty years of arbitrary government and violated constitutions led to the absorption of Hanover into the Prussian state after the war of 1866.

Speaking very roughly, we may divide the Hanoverian period of British history into three sections. From 1714 to 1761 the Whig oligarchy governed the country. After a few years of transition, a long period of Tory rule, 1770–1830, culminated in the reaction against the French Revolution. With 1830 began the period of reform. George I (1714–27) ascended the throne as the pledged supporter of the Whig party, to whose triumph he owed the throne, and by whose principles alone he could claim it. Ignorant of the English language, government, and constitution, he suffered without much difficulty the authority of the Crown to pass into the hands of the ministry which had the confidence of parliament, and was content if his demands for money were satisfied, and if the foreign policy of Great Britain was framed with special regard to the interest of his electorate. Under him, as under his son, George II (1727–60), Great Britain, in the unmeasured language of opposition orators, "became a province of a despicable electorate." But it may be doubted whether the policy of Great Britain and the policy of Hanover did not generally coincide, except perhaps so far as the jealousy of a petty German prince at the rise of Prussia for a time brought British influence rather to bear against the development of the great state which was ultimately to bring unity to Germany. But despite the personal hostility of George II and Frederick the Great, the crisis of the Seven Years' War forced them into an alliance which saved Prussia and covered Great Britain with glory. George II had been content to govern on the lines of his father; but his son Frederick, Prince of Wales, became the centre of a new Toryism that had its highest expression in Bolingbroke's "Idea of a Patriot King." George III, the son of Frederick (1760–1820), began a new epoch in the history of the house of Hanover, by carrying into practice Bolingbroke's theories, and by endeavouring to secure for the king personally the exercise of those prerogatives which the practice of George I and George II had handed over to his ministers. His first triumph under Lord North was for a time ended by the coalition, but under Pitt his ideas finally gained the victory, and the new Toryism of the reaction from the French Revolution found in him a centre for its loyalty. Proud of his "British" nationality, and more intent on home than foreign politics, he allowed the dependence of British policy on Hanoverian interests almost to cease, and the long occupation of that country by Napoleon (1803–14) almost cut the connexion between the kingdom and the electorate. George IV, who, first as regent (1810–20) and then as king (1820–30), was his successor, was too feeble and self-indulgent, too destitute of fixed principle and courage to maintain his father's position. He managed to stave off reform in Great Britain and Hanover; but his brother, William IV (1830–7), while accepting the Reform Bill of 1832 in Great Britain, gave a constitution to Hanover in 1833. In 1837 Queen Victoria ascended the throne, and her constitutional rule, and the practical wisdom of her husband, enabled the transition back from the practice of George III to the practice of George I to be made without friction or difficulty. It is hard to formulate any general characteristics of the rule of the house of Hanover in Great Britain. Under them the constitution was preserved, and the material aspects of the country revolutionized. Without any of the more heroic virtues, and without any lofty ability, their good sense and power to see things as they were made them well adapted to occupy the difficult position into which they were elevated. In 1917 the nominal connexion with Hanover ceased by the proclamation of George V (q.v.) that the British royal line would thenceforth be known as the House of Windsor.

W. E. H. Lecky, "England in the 18th Century," 7 vols., 1890; W. Massey, "Reign of George III,"

1863; H. Martineau, "History of Thirty Years of Peace, 1815–45," 3 vols., 1849; W. H. Molesworth, "History of England, 1830–74," 3 vols., 1874; Spencer Walpole, "History of England from 1815," 1879; J. McCarthy, "History of Our Own Times," 4 vols., 1880; Sir Erskine May, "Constitutional History, 1760–1911," 3 vols. ed. F. Holland, 1912; W. Bagehot, "English Constitution," 1872 and 1922; Sir A. W. Ward, "Great Britain and Hanover," 1899; "The Electress Sophia and the Hanoverian Succession," 2nd edn., 1909; B. C. Scottowe, "Our Hanoverian Kings," 1884 and 1899. [T. F. T.]

Hanover, The Treaty of (September 3, 1725), between Great Britain, France, and Prussia, was rendered necessary by the Treaty of Vienna (April 30 and May 1, 1725) between Spain and Austria, by the secret article of which marriages between the two houses were arranged, Austria and Spain pledged themselves to assist the restoration of the Stuarts, and agreed further to compel, if necessary by force, the restoration of Gibraltar and Minorca. The Jacobite leaders were in direct communication with Ripperda. In opposition to this alliance, Walpole and Townshend obtained the accession of France and Prussia to a confederacy of which Great Britain was the centre. In case of any attack on one of the contracting parties, the others were to furnish a certain quota in troops, or the value in ships and money; and, in case of need, were to confer concerning further succours. The real objects of the treaty were to counterbalance the Treaty of Vienna, compel the emperor to relinquish the Ostend Company (which Austria had established for trade with the Indies in violation of the Barrier Treaty), and to resist any attempts that might be made on behalf of the Pretender. Its objects were successful. The emperor withdrew from his unfortunate position, and peace was signed at Paris in May 1727. The Treaty of Hanover was violently attacked by the opposition during Walpole's administration. Its true justification lies in the terms of the secret Treaty of Vienna.

Hansard, Luke (1752–1828), was at first a compositor in the office of John Hughs, printer to the House of Commons. After two years he became a partner in the firm, and in 1800 the business passed entirely into his hands. He managed the issue of the report of parliamentary proceedings which, down to the year 1803, is known as Cobbett's "Parliamentary History"; and after that date was continued under the title of "Parliamentary Debates" by Hansard. The official report of the proceedings of both Houses of Parliament is now published under the title of "The Parliamentary Debates." [Stockdale *v.* Hansard.]

Harcourt, Simon, 1st Viscount (1661–1727), was called to the bar in 1683. He was elected member for Abingdon (1690) in the first parliament of William III. He was a strong opponent of the Revolution Settlement, and of the attainder of Sir John Fenwick; and in 1701 he conducted the impeachment of Lord Somers (q.v.) for his share in the Partition Treaty of 1698. Next year he became solicitor-general and attorney-general, and in this capacity conducted the prosecution of Daniel Defoe (1703); but his legal abilities were better employed in framing the bill for the Scottish Union. He followed Harley out of office in 1708. His able defence of Sacheverell (q.v.) two years later resulted in the acquittal of that divine. When the Tories came into power in 1710 he was appointed lord keeper of the privy seal. In the quarrel between Oxford and Bolingbroke he sided with the latter. On the accession of George I, Harcourt was deprived of office. In 1717 he defeated the impeachment of Oxford. [Harley.] In 1721 he became a convert to Whig principles.

W. T. Morgan, "English Political Parties in the Reign of Queen Anne," 1920.

Harcourt, Sir William Vernon (1827–1904), graduated in high honours at Cambridge in 1851, and was called to the bar in 1854, being appointed a queen's counsel in 1866. In 1868 he became Liberal M.P. for Oxford City, migrating to Derby in 1880 and to West Monmouth in 1895. His letters to *The Times* signed "Historicus," on international law during the war in America, attracted attention. He became solicitor-general and was knighted in 1873. He was made home secretary in 1880. In 1886 and 1892–5 he was chancellor of the exchequer, and effected an important revision of the Death Duties and of the Income Tax. In 1894 he succeeded Gladstone as leader of the House of Commons (a position he resigned in 1898), and remained a prominent parliamentary figure till his death.

Hardicanute, or Harthacnut, King (1040–2), was the son of Canute by Emma. On the death of his father in 1035 he was already in possession of Denmark and proceeded to lay claim to England. He was supported by Godwin and the West Saxons, but the north maintained the cause of his half-brother Harold, and eventually a treaty was made whereby Hardicanute was to reign in the south and Harold in the north. In 1037, however, Harold was chosen king over all, and Hardicanute forsaken because he stayed too long in Denmark. At the same time Emma was driven out and fled to Bruges. Here Hardicanute joined her, and was preparing to assert his claims, when in 1040 Harold died. Upon this Hardicanute was unanimously chosen king, but soon proved himself as worthless as his brother. "All his public acts set him before us as a rapacious, brutal, and bloodthirsty tyrant." His first acts were to levy a heavy danegeld (q.v.), and order Harold's body to be dug up, beheaded, and thrown into a ditch. The danegeld led to a revolt at Worcester against the housecarls (q.v.), who were killed in their attempt to collect the tax. This rising was speedily crushed, Worcester was burned, and the whole of the shire ravaged. The only

other event of importance in this reign is Hardicanute's accusation of Godwin as the murderer of the Atheling Alfred. The trial which ensued resulted in the triumphant acquittal of Godwin, who, to make his peace with the king, presented him with a ship fully manned and equipped. Probably with the idea of regaining popularity, Hardicanute sent over to Normandy for his half-brother Edward, who came and lived at his court. In 1042, while at the marriage-feast of his standard-bearer, Tofig the Proud, Hardicanute suddenly fell dead as he stood at drink.

Hardinge, Sir Henry, 1st Viscount (1785–1856), entered the army in 1799 and was present at most of the great battles of the Peninsular War. He distinguished himself greatly at the battle of Albuera (q.v.), and later, during the Hundred Days, he was entrusted with the important office of commissioner at the Prussian head-quarters. In this capacity he was with Blücher at the battle of Ligny, but the loss of his left hand, which was taken off by a shot, prevented his presence at Waterloo. During the years of peace that followed he entered parliament and held office under the Duke of Wellington as secretary at war (June 1828—November 1830). Peel appointed him governor-general of India in 1844. His first year of office was marked by the Sind mutiny. In 1845 the disturbances across the Sutlej culminated in the first Sikh War, which lasted till 1846, when Hardinge was able to conclude the pacification of Lahore, by which he hoped to establish the security of the British north-west frontier. The infant Dhuleep Singh was left as nominal maharajah at Lahore under a regency, and it was finally decided that the British troops should remain for eight years, and so ensure the tranquillity of the Sikhs till the young prince came of age. In 1847 Hardinge returned to England as Viscount Hardinge. In 1852, on the death of the Duke of Wellington, he was appointed commander-in-chief, and in 1855 was made a field-marshal.

Biography by C. S. Hardinge, 1891.

Hardwicke, Philip Yorke, 1st Earl of (1690–1764). [Yorke.]

Hardy, Sir Thomas Masterman (1769–1839), Nelson's favourite captain, was born near Dorchester. He entered the navy at the age of twelve, and was present at the battles of St. Vincent (1797) and the Nile (1798). For his bravery in the latter action Nelson gave him the *Vanguard*. In 1803 he became Nelson's flag-captain, and it was on board his ship, the *Victory*, that Nelson received his fatal wound at Trafalgar. In later years Hardy commanded the North American squadron, and in 1834 was appointed a lord of the admiralty and governor of Greenwich Hospital.

Biographies of Nelson.

Harfleur, a town of France, lying some six miles from Havre, was taken by Henry V on September 22, 1415. It was besieged by the Count d'Armagnac and relieved by the Duke of Bedford the following year. The English were expelled in 1435, but once more obtained possession of the city in 1440, and held it till 1449, when they were driven out by Dunois.

Harlaw, The Battle of (July 24, 1411), was fought between the invading Islesmen, under Donald of the Isles, and the Lowland troops, under the Earl of Mar. Donald was completely defeated. The battle ranks with Carham (1016) in its determining influence on the development of the Scottish nation. Never since it was fought has Teutonic Scotland been in real danger from the Celtic race, to whom it originally owed its being.

Harley, Robert, 1st Earl of Oxford (1661–1724), was the eldest son of Sir Edward Harley, a Puritan who had sat in the Long Parliament, and who declared for William III at the Revolution. Robert Harley began his political career as the Whig member for a Cornish borough (Tregony); but he gradually changed his politics, and adopted Toryism. In 1690 he was appointed one of the arbitrators for uniting the two East India Companies; and in 1696, as leader of the Tories, he proposed the Land Bank scheme as a rival to the Bank of England. Next year he moved that the army should be reduced to what it had been in the year 1680, and when the measure was carried, William was forced to dismiss his Dutch guards. In 1701 he was chosen Speaker of the Commons. In 1704 Marlborough, who had broken with the extreme High Tories, selected him to succeed Nottingham as secretary of state, and in 1706 he was appointed one of the commissioners for the Treaty of Union with Scotland. Finding that the Tories were being gradually ousted from the ministry, he used the influence of his cousin, Mrs. Masham, for the purpose of intriguing against Marlborough. He represented to Anne that Church interests were in danger, and the queen was encouraged to create Dr. Blackall and Sir William Dawes bishops of Exeter and Chester respectively, without consulting her ministers (1707). Marlborough and Godolphin at once determined to break with Harley. It was discovered that one Gregg, a clerk in his office, was in correspondence with France, and this was made a ground for his dismissal. Though the queen was difficult to move, she yielded at last, and Harley resigned his office in 1708. On the sudden fall of the Whigs, however, he became chancellor of the exchequer, and virtually prime minister (1710), with Bolingbroke for his colleague and rival. Harley at once began to negotiate a peace with France, while at the same time he intrigued with the Jacobite court at St. Germains. Guiscard (q.v.), a French refugee, who had frequently been consulted by Marlborough, now offered to betray the British plans to the French,

and on the detection of his correspondence he stabbed Harley with a penknife while under examination before the Council. This wounding, and the South Sea Company formed by Harley at this time, made him very popular, and the queen created him Earl of Oxford and lord treasurer (May 1711). Meanwhile the negotiations for peace were being carried on. Marlborough was dismissed from office, and the hostile majority in the Lords was neutralized by the creation of twelve peers. In March 1713 the Peace of Utrecht was signed. But dissensions broke out in the ministry. Bolingbroke wished for a Stuart restoration; Oxford was averse to such an extreme measure. Bolingbroke, in order to get rid of the lord treasurer, introduced the Schism Act, a measure conceived entirely in the High Church spirit. Afraid to offend the Dissenters, Oxford acted with great indecision, and was in consequence dismissed (July 1714). After the accession of George I, he was impeached by the Commons; but the proceedings against him were dropped, as it would have been impossible to substantiate the charges of treason. Enraged at the treatment he had met with, Harley wrote from the Tower, offering his services to the Pretender; but on his release he retired to the country. In 1721 the leadership in Bishop Atterbury's plot (q.v.) was offered him, but he declined it. Three years later he died (May 1724). He was a great lover of literature, and a friend of the leading men of letters of his day—Swift and Pope among the number. His splendid collection of MSS. still forms one of the chief treasures of the British Museum.

Biographies by E. S. Roscoe, 1902, and O. B. Miller, 1925. [S. L.]

Harold I, King (1035–40), was reported to be the son of Canute, by Elgiva (Ælfgifu) of Northampton, who had been the concubine of Canute before his marriage to Emma. After Canute's death the rival claims of Harold and Hardicanute were eagerly debated, the former being supported by Leofric, the Danish party, and the city of London; the latter by Godwin and the West Saxons, as well as by his mother Emma. The result was that Harold obtained the country to the north of the Thames, and Hardicanute got Wessex, which, during his absence in Denmark, was administered by Godwin and Emma. In 1036 the two sons of Ethelred made an attempt to recover their father's kingdom, but failed; whereupon the younger, Alfred, was taken and put to death by Harold. In 1037, the "Anglo-Saxon Chronicle" tells us, "they chose Harold over all the kings, and forsook Harthacnut, because he was too long in Denmark." Harold at once banished Emma, who retired to Flanders, but reconciled himself with Godwin and the English party. His reign is not remarkable for anything, and of his own administration absolutely nothing is known. Great corruption, however, appears to have prevailed in the Church under his government. In 1039 Hardicanute, who had joined his mother at Bruges, prepared an expedition against his brother, but before it set sail Harold had died at Oxford, March 17, 1040. He was married, but left no children. He was buried at Westminster, but, by Hardicanute's orders, his body was dug up and thrown into a ditch. Of Harold's character nothing is known. His chief accomplishment would appear to have been swiftness in running, for which he received the sobriquet of "Harefoot."

T. Hodgkin, "Political History of England," vol. i.

Harold II, King (*b.* c. 1021, *s.* January 6, 1066; *d.* October 14, 1066), was the second son of Earl Godwin and Gytha. When still young, he shared in the splendid fortunes of his father, and in 1045 was made earl of the East Angles. Of the early part of his official career no record remains; his public prominence began with the misfortunes of his house. In the struggle of 1051 he led the men of his earldom to Beverstone to his father's support, fell from power, and was outlawed with him; but he and Leofwine, taking a different road from their fellow outlaws, went to Dublin, where they passed the winter. Appearing next year in the Bristol Channel with nine ships, Harold landed at Porlock, slew thirty opposing thanes and many people, ravaged and robbed without stint, and then sailed away to join his father at Portland. In the restoration of the Godwin family that ensued, Harold was reinstated in his former earldom (1052). His successful activity on this occasion, and the death in exile of his elder brother, Sweyn, marked him for special distinction; and in 1053, when his father died, he at once succeeded him as earl of the West Saxons. Henceforward Harold was the foremost figure and the weightiest influence in English politics. Till he became king, almost every important event and action of his own added strength to his position, or increased his reputation. On the death of Siward, in 1055, his brother Tostig became earl of the Northumbrians. In the same year he rescued Hereford and the country round it from the marauding Welsh, under King Gruffyd and the refugee Earl Elfgar of East Anglia, chased the invaders back to Wales, and fortified Hereford. In 1056 Gruffyd was forced to do homage to the Confessor. In 1057, when Earl Elfgar succeeded to his father's Mercian earldom, Harold's brother Gurth was given East Anglia, while the shires of the south-east were grouped into another earldom for Leofwine. In 1058, therefore, Harold was the head of a house whose members divided among them the rule of three-fourths of England. The pious King Edward had practically placed the power of the Crown at Harold's disposal. This power and his own he used to check the spread of Norman influence, and the encroachments of the king's Norman favourites. Nature and fortune now clearly pointed to him as the heir of the almost

heirless king. Tall and stalwart, comely and gentle, he drew men's eyes and hearts towards him. He had, moreover, enlarged his mind, and added to his capacity by foreign travel, especially by a journey to Rome. In 1060 he founded the religious house known later as Waltham Abbey. In 1064 he was provoked by the raids of King Gruffyd into a systematic invasion of Wales, in which he overran the country "from dyke to sea," routing the Welsh in every encounter, and slaughtering them without mercy. Eventually Gruffyd was slain by his own subjects, who sent his head to the West Saxon earl. Harold thereupon married his widow, Aldgyth, daughter of Earl Elfgar, and sister to the young Mercian earl Edwin. It was probably in the same year, however, that his position was seriously compromised by an unlucky adventure. Having been shipwrecked on the coast of Ponthieu, he was, after a short captivity, given up by Count Guy to William of Normandy, from whose compulsory hospitality he had to purchase his release by taking an oath to support his host's claim to the English throne. No trace of a belief that this oath was binding can be seen in his subsequent conduct, but it later provided William with a useful weapon against him. In 1065, when the Northumbrians rose against Tostig, a sense of justice or policy made Harold take their part, and gain the king's sanction to the transfer of their earldom to Edwin's brother, Morkere. This proved to be a disastrous step; since it drove Tostig into the arms of Harold's enemies.

On January 5, 1066, Edward the Confessor died. Next day Harold "took," as the "Anglo-Saxon Chronicle" words it, "to the kingdom," being crowned king by virtue of the election of the witan and the bequest of King Edward. During "the forty weeks and one day" of his reign his vigilance was never once allowed to sleep. His outlawed brother, Tostig, and the rival candidate he had forestalled, were planning and preparing his destruction; and the former, repulsed in one or two attempts on the coast, had allied himself with Harold Hardrada, King of Norway. In September he and his ally made their invasion; and Harold had just time to march to York, meet and destroy them at Stamford Bridge (q.v.), when his more terrible foe, William the Norman, came with a mighty power to challenge his crown. On October 14 the rivals measured their strength at Senlac in Sussex [HASTINGS, BATTLE OF]; and the Englishman, after an unsurpassed display of stubborn valour, was overthrown and slain at six in the evening. His body, mangled by Norman ferocity, is said to have been singled out from the enclosing heap of corpses by a former mistress, Edith "Swansneck," and buried either on the sea-shore or in the minster at Waltham.

E. A. Freeman, "Norman Conquest," 1867–71, vols. ii and iii; T. Hodgkin, "Political History of England," vol. i. [J. R.]

Harold Hardrada (*d.* 1066), King of Norway, was the son of Sigurd and the half-brother of St. Olaf. In his early years he had served in the emperor's guard at Constantinople and made a pilgrimage to Jerusalem. He came home and reigned with his nephew, Magnus the Good, becoming sole king after Magnus's death. He had long planned the conquest of England, and was in the Orkneys with a great fleet when Tostig was beaten from the east coast. On his way to the Humber Tostig joined his expedition, and they sailed up the Humber together, and marched on York. Victorious at first at Fulford, they gained possession of York; but Harold proved too strong for them, and the Norwegian force was defeated, and the two leaders slain, at Stamford Bridge (September 25, 1066) (q.v.).

Harrington, JAMES (1611–77), after studying at Trinity College, Cambridge, travelled abroad and entered the service of Elizabeth, Queen of Bohemia. He subsequently returned to England and entered the household of Charles I. He was, however, a republican, and in 1656 wrote and dedicated to Cromwell a political romance called "Oceana," intended to promote republican principles. With the same view, Harrington formed an association called the "Rota Club." In 1661 he was imprisoned in the Tower, but released on the plea of insanity.

Harrington's "Oceana," ed. S. B. Liljegren, 1924; H. F. R. Smith, "Harrington and his 'Oceana,'" 1914.

Harrington, WILLIAM STANHOPE, 1ST EARL OF (1690 ?–1756). [STANHOPE.]

Harrison, THOMAS (1606–60), was a native of Newcastle-under-Lyme. At the opening of the Civil War he entered Essex's bodyguard. He was in command of the guard that conveyed the king from Hurst Castle to London; he was also one of the king's judges, and signed his death-warrant. Harrison was commanding on the northern border when the Scots entered England under Charles II. He obstructed their march with great ability, and took part in the battle of Worcester. He had been elected a member of the council of state (1650), but he assisted Cromwell in expelling both council and parliament. In the Barebones' Parliament (q.v.) Harrison was one of the leaders of the advanced party, and an opponent of the dissolution. Cromwell, after vainly trying to conciliate him, deprived him of his commission and relegated him to Staffordshire. Harrison took part in Overton's plot (1654), and was suspected of taking part in Venner's (1657), and other plots, for which he was several times imprisoned. At the Restoration he was condemned to death after a very gallant defence, in which he justified the king's execution. He was beheaded on October 13, 1660.

Biographies by C. H. Simpkinson, 1905, and C. H. Firth, 1893.

Harrowby, Dudley Ryder, 1st Earl of (1762–1847). [Ryder.]

Hartington, Spencer Compton Cavendish, Marquis of (1833–1908). [Cavendish.]

Harvey, Beauchamp Bagenal (1762–98), of Bargay Castle, a gentleman of property in county Wexford, was arrested as a rebel in May 1798, and confined, together with Colclough and Grogan, in the city jail. Being sent out to treat with the rebels, after the city had been evacuated by the troops, he was induced to become their leader; but showed such disgust at the massacre of Scullabrogue that he was deposed from his command. When the troops retook the town he concealed himself, together with Colclough, in one of the Saltee Islands, but they were both taken, sentenced to death, and hanged (June 26, 1798).

J. A. Froude, "English in Ireland," 3 vols., 1872–4.

Hastenbeck, The Battle of (July 26, 1757), near Hameln, in Hanover, was one of the engagements of the Seven Years' War. The Duke of Cumberland, with a motley army of about 50,000 men, was defeated by the French with 80,000 and compelled to retire on Stade, near the mouth of the Elbe. [Kloster-Zeven; Cumberland.]

Hastings, The Battle of (October 14, 1066), is the name usually given to the great combat which took place at Senlac, near Hastings, between the invading Normans, under William the Conqueror, and the English, under Harold. On the news of William's landing in Sussex, Harold held a hurried council at Stamford Bridge, and, after ordering a general muster in London, pressed southwards himself at the head of his housecarls. At London, men flocked in from all southern England; but Mercia and Northumbria, the provinces of Edwin and Morkere, held aloof. Rejecting the advice which his brother Gurth is said to have given him, to stay behind and gather troops for a second battle if the first should issue in defeat, Harold set forth from the city, and pitched his camp on the hill of Senlac (October 13). This hill, according to Wace, he proceeded to fortify with a palisade and a ditch; but earlier authorities speak only of the shield-wall of the English, and the entrenchments appear to have been merely the relics of some earlier fortification. After a night of confession and prayer, the Norman army advanced over the higher ground of Telham to the valley which ran along the foot of Harold's hill. The Norman army was divided into three parts, of which the left wing, consisting of Bretons, Poitevins, etc., was under the direction of Alan of Brittany; the right wing, consisting of the mercenary troops, under Roger Montgomery and William Fitz-Osbern; while in the centre, grouped round the holy banner of the pope, came the Norman men-at-arms and archers, led by the duke himself, mounted on his Spanish horse. Each of these divisions was again subdivided into three groups of archers, infantry, and horsemen respectively, in which order they were to advance to the fight. The English were arrayed in solid formation along the crest of the hill. On the right and left were posted the light-armed levies from the southern shires, armed with club and javelin, or even with forks and stakes; in the centre stood the English housecarls, in their helmets and coats of mail, with shield and javelin and Danish axe. The battle opened, at nine o'clock in the morning, with a shower of arrows from the advanced archers of each Norman division; then the heavy-armed foot came on to the attack; but they could make no impression upon the closely wedged ranks of the English defenders. Finally came the charge of the cavalry, spurred to action by the exhortations and example of the minstrel Taillefer. Their efforts proved, however, equally unavailing. The Bretons, on the left wing, took to flight, and part of the English troops, against Harold's express orders, broke from their ranks in pursuit. A rumour was passed along that William had been slain, and he had to tear his helmet from his head to show them that he was yet living, while, spear in hand, he drove the fugitives back to the fight. The Bretons then took heart again, and overpowered their disorganized pursuers. Despite a partial success here and on the right wing, the English lines still remained unbroken, and the enemy had to retire once more. William, however, had noticed that, firmly as the English fought in close rank behind their fortification, they had fallen an easy prey to the Breton auxiliaries when separated in the ardour of pursuit. He accordingly ordered part of his army to counterfeit a flight; and once more the English swept down from the hill, only to meet with the fate their rashness deserved. The Norman centre made its way, unopposed, up the slope to its left, which was now unprotected by its proper defenders. But still the English held out against charge after charge of the duke's horsemen, till William had recourse to a fresh stratagem. His archers were bidden to shoot up into the air, so that their arrows might come down from above. This had the desired effect. The shields which were required for the protection of the head could no longer shelter the body too; and, to crown all, Harold himself was pierced in the eye by an arrow. Night was now coming on, and though the housecarls fought on till the last man was slain, the light-armed troops, having lost their king, fled away in the darkness, pursued by the Norman horse; and the battle was lost.

E. A. Freeman, "Norman Conquest," vol. iii, 1871; J. H. Round, "Feudal England," 1909; Sir C. W. C. Oman, "History of the Art of War in the Middle Ages," 1924; C. Dawson, "History of Hastings Castle." [T. A. A.]

Hastings, Francis, 2nd Earl of Huntingdon (1514–61), was employed in 1550

in an expedition for the relief of Calais and Boulogne, with Sir James Crofts. In 1554 he did good service for Mary in the Duke of Suffolk's rebellion, and succeeded in taking that nobleman prisoner. He married Catherine, daughter of Lord Montacute, and granddaughter of Margaret, Countess of Salisbury, and so handed on to his son Henry a remote possibility of inheriting the English crown.

Hastings, Francis Rawdon-, 1st Marquis of Hastings (1754–1826), was the son of Sir John Rawdon, afterwards raised to the Irish peerage by the title of Earl of Moira. On leaving Oxford he entered the army as an ensign, and was before very long engaged in the American War. For his services in America he was made an English peer in 1783. In 1793 he succeeded to his father's title, and in 1803 was appointed commander-in-chief in Scotland. About the same time he seems to have paid considerable attention to the condition of poor debtors, and the state of Ireland. In 1813 he was appointed to succeed Lord Minto as governor-general of India and commander-in-chief. His first measure of importance was to declare war (1814) against the Gurkhas of Nepal, who had been encroaching on the British territory towards the north of Hindustan. After some initiatory reverses, the British arms were victorious, the Gurkha limits were defined, and the war brought to an end (1816). For this success Lord Moira was made Marquis of Hastings. The attention of the governor-general was next turned to the Mahratta powers, who were supporting the raids of the robber Pindaris. Within a very short period the Peshwa's dominions were practically annexed, the Pindaris destroyed, the Rajput states protected, Sindhia forced to enter upon a new treaty, and the Holkar state compelled to yield up part of its territory and become a subsidiary state under the protection of the British government (1817–18). Lord Hastings had succeeded in establishing the British power more firmly than ever. He was the first governor-general who strongly advocated the education of the natives, in direct contravention of the popular notion that their ignorance contributed to the security of the British rule. Native schools and native journals were established under his rule, and with his approval, though the innovation was strongly opposed by most men of his own generation. In 1820 he turned his attention to the Nizam's dominions, where, though the extinction of the Peshwa had relieved the country from its enormous arrears of tribute, every office was put up to bribe, and ruin was imminent. Charles Metcalfe now was appointed British resident at the court of Hyderabad; and he, discovering that the Palmer Bank was a main source of corruption, and was compromising the British government, owing to Lord Hastings's connexion with one of the partners, took such drastic measures as led to the speedy winding-up of the concern. Shortly after this, Lord Hastings resolved to resign his office. He accordingly left India in 1823, and accepted the government of Malta, where he introduced many reforms. His death occurred in 1826.

Biography by J. F. G. Ross-of-Bladensburg, 1890.

Hastings, Henry, 3rd Earl of Huntingdon (1535–95), was, soon after the accession of Elizabeth, regarded as her possible heir, especially by Cecil and the Protestant party (on account of his descent from Edward IV's brother George, Duke of Clarence). But the plan of recognizing him proved impracticable. He subsequently strongly opposed the contemplated marriage between Mary, Queen of Scots, and the Duke of Norfolk as one which would be fraught with much mischief to the Protestant cause. In the year 1569 he became Mary's jailer at Tutbury, and proved himself the bitter enemy of the Scottish queen and the Catholic party. In 1581 he was sent to levy troops against Lennox, though he was prevented from taking any further steps against the regent by Secretary Randolph. Huntingdon married Lady Catherine Dudley, daughter of John, Duke of Northumberland, and was, therefore, the brother-in-law of the Earl of Leicester.

Hastings, Warren (1732–1818), the son of a Worcestershire gentleman, went to Bengal in 1750 as a writer in the service of the East India Company. Here he attracted the attention of Clive, and after Plassey was appointed agent to the Nawab of Murshidabad for the East India Company. In 1769 he became a member of the council at Madras, and in 1771 was appointed governor of Bengal. In this capacity he devoted himself to retrenchment and reform. Half the nawab's allowance was cut off; Corah and Allahabad, the old cessions to the Mogul, were resumed on pretence of a quarrel and sold to the Vizir of Oudh for fifty lacs of rupees; the land tax was settled on a new basis which produced more revenue with less oppression; and lastly, in his need for money, British troops were let to the Vizir of Oudh for forty lacs of rupees, in order that that prince might be able to destroy his enemies, the neighbouring tribe of Rohillas, and annex the province of Rohilkhand. In 1773 Lord North's Regulating Act took effect, and Hastings became the first governor-general of India, with powers greatly limited by those of his council, three members of which, headed by Philip Francis, came out full of prejudice against Hastings, who therefore found himself powerless, and in a perpetual minority. Nuncomar, a Brahmin, brought a charge of peculation against him. The rancorous eagerness with which the council took the matter up drove Hastings to desperate measures. Invoking the separate powers confided in the Supreme Court by the Regulating Act, he obtained the arrest of Nuncomar on a charge of forgery (May 1775). Sir Elijah Impey, the lord chief justice, proceeded

thereupon to try, condemn, and hang Nuncomar. This bold stroke resulted in the complete triumph of Hastings over his enemies—rendered still more secure by the death of one of the triumvirate in the council, which enabled him to obtain a perpetual majority by means of his casting vote. Once secure in his power he turned his attention to the aggrandizement of the British power in India. Discovering that owing to the quarrels between the other presidencies and the Mahrattas war was inevitable, and that the latter were intriguing with the French, he determined to take the initiative, and crush the half-formed confederacy. The Bombay government embraced the cause of Ragonaut Rao Ragoba, a deposed Peshwa, and plunged into a war with the Mahratta regency, in which they were extremely unsuccessful, owing to bad generalship. Hastings sent Colonel Goddard with the Bengal army to accomplish a dangerous march across India, and in 1779 Goddard overran Gujarat, captured Ahmedabad, and finding Sindhia disposed to delay and evasion, attacked and routed him on April 14, 1780. Hastings, moreover, dispatched another Bengal army to Malwa under Major Popham, who completed the defeat of Sindhia by capturing his almost impregnable fortress of Gwalior (August). Sindhia concluded a treaty with the British, and by his mediation peace was made between Great Britain and the Poona government. In July 1780 Hyder Ali overran the Carnatic and threatened Madras. Hastings immediately suspended Whitewell, the governor of Madras; dispatched all available troops to the Carnatic, gave the command to Sir Eyre Coote, and sent large sums of money. The victories of Coote in 1781 restored the British position. On the news of Hyder's advance in 1780, Hastings demanded troops and £50,000 from Cheyte Singh, Raja of Benares, a tributary of the British. On his delaying, it was raised to £500,000. This being unpaid, Hastings arrested Cheyte Singh, deposed him, and seized all his property (November 1781). But the governor-general, being still in want of money, persuaded Asaf-ud-Dowlah, Vizir of Oudh, to assist in robbing his mother and grandmother, the Begums of Oudh. Hastings's internal administration was most successful. He dissolved the double government, and transferred the direction of affairs to the British. He created the public offices and service of Bengal. He organized the revenue for the first time on a definite basis. This, moreover, he effected from mere chaos without any assistance, being on the contrary constantly trammelled by orders from home, and frequently borne down by a majority in council. He remained at the head of affairs till 1785. By the time of his return peace was now restored to India; there was no opposition in the council; there was no European enemy in the Eastern seas. But in the meanwhile the feeling against him on account of some of his acts, and notably those connected with Oudh and the Rohilla War, had been growing very strong at home. At the instance of some of the Whigs, at the head of whom was Burke, he was impeached by the House of Commons. The trial began on February 13, 1788, with Burke, Fox, and Sheridan as the principal managers for the Commons; it dragged for seven years, and in the end Hastings was acquitted (April 23, 1795). The rest of his life was passed peacefully in England. There is no doubt that Hastings was guilty of some of the worst acts imputed to him; but the surpassing greatness of the work he accomplished, in placing the British Empire in India upon a secure basis, might well have been suffered to outweigh his offences.

Biographies by Sir A. C. Lyall, 1889, G. B. Malleson, 1894; "Hastings Correspondence"; G. W. Hastings, "A Vindication of Warren Hastings," 1909.

[B. S.]

Hastings, William, Lord (*d.* 1483), was the son of Sir Leonard Hastings, and was a retainer of Richard, Duke of York. He was a favourite of Edward IV, from whom he received considerable grants of land, besides holding the offices of master of the mint, captain of Calais, and lord chamberlain. Though he had supported Richard against the Woodvilles on the death of Edward IV, he was suddenly seized by the Protector's orders while at the council-table, and hurried off to execution on a charge of conspiracy (June 1483). The reason of this sudden execution seems to have been the unwillingness of Hastings to second Richard's nefarious schemes for obtaining the throne. Hastings married Catherine Neville, sister of the Earl of Warwick.

Hatfield, The Council of (September 17, 680), was convened by Archbishop Theodore, under the auspices of the leading Anglian and Saxon kings in Britain. This council devoted itself to declaring the orthodoxy of the English Church as regards the Monothelite heresy and its acceptance of the decrees of the five first general councils and the canons of the Lateran Council of 649. John the Precentor, who had been sent over by Pope Agatho to inquire into the faith of the English Church, was present at this synod, and brought with him Benedict Biscop to instruct the English in the art of church-building; while John himself was commissioned to give instructions in church-singing.

Haddan and Stubbs, "Councils and Ecclesiastical Documents," vol. iii.

Hatherley, William Page Wood, 1st Lord (1801–81). [Wood.]

Hatton, Sir Christopher (1540–91), is said to have first attracted the notice of Queen Elizabeth by his graceful dancing at a ball given by the Inns of Court. He was appointed one of the queen's gentlemen pensioners in 1564, and soon became one of her chief favourites. In 1577 he was appointed vice-chamberlain and a member of the privy council

—the queen's partiality for him causing "much envy and some scandal"—whilst he also took a leading position in the House of Commons. In 1581 Hatton vehemently opposed the marriage of the queen with the Duke of Alençon, and afterwards took an active part in the proceedings against the Queen of Scots. He was a commissioner at the trials of Babington and the other conspirators, and was engaged in the examination of Curle and Nau, Mary Stuart's secretaries. He subsequently incurred the queen's anger for having urged on the dispatch of the execution warrant, but was quickly restored to favour, and in April 1587 succeeded Sir Thomas Bromley as lord chancellor, much to the surprise and anger of the bar, many of whose members resolved not to practise before him. Hatton, however, filled his trying post with credit; delivered his judgments with caution and never decided difficult cases unadvised. In 1591 he lost the queen's regard, and died, it is said, of a broken heart caused by Elizabeth's conduct in instituting a suit against him to recover arrears of tenths and first-fruits.

Biography by Sir H. Nicholas, 1847.

Havelock, Sir Henry (1795–1857), entered the army in 1815, and in 1823 embarked for Bengal. Next year he went through the first Burmese War, earning considerable distinction for courage and energy. In 1838 he was promoted to a captaincy, and was shortly afterwards sent with his regiment to form part of the force intended to replace Shah Shuja on the throne of Kabul. After the occupation of Kabul, Havelock, with a portion of the army, retired to India, but was shortly recalled at the news of the Kabul massacre. He aided in the defence of Jalalabad against Akbar Khan (1842), and marched with the army to occupy Kabul for the second time, and revenge the British disasters. He took part in the Gwalior campaign (1843), and was present at the battles of Mudki, Ferozeshah, Aliwal, and Sobraon (q.v.). He took no part in the second Sikh War, being employed at Bombay. After a short interval spent in England he received the command of a division under Outram, for the Persian War of 1857. When the Indian Mutiny broke out Havelock advanced upon Cawnpore, and defeated Nana Sahib outside the town. He then made his way for Lucknow, but finding his forces too weak to relieve this place, was forced to return to Cawnpore. He was joined in September by Sir James Outram, and the two together succeeded in relieving Lucknow. Two months had hardly passed before Sir Henry Havelock died of dysentery (November 24, 1857).

Biography by A. Forbes, 1890.

Hawke, Edward, Lord (1705–81), entered the navy in 1719 and became a captain in 1734. He distinguished himself in an engagement with the French fleet off Toulon in 1744, and became rear-admiral in 1747. He defeated the French fleet off Belle Isle, and at the end of the year was returned to parliament for Portsmouth. In 1748 he became vice-admiral. He served in Nova Scotia (1749), and became commander of Portsmouth (1750). In 1755, though war had not yet been declared, he was directed to attack French ships of war. In 1757, on the loss of Minorca, he took command of the Mediterranean fleet, was at the head of the blockading squadron in the Bay of Biscay (1758), and in the following year defeated the French under Marshal Conflans, in Quiberon Bay. In 1765 he became vice-admiral of Great Britain and in 1766 first lord of the admiralty, and ten years later was raised to the peerage.

M. Burrows, "Life of Lord Hawke," 1896.

Hawkins, Sir John (1532–95), one of the most enterprising seamen of Queen Elizabeth's reign, passed most of his youth in making voyages in the interests of commerce. He has incurred the odium of having been the first to establish a trade in slaves (1562), whom he bought in Guinea and sold in Hispaniola (1562–4); on several occasions coming into collision with the Spaniards. In 1573 he was made treasurer of the navy, and, after having been nearly murdered by Peter Burchett in mistake for Sir Christopher Hatton, was appointed admiral of the *Victory* at the time of the Spanish Armada; commanding that part of the fleet which was stationed between the Land's End and the Scilly Islands. For his able and energetic conduct at this crisis he was knighted and received the thanks of the queen. In 1590 he made another expedition to the Spanish Main in conjunction with Sir Martin Frobisher, and five years later sailed for the West Indies with Sir Francis Drake, but died before anything had been accomplished.

J. A. Froude, "English Seamen in the Sixteenth Century," 1895 and 1919; biographies by R. A. J. Walling, 1907, and J. A. Williamson, 1927.

Haxey, Thomas, a canon of Southwell, presented a bill of complaint in the parliament of 1397, on the condition of the king's household. When it was brought under the notice of Richard II, the king was extremely indignant, and demanded the name of its author from the parliament. Thomas Haxey was pointed out as the offender, and adjudged to die as a traitor. He was, however, saved by the prompt action of Archbishop Arundel, who claimed him as a clergyman. Shortly afterwards he was pardoned. He became treasurer of York Minster in 1418. This case illustrates the fact that, in the fourteenth century, freedom of debate in parliament was far from established. It has been suggested that Haxey sat as a clerical proctor, but there is no evidence that he was actually a member of the parliament of 1397. He was, in point of fact, a clerk of chancery; and this probably explains the king's animosity against him.

C. Wittke, "History of English Parliamentary Privilege" 1921.

Hay, Francis, 9th Earl of Errol (*d.* 1631), was constable of Scotland, and one of the signatories of the "Spanish Blanks" (q.v.). He was converted to the Romish Church by a Jesuit relative named Father Edmund Hay, but in 1597 found it to his interest to return to the Protestant party, and to obtain the revocation of his forfeiture.

Hay, John, titular Earl of Inverness (1691–1740), was a favourite of James Edward, the Old Pretender. In 1724 he became secretary of state and in 1725 Earl of Inverness. Together with his brother, Lord Kinnoul, and his brother-in-law, James Murray, he ruled the prince's councils. He was, according to Lockhart of Carnwath, "a cunning, false, avaricious creature, of very ordinary parts, cultivated by no sort of literature, and altogether void of experience in business; with insolence prevailing often over his little stock of prudence." Soon after he and his brother had been admitted to direct James's conduct, the Pretender's wife left her husband when he refused to dismiss his favourites. On her return, both the brothers went into exile at Avignon.

Hay, Lucy, Countess of Carlisle (1599–1660), was the daughter of Henry Percy, 9th Earl of Northumberland. In 1617 she was married to the Earl of Carlisle, who died in 1636. She was a favourite attendant of Queen Henrietta Maria, and is supposed to have been Strafford's mistress. After his death she became the confidante, and it was said the mistress, of Pym, to whom she betrayed all the secrets of the court, and it was by her that he was made acquainted with the king's desire to arrest the Five Members (q.v.) in January 1642. In 1648 she seems to have assisted the Royalists with money towards raising a fleet to attack England, and on the Restoration she was received at court, and employed herself in intriguing for the return of Queen Henrietta to England, which was opposed by Clarendon and others. Very soon after the queen's return she died suddenly.

Head, Sir Francis Bond (1793–1875), was appointed governor of Upper Canada in 1835. He was a man of great ability, and eminently successful in dealing with the national party, which was at that time clamouring for reform. Though possessed of much caution, and careful to follow out his instructions from home, he was powerless to avert the insurrection which broke out in Upper Canada at the end of 1837. By his prompt measures, however, he prevented its gaining any considerable ground. In 1838 he retired from his office, owing to a disagreement with Lord Glenelg, the colonial minister.

Head-borough (Head-pledge), The, signified the chief man of the frankpledge (q.v.). This officer was also known by the name of borough-head, tithing-man, etc., according to the local custom. This head-borough was the chief of the pledges; the other nine who were with him and made up the group were called hand-boroughs. The duties of the head-borough are defined in one of the so-called Laws of Edward the Confessor. If any member of the frankpledge had done an injustice to anyone else, and had fled away to escape punishment, the head-borough at the end of twenty-one days had to appear before the justice with two other members of his frankpledge and six neighbours, and exculpate the body of which he was the head from all complicity in the original wrong and the flight of the evil-doer.

Health, Ministry of, was established by statute in 1919, to concentrate the health services of England under a single responsible minister. A Scottish Board of Health, under the secretary of Scotland, was set up separately. The powers of the ministry comprise those of the local government board and of the English and Welsh insurance commissioners, together with some of the powers of the home office, privy council, and board of education. Its activities are concerned with public health, housing and town-planning, local administration and taxation, administration of the Poor Law and Pensions Acts, and National Health Insurance. The functions of the Board of Health in Scotland are precisely similar.

Hearth Money was an unpopular tax of two shillings on every hearth "in all houses paying to Church and poor." It was first imposed by parliament, 1662, and abolished in 1689. It brought in about £170,000 a year. Under the name of "Chimney Money" it dates, as a tax paid by custom, from the Norman Conquest.

Hearts of Steel, The, was an organization formed in 1772 among the Protestant tenants of Tyrone and Antrim. The landlords had been largely increasing the rents of their tenants, and had taken up with cattle-farming on their own account, with the result that Protestants were replaced by Catholics. The tenants not only sent a petition to parliament and to the lord-lieutenant, but they also showed their hostility to the intruders by destroying their cattle and burning their houses. An act was passed against them, and troops sent to the north. On the appearance of the latter the movement collapsed, but was followed by increased emigration.

W. E. H. Lecky, "Ireland in the Eighteenth Century," ed. 1900.

Heath, Nicholas (1501–78), Archbishop of York and lord chancellor, was originally chaplain to Cardinal Wolsey, and obtained the favour of Henry VIII, who appointed him successively to the sees of Rochester (1539) and Worcester (1543). In 1551, owing to his opposition to the Reformation, he was deposed from his see, but was reinstated on the accession of Mary, and shortly afterwards made Arch-

bishop of York. At the end of 1556 he succeeded Sir Nicholas Hare as lord chancellor, and speedily proved his utter incompetence as a judge. On the accession of Elizabeth, Heath was deprived of the great seal, and on perceiving that the queen intended to re-establish the Protestant religion, he declined to assist at her coronation. He shortly afterwards refused to take the oath of supremacy and was deprived of his archbishopric, spending the rest of his days in "study and devotion."

Heathfield, The Battle of (633), fought between Penda of Mercia and Edwin of Northumbria, resulted in the defeat and death of the latter. The place is probably to be identified with Hatfield, in the West Riding of Yorkshire.

T. Hodgkin, "Political History of England," vol. i.

Heathfield, George Augustus Eliott, Baron (1717–90). [Eliott.]

Heavenfield, The Battle of (634), was fought between Oswald of Northumbria and the Britons under Cadwallon in the neighbourhood of Hexham. Oswald is said to have reared a cross with his own hands before the battle began. The Britons were utterly routed and Cadwallon was slain.

T. Hodgkin, "Political History of England," vol. i.

Hebrides, The, were known to Ptolemy under the name of the Ebudæ. The Scandinavians called them Sudrey-jar or Southern Islands, in contradistinction to the Northern Islands of Scotland—the Orkneys and the Shetlands. Towards the very end of the eighth century the islands became subject to the incursions of the Vikings. Previous to this period they were probably inhabited by Celtic tribes, differing but little from those upon the mainland of Scotland; though Rhŷs adduced evidence to show that these tribes, as well as the Picts, may have been largely tinctured with the blood of an earlier and not improbably a non-Aryan race. In the ninth century the Hebrides were colonized by bands of Norwegian settlers, fleeing from their native country before the growing power of Harold Harfagr. When, however, these exiles began to send expeditions against their old home, Harold fitted out a great fleet and reduced the islands to obedience; from which time the Hebrides, as well as the Orkney and Shetland Isles, were for a considerable period subject to Norwegian rule, though they were probably to be regarded rather as the haunt of stray Vikings than as subject to any distinct ruler. About the year 989 Sigurd, jarl of Orkney, seems to have made good his claim on these islands against that of the Danish king of the isles, who appears to have been connected with the Danes of Limerick and Dublin. But even Sigurd must have held his rule subject to the King of Norway. By the middle of the eleventh century the Danes of Dublin and Limerick had seized upon Man, and began to contest the Hebrides with the Norwegian Earls of Orkney. When Duncan was murdered or slain in battle (1040), the Hebrides formed part of the dominions of Thorfinn, Earl of Orkney. Soon after his death (1057 ?), however, these islands fell into the power of an Irish King of Leinster. When Godred, whom the Irish historians call King of the Dublin Danes, conquered the Isle of Man (1075 ?) he does not seem to have been long in extending his authority over the Hebrides also. He appears to have died about 1095, and three years later the lands he had acquired were seized by Magnus Barefoot, King of Norway (1098), to whom in 1102 the Scottish King Edgar relinquished the Western Isles entirely. Magnus's son Sigurd, whom he had left as his ruler in the isles, quitted his new principality for his native land, and the Norse colony then broke up into separate states. Ultimately, however, Godred Crovan's son Olaf succeeded about 1103 in establishing himself in the Hebrides. But it now appears that the native Celtic or pre-Celtic race, which had, perhaps, been driven to the more inaccessible parts of the islands, were preparing to assert themselves against the Norse strangers. They were led by Somerled, regulus of Argyll. Somerled pretended to be fighting on behalf of his son and Olaf's nephew against his brother-in-law; but in 1156 the isles were divided into two halves, of which the southern half seems to have been practically in the hands of Somerled, who held it subject to the King of Norway. From this time there were two sovereigns bearing the title of "King of the Isles." In the first half of the thirteenth century Alexander II demanded the restoration of the Hebrides from Hakon, King of Norway, on the ground that Magnus Barefoot had stolen them from the Scottish crown. On being refused he was preparing to avail himself of a disputed succession, when he died suddenly in 1249. When Alexander III grew to manhood he began to contemplate the subjection of these islands. Hakon, hearing the complaints of his subject kings, and coming to their relief, was utterly defeated at the battle of Largs (1263). His son Magnus ceded the disputed territories to the Scottish king, in return for a payment of 4,000 marks down, and a pension of 100 marks a year (1266)—a bargain which was clinched by the marriage of Alexander's daughter Margaret to Eric of Norway in 1281. The Archbishop of Trondhjem still preserved his metropolitical rights over the Sudreys and Man, rights which he seems to have retained till at least the year 1400. The rule of the islands remained in the hands of the descendants of Somerled, and towards the end of the fourteenth century John Macdonald of Islay adopted the style of Lord of the Isles. His descendants remained a thorn in the side of the Scottish kings until their subjugation was completed by James V. [Isles, Lords of the; Sudreys.]

W. C. Mackenzie, "History of the Outer Hebrides," 1903. [T. A. A.]

Hedgeley Moor, The Battle of (April 25, 1464), was fought during the Wars of the Roses, between the Lancastrian remnants and the Yorkists under Lord Montagu. It marked the last desperate rally of the Lancastrian party after its defeat at Towton, but it was unsuccessful. Sir Ralph Percy, the Lancastrian leader, was defeated and slain, and the destruction of his party was completed a few weeks later at Hexham (q.v.). Hedgeley Moor is near Wooler in Northumberland.

R. B. Mowat, "Wars of the Roses," 1914.

Heligoland, an island in the North Sea, was taken by Great Britain from Denmark in 1807 and held till 1890, being formally ceded in 1814. During the Napoleonic Wars the island was of great importance to British commerce, as a station whence British goods could be smuggled into continental ports closed by the Berlin and Milan decrees. In 1890 it was ceded to Germany in exchange for territories in East Africa, and attached to Schleswig-Holstein. By article 115 of the Treaty of Versailles (1919) the island was demilitarized and its forts dismantled, German sovereignty, however, remaining.

Heligoland Bight, The Battle of the (August 28, 1914), was fought between a British naval force (19 cruisers, 37 destroyers, and 6 submarines) under Vice-Admiral Beatty and other commanders, and a German naval force (22 cruisers, 20 destroyers, 8 submarines, and 11 torpedo-boats) under Admiral von Ingenohl. The engagement opened at 4.45 a.m., but the main action did not begin till after 11 a.m., when Beatty entered the Bight with the first battle-cruiser squadron. Both sides were hampered throughout by mist. The importance of the battle, besides the sinking of four German vessels which it involved, is that it confirmed the Kaiser's decision to pursue a purely defensive naval policy.

Henderson, Alexander (1583–1646), was one of the leaders of the Presbyterian party in Scotland in the seventeenth century. He drew up the demands of the Covenanters in 1638, in which year he was moderator of the Glasgow assembly. He was one of the Scots commissioners at the Pacification of Berwick (q.v.), the Treaty of Ripon (1640) (q.v.), and the Treaty of Uxbridge of 1645 (q.v.). He died, it is said, of remorse at having opposed the king, "regretting the excess to which affairs were carried."

Biographies by J. P. Thomson, 1912, and R. L. Orr, 1919.

Hengest was, according to tradition, one of the two leaders of the first band of Teutonic invaders to settle in Britain. Our earliest authority, Gildas, does not mention the names of any of the Saxon invaders, and Bæda only says, "the two first commanders *are said to have been* Hengest and Horsa." But, on the other hand, Nennius and the "Anglo-Saxon Chronicle" distinctly mention these two brothers as the chiefs of the Teutonic invaders who came to the aid of Vortigern, and they are represented as being the sons of one Wihtgils, who was a great-grandson of Woden. Dismissing all the later legends which accumulated around Hengest's name, the following is a very brief sketch of what we are told of him. Together with his brother, Horsa (q.v.), he came to Britain, probably (though the chronology is very uncertain) about the year 450. It is possible they may have been exiled, as Nennius tells us, from Germany, or may have been actually invited over by Vortigern. At all events, they landed at Ebbsfleet, and agreed to assist the British king against the Picts. In these wars they were invariably successful, and as a reward obtained the Isle of Thanet. But shortly afterwards we find them turning their arms against Vortigern. They were defeated at Aylesford (q.v.), in which battle Horsa was slain. But the tide soon turned. After numerous victories, Hengest and his son, Æsc, conquered the whole of Kent; fresh swarms of Teutons arrived; and the Britons were entirely driven out of the south-east corner of the island. Such is the story of the conquest of Kent as it has been handed down to us; but it is impossible to say how much or how little authority is to be attached to details which cannot well have been preserved in writing at the time of their occurrence. The conquerors of Kent were of Jutish origin.

"Anglo-Saxon Chronicle"; Nennius; Bæda; Gildas; G. Chadwick, "Origins of the English Nation"; R. W. Chambers, "England Before the Norman Conquest."

Hengest Down, or Hingston Down (Hengestesdun), is situated on the west or Cornish side of the Tamar, not far from Plymouth. Here, in 838, Ecgbert totally defeated the combined forces of the Danes and the West Welsh.

Hengham, Ralph de (*d.* 1311), after filling several minor judicial offices, was made chief justice of the King's Bench in 1274. In 1289 he was removed, together with most of the other judges, on a charge of false judgment, and heavily fined. He subsequently regained the royal favour, and became chief justice of the Common Pleas in 1301, but was degraded by Edward II to the post of puisne judge of the court. He compiled a register of writs and was the author of two manuals of practice, known respectively as "Hengham Magna" and "Hengham Parva." They were edited by Selden in 1616.

Henrietta, Duchess of Orleans (1644–70), daughter of Charles I, was born at Exeter, whither her mother had retired during the Civil War. In 1646 she was taken in disguise to France, where she lived with her mother till, at the Restoration, she was enabled to return to England. In 1661 she was married to the Duke of Orleans, only brother of Louis

XIV, by whom she had three children. She was employed in 1670 by the French court in negotiating the Treaty of Dover with England, but very soon after her return to France she died suddenly. Rumour ascribed her death to the effects of poison administered by her jealous husband.

R. S. Rait, "Five Stuart Princesses," 1902.

Henrietta Maria, Queen (1609–69), wife of Charles I, was the youngest daughter of Henry IV of France and Marie de' Medici. After the failure of the Spanish match, both James I and Buckingham were very anxious that Charles should ally himself with Henrietta, and for this purpose negotiations were opened in 1624. The marriage took place in 1625, and by the marriage treaty Charles agreed to suspend the penal laws against the Catholics, and allow the queen the free exercise of her religion. But it soon became evident that Henrietta was a tool in the hands of the Catholics, who thronged around her, and not only compelled her to refuse to be crowned with her husband in Westminster Abbey, but on one occasion at least forced her to take part in a pilgrimage to Tyburn, where the Roman Catholic "martyrs" had been executed. At last Charles, exasperated by this conduct, drove her Roman Catholic attendants from England. As long as Buckingham lived the queen took very little part in public affairs, but after his death (1628) she exercised a great influence over Charles, who could hardly have had a worse adviser than a frivolous, passionate woman, fond of power, but careless of the use she made of it. Though Strafford's refusal to grant places in Ireland to her nominees made him little acceptable to her, she used her influence to prevent his condemnation, but subsequently, being frightened by the outcries of the people, and fearing for her own and her husband's safety, she entreated Charles to assent to the attainder. It was partly owing to her advice that the king made the foolish attempt to arrest the Five Members in 1642, and soon after this, when civil war was inevitable, the queen escaped from England, taking with her the crown jewels for the purpose of purchasing arms for her husband. She returned to England in 1643, and narrowly escaped being taken prisoner by the Parliament. Eventually she joined her husband, and subsequently proceeded to the West of England, whence in 1644 she escaped to France. In 1643 she was impeached by Pym for the help she had given her husband, but after the impeachment had been unanimously voted by the Commons, and sent up to the Lords, no more was heard of it. Queen Henrietta remained in France till the Restoration, being frequently in great poverty. She made strenuous efforts to convert her children to Roman Catholicism, and succeeded in the case of her youngest daughter Henrietta; but the young Henry, Duke of Gloucester, resolutely withstood all her endeavours. On the Restoration she returned to England, and Somerset House was granted as her residence. Fearing the plague of 1665, she returned to France, where she remained till her death. While in France she was supposed to have married Henry Jermyn, afterwards Earl of St. Albans, but there is not sufficient evidence for this assertion, and at all events the marriage was never acknowledged.

"Letters of Henrietta Maria" (pub. Turin), 1881; biographies by H. Haynes, 1912, and I. A. Taylor, 1905.

Henry I, King (*b.* 1068, *s.* August 3, 1100, *d.* December 1, 1135), was the youngest son of William the Conqueror. His education must have been carefully attended to, and he seems to have been, to some extent at least, familiar with Latin. He was dubbed knight by his father and Lanfranc at Whitsuntide, 1086. Next year, on his death-bed, the Conqueror left his youngest son five thousand pounds of silver, prophesying at the same time, according to the chronicles of the next century, that he would succeed his brothers in their dominions. With his father's bequest Henry bought the Cotentin and Avranchin from his brother Robert, and is found later assisting Robert against William and the revolted city of Rouen (1090). In 1091, when peace was restored between Robert and William by the Treaty of Caen, the two brothers, not content with having taken away Henry's right of succession, made war against him for the purpose of stripping him of his lands. Driven from St. Michael's Mount, Henry accepted the lordship of Domfront in 1092. Almost immediately after this, he was reconciled to William and won back part of his old possessions from Robert. On the day of William's death Henry also was hunting in the New Forest; and on hearing the news, he at once hastened to Winchester to seize the treasure and to put forward his claims to the crown. After some discussion, in which several members of the council maintained the rights of the absent Robert, Henry was elected king, chiefly, we are told, by the influence of the Earl of Warwick. Two days later he was crowned at Westminster, and swore to abolish the wrongs from which the country had suffered under his brother's rule, to maintain peace, repress disorders, and deal justice with mercy. Henry immediately issued a charter, promising to maintain the privileges of the Church, the vassals, and the nation. As an earnest of his intention to observe these pledges, he imprisoned Flambard, the chief instrument of his brother's tyranny, and invited Anselm, the object of his brother's hate, to return to England. Before the year was out Anselm had come back and married the new king to Edith, the daughter of Malcolm Canmore and niece of Edgar Atheling. Meanwhile Robert had returned from the Holy Land, and began to claim the crown according to the terms of the Treaty of Caen. The great Norman nobles

were not unwilling to assist him in his pretensions. Robert of Belesme, Ivo of Grantmesnil, and many other Norman barons would have preferred the lax indolence of the elder to the stern justice of the younger brother; while Henry laid his chief trust in the influence of Anselm and the fidelity of the English. When the two armies met near Winchester, the great barons on both sides, seeing that, whoever should conquer, their position in the land would be rendered insecure, prevailed on the two brothers to make peace. Henry was released from his oath of fealty to Robert and was acknowledged King of England; but on his part promised to pay Robert a pension of £3,000 and to restore the Cotentin (1101). Three years later the quarrel broke out again and was once more appeased without bloodshed; but in 1106 Henry crossed over to Normandy, defeated his brother at the battle of Tenchebrai and entered upon the possession of his duchy. Robert was imprisoned till his death in 1134.

Meanwhile, Henry had been occupied in restoring order and good government in England. The great Norman lords who had sided with Robert—the Malets, the Lacys, the Grantmesnils, and Belesmes—lost their castles and were imprisoned or forced to relinquish their English estates; but as a rule were left in possession of their Norman ones, though even across the water their castles were garrisoned by the king. In all these instances, after each rebellion, whether of 1101, 1104, 1118, or 1123, Henry's great object was to restrain the independence and extortion of the barons. Not content with forfeiting the English estates of the great families of the Conquest, Henry put into full working order a strong administrative body—consisting for the most part of new men advanced by him because of their capacities for doing his work—to form a counterpoise to the older barons. These men, who owed their whole position to the Crown, were employed by the king to make circuits round the country, not only for the purpose of assessing and collecting taxes, but also for that of redressing abuses. In this way he set the example, which his grandson was to improve upon and enlarge, of enforcing the royal authority everywhere, and bringing the royal justice within the reach of all people who suffered from the extortion, the cruelty, or false justice of the local and baronial courts. Though the main interest of Henry I's reign lies in the orderly increase of the Norman system of centralization, yet it was by no means devoid of political or dramatic incident. In 1102 Robert de Belesme, the cruel and tyrannical Earl of Shrewsbury, and the son of William the Conqueror's great friend, Montgomery, was besieged in his castle of Bridgnorth. The English were only too glad to aid in Robert of Belesme's downfall, and called on the king to rejoice that he became a free man from the day when he banished Robert of Belesme (1102). The captive Duke Robert had a young son, William: Louis VI of France and Fulk, Count of Anjou, were induced to espouse the boy's cause. The former promised to invest him with Normandy; the latter to give him his daughter, Sibylla, in marriage. Meanwhile, Fulk, supported by his suzerain, Louis, laid claim to Maine, in opposition to the pretensions of Henry: and peace was only reestablished between the claimants (1113) at the expense of William, who now found a refuge with Baldwin of Flanders. Once more, after five years' quiet, a coalition was formed on behalf of the young prince, and once more Louis and Fulk espoused his cause. But this effort was fruitless too. At the battle of Brenneville (1119) the victory lay with Henry, and before long Calixtus II reconciled the two kings. In 1120 the English king lost his only son, William, in the *White Ship*. Three years later he was threatened with another coalition, for Fulk of Anjou had once more espoused the cause of William. Fitz-Robert and several of the greatest barons in Normandy had promised assistance. But Henry was too quick for his enemies, and landing in Normandy he soon reduced the castles of the insurgent barons (1123–4). A few years later Louis gave his sister-in-law, Adeliza, in marriage to the young prince, granting him at the same time the Vexin and other districts on the borders of Normandy, and also investing him with the county of Flanders (1127). The newly-made count, however, was slain next year while endeavouring to make good his claims. With the rebellion of 1124 Henry's home troubles seem to have ceased, and the rest of his reign was occupied with the extension of his authority and the attempts to secure the fidelity of his barons to his daughter, Matilda, and her infant son, Henry. This lady had in 1114 married the Emperor Henry V, but having lost her husband before many years were past, was then contracted to Geoffrey of Anjou, the father of Henry II. In 1126, 1131, and 1133 the whole council of the kingdom were sworn to maintain her rights or those of herself and her little son (Henry II, born 1133).

It remains to say a few words on the ecclesiastical history of this reign. It was largely with the assistance of Anselm (q.v.) that Henry I had been enabled to secure the crown, and by mutual consent the question of investitures was for the moment waived. But when the immediate danger was over, Anselm was summoned to do homage and consecrate the bishops whom the king had invested. After the Synod of Westminster, Anselm left England once more (1103), and only returned in 1106, after having come to a compromise with Henry on the disputed points. Before the close of the reign two new bishoprics were created—those of Ely (1109) and Carlisle (1133), and, in 1128, the new order of the Cistercians (q.v.), the founding of which an Englishman, Stephen Harding, played an important rôle, planted their first colony at Waverley in Surrey. Henry's reign was also signalized by the

practical completion of the conquest of South Wales by a series of Norman adventurers, who established for themselves feudal lordships within its limits, driving the Welsh to the hills, or subjecting them to their sway. In some places, as in southern Pembrokeshire, colonies of Fleming or English settlers were planted, and the Welsh absolutely driven out. Henry also managed to secure the nomination of the South Welsh bishops. Their consecration by the Archbishop of Canterbury completed the ecclesiastical subordination of South Wales to the English metropolitan.

E. A. Freeman, "Norman Conquest," 1868–72; G. B. Adams, "Political History of England," vol. ii; H. W. C. Davis, "England Under the Normans and Angevins"; Sir J. Ramsay, "The Foundations of England," vol. ii. [T. A. A.]

Henry II, King (*b.* March 1133, *s.* October 25, 1154; *d.* July 6, 1189), was born at Le Mans, and was the son of Geoffrey, Count of Anjou, and Matilda, daughter of Henry I and widow of the Emperor Henry V. He was still an infant when brought over to England in 1141 and placed in charge of his uncle, Robert of Gloucester. He afterwards went to Scotland, and was knighted by King David, in 1149. In 1151 Louis VII conferred Normandy on him, and in the same year he succeeded to Anjou, while, in 1152, his marriage with Eleanor of Aquitaine gave him a large and rich territory in the south of France. Master of such resources, his expedition to England in 1153 could not but be successful. The Treaty of Wallingford (q.v.) gave him the succession after Stephen's death. Within a year his rival died, and Henry's succession was secured without disturbance. He was crowned December 19, 1154. The long and important reign of Henry has been divided by Stubbs into four epochs—from his accession to the Becket quarrel (1154–64); the period of his strife with the archbishop (1164–70); from Becket's death to the death of the younger Henry in 1183; and thence to Henry's own death in 1189. The first period of the reign was mainly devoted to his work of restoration. Henry found the great administrative system of his grandfather thoroughly annihilated during the anarchy of Stephen's reign. "Adulterine" castles were thickly spread over the whole land. Peace and order there were none. The revenue had declined from £60,000 to £20,000 a year. With the help of the surviving members of the family of Roger of Salisbury, and of Archbishop Theobald, Becket the chancellor, and the Earl of Leicester, Henry succeeded, through tact, energy, and perseverance, in a thorough restoration of the "avitæ consuetudines"—the system of government in the State which Henry I had left behind him. The feudalists were disarmed, good government restored, the coinage reformed, the War of Toulouse successfully carried out. The whole ten years are years of prosperity and orderly progress.

In 1162 Becket (q.v.) succeeded Archbishop Theobald at Canterbury, and Henry soon found that his old minister was thoroughly resolved to oppose his design to subject Church as well as State to the supremacy of the law. An attempt to compel an acknowledgment, merely, of the royal jurisdiction on the part of criminous clerks precipitated a conflict already imminent. In 1164 the Constitutions of Clarendon (q.v.) were presented to the archbishop for acceptance. Becket's reluctant acquiescence was soon withdrawn. Henry called his archbishop to account for his chancellorship, and after a stormy council at Northampton the archbishop withdrew beyond the seas, and the king took possession of his temporalities. For some years an active warfare was carried on between king and archbishop, which nothing but the tact of Henry's ministers prevented from being confused with the great struggle of Frederick Barbarossa and Alexander III, of which it was the English counterpart. When in 1170 a hollow reconciliation was effected, Becket returned only to meet his death at the hands of indiscreet partisans of the king. It is most remarkable evidence of Henry's versatility and energy that the period of the Becket struggle was the period of his greatest constructive reforms, of the establishment of the new judicial system by the Assize of Clarendon (1166—q.v.), and of the successful conquest of Brittany.

The death of Becket brought Henry's ecclesiastical troubles to a crisis. The coronation of his eldest son, Henry, had conciliated neither his family nor the baronage. Henry hurried away to Ireland to escape from his difficulties, and to receive the homage of the Norman nobles, who had within the last few years appropriated a large part of the island. On his return, the pope's need of English aid made his reconciliation with the Church at Avranches an easy matter (1172). But the great feudal revolt of 1173–4, which simultaneously broke out in England and on the continent, and was actively favoured by the kings of France and Scotland, the Count of Flanders, and Henry's own sons, may have been an indirect consequence of the Becket quarrel. After a hard struggle Henry gained the day. The last of the feudal risings was suppressed, and the monarch, strong in national support and in his system of government, was henceforth able to devote his best energies to administrative and judicial reconstruction. The Assize of Northampton (1176), the Assize of Arms (1181), the Assize of the Forest (1184), were the great legislative acts of this period. No less important were Henry's fertile schemes for the perfection of the judicial system, his strong and firm government, his good peace and prosperity.

But Henry's own sons were now his worst enemies. He had done his best for them. He had crowned Henry, secured Brittany to Geoffrey, Aquitaine for Richard, and proposed to give Ireland to John. But the malign

influence of their mother and Louis VII drove their turbulent and thankless spirits into a series of risings that embittered Henry's last years. In 1183 the younger Henry died. The death of the young king did not check the rebellious attempts of Henry's remaining sons. Their persistent hostility seriously checked the course of home reforms, and even the preparations for the Crusade. Philip Augustus was as rancorous an enemy to Henry as Louis VII had been, and his alliance with the king's sons seriously diminished the power and prestige of Henry in Europe. In the midst of failure and desertion the old king died.

Henry II's reign was a "period of amalgamation." The Norman central and monarchical system, and the old English local and popular system, hitherto existing side by side, were connected by Henry and combined into a single whole, out of which, a generation later, the English constitution began to develop. His bureaucratic system dealt a death-blow to feudalism, and even set definite limits to the power of the Church. A thorough despot and cosmopolitan, he established that alliance of king and people which produced the national English monarchy. The conqueror of Ireland and Scotland, Henry revived that empire over all Britain to which the great Anglo-Saxon kings had aspired. The ruler of a third of the modern France, he began that policy of constant warfare with his nominal overlord which coloured the whole mediæval history of England. His great continental position rendered Henry the first of European sovereigns. His friendly relations with the Empire, Spain, and Flanders began the close connexion with England's three traditional mediæval allies. A man who could do all this was of no ordinary character. Strong, persistent, far-seeing, and hard-working, he was at once a great statesman, legislator, administrator, warrior, and diplomatist. But he was unscrupulous, passionate and revengeful—hard and cruel upon occasion—and his domestic difficulties perceptibly changed his character for the worse towards the end of his reign. Yet with all his defects he did good work for England. The excellence of the results must excuse the selfishness of his aims.

The best original authorities are Gervase of Canterbury, Benedict of Peterborough, and Roger of Hoveden (Rolls Series), William of Newborough (English Historical Society), and Ralph Niger. The copious works of Giraldus Cambrensis, edited in the Rolls Series by Brewer and Dimock, are useful though not always trustworthy; especially so are the "Expugnatio Hiberniæ" and "Itinerarium Cambriæ." Dr. Stubbs's works are authoritative for the reign of Henry II, both his "Constitutional History" and his exhaustive "Preface" to the editions of Benedict of Peterborough and Roger of Hoveden in the Rolls Series. Lyttelton's "Life of Henry II," though old-fashioned, is still useful. Later biographies are those of Mrs. J. R. Green, 1903, and L. F. Salzmann, 1917. For the Becket struggle see Robertson, "Life of Becket"; W. H. Hutton, "Thomas, Archbishop of Canterbury," 1926; Giles, "Letters of Becket"; "Materials for the History of Archbishop Becket." General works dealing with the period are G. B. Adams, "Political History of England, 1066–1216"; H. W. C. Davis, "England Under the Normans and Angevins," 1905; Sir J. Ramsay, "The Angevin Empire," 1903; Kate Norgate, "England Under the Angevin Kings," 1887. [T. F. T.]

Henry III, King (*b.* October 1, 1207, *s.* October 19, 1216, *d.* November 16, 1272), was the son of John, and Isabella of Angoulême. His long reign falls into three epochs—the period of the regency, the twenty years (1232–52) of misrule, either under some foreign and unpopular minister or the king in person, and the last twenty years of the baronial struggle. The tyranny of King John had alienated every class of his subjects, and the barons who had won Magna Carta had called in Louis of France. But the wisdom of the Regent Pembroke, the strong support which the Roman Church gave to its infant vassal, and the acceptance by Church and Crown alike of the Great Charter, ultimately resulted in the expulsion of the foreigners, and in the suppression of a feudal survival that had threatened to prove serious. Pembroke died in 1219. Archbishop Langton (q.v.) got rid of the tyranny of the papal legates in 1221. In the same year William of Aumâle, the feudal champion, and in 1224 Falkes de Breauté (q.v.), the representative of John's foreign mercenaries, were subdued. In the year 1227 Hubert de Burgh (q.v.) got rid of the Poitevin bishop of Winchester. Even the baronial opposition were national in their aims. There were thus not wanting signs of the development of English constitutionalism. In 1232 Henry dismissed de Burgh, and became his own minister. But his weak and shiftless character, his incapacity for constant application, his delight in mere external splendour, his talk of a settled policy, his attachment to his family, all led him to lean on some stronger support than himself. Peter des Roches (q.v.), recalled in 1232, was indeed dismissed in 1234; but in 1236 Henry's marriage with Eleanor of Provence brought a swarm of her worthless kinsmen and dependents into England. Foreign fashions spread widely; foreigners administered Church and State. The English language, which had kept itself comparatively free of French words up to this period, was now inundated with them. No doubt an increased connexion with the continent had its good points; but its effects on government were altogether bad. A strong aristocratic opposition to Henry was now established. In 1242 the barons refused to grant an aid for the war in Poitou. In 1244 barons and clergy protested against the royal misgovernment. But in 1246 the Count of La Marche and his sons, Henry's half-brothers, came into England. The pope exacted tax after tax from the clergy. Among churchmen the resistance of Grosseteste was almost single-handed. The nobles were equally disorganized. Without leaders, the people were powerless to withstand the wretched government of the foreign favourites.

At last, in 1252, a leader arose. Simon de Montfort (q.v.), a Frenchman, who had acquired the earldom of Leicester, and whose marriage

with the king's sister had almost provoked a revolt, was in that year dismissed from the government of Gascony. Eager for revenge, the hated foreigner became an efficient leader of the national party. The folly of Henry in accepting the Sicilian crown for his son Edmund, his lavish expenditure on a futile adventure that led to nothing but the aggrandizement of the papacy, completed the measure of baronial indignation. In 1258 the opposition culminated in the Mad Parliament, which compelled the acceptance of the constitution known as the Provisions of Oxford (q.v.), that practically substituted a baronial oligarchy for the royal power. Hitherto the opposition had been unanimous. But while the bulk of the baronage were now disposed to rest content with their triumph, Montfort had larger schemes of popular government. He quarrelled with Gloucester, the leader of the aristocratic party. In 1261 Henry availed himself of this feud to regain power; but in 1263 war began again. Both parties had competed with each other for popular favour by summoning representatives of the shire communities to a national council. The triumph of Montfort at the battle of Lewes (q.v.) led to his famous parliament of 1265, in which burgesses as well as knights of the shire were summoned, and a new paper constitution, which put the government into the hands of the community, was drawn up. But the democratic Cæsarism of Montfort led to a quarrel with the son of his old enemy Gloucester. Edward, the king's son, escaped and collected an army. Montfort was slain at Evesham (q.v.). The capture of Kenilworth ended the war. For the rest of the reign peace was secured. But real power had now escaped from Henry's hands into those of his son, who knew how to appropriate the results of Montfort's policy, and reconcile the monarchy with nationality. Henry died on November 16, 1272. His extreme incompetence as a ruler blinds us to his private respectability. His reign, though its details are beyond expression dreary, is of the last importance in English history. It was the period of the growth of the constitution, of the concentration of the local machinery into a national representative assembly, of the development of English nationality in opposition to royal and papal tyranny. It was a period of great men, of great, if ill-regulated designs, and of great originative and creative power. It saw the religious revival of the thirteenth century, the establishment of the mendicant orders in England, and the development of culture through the universities. But to all this development Henry was little more than an insignificant figure-head.

Roger of Wendover; Matthew Paris, "Historia Major" (Rolls Series); Rishanger, "Chronicon" (Rolls Series); Dr. Shirley's "Royal Letters" (Rolls Series); Brewer, "Monumenta Franciscana" (Rolls Series); Luard, "Grosseteste's Letters" (Rolls Series); Stubbs, "Constitutional History"; Prothero, "Simon de Montfort"; Bémont, "Simon de Montfort"; Kate Norgate, "The Minority of Henry III," 1912; A. Gasquet, "Henry III and the Church"; H. R. Luard, "Relations between England and Rome during the earlier portion of the Reign of Henry III," 1877; E. F. Jacob, "Studies in the Period of Baronial Reform and Rebellion." General works dealing with the reign are: T. F. Tout, "Political History of England, 1216–1377," 1920; K. H. Vickers, "England in the Later Middle Ages," 1913; Sir J. Ramsay, "Dawn of the Constitution," 1908.

[T. F. T.]

Henry IV, King (*b.* 1367, *s.* September 30, 1399, *d.* March 20, 1413), was born at Bolingbroke, in Lincolnshire, being the eldest son of John of Gaunt and of his first wife, the heiress of the house of Lancaster. About 1380 he married Mary Bohun, daughter and co-heiress of the last Earl of Hereford. From an early age he was styled Earl of Derby, and in 1385 he was summoned to parliament under that title. He at first took part with the uncles of Richard II in their endeavours to retain the government under their own control; but later on supported the king in trying to draw into his hands an absolute power, and was created by him Duke of Hereford in 1397. He participated in the attack launched in that year against Warwick, Arundel, and Gloucester; and in 1398 brought a charge of treason against the Duke of Norfolk, who, with himself, was the sole survivor of the five appellants of 1388. The dispute between the two dukes was appointed to be decided by combat. On the combatants presenting themselves at Coventry on September 16, 1398, however, they were both banished by Richard, Norfolk for life and Bolingbroke for ten years. The following year John of Gaunt died, and Richard, contrary to his promise, seized his lands. On receiving intelligence of this act, Henry, who knew himself to be as popular in the country as the king was unpopular, determined to return to the country on the plea of claiming his lawful inheritance. The king had set out upon an expedition to Ireland, when Henry landed at Ravenspur, July 3, 1399. Bolingbroke was everywhere received with enthusiasm, and soon decided to put forward a claim upon the crown. Richard returned early in August, but upon landing, his army immediately began to desert him. He was forced to surrender to Henry at Flint (August 19). A parliament was summoned which, on September 30, pronounced the deposition of Richard (who had already been induced publicly to renounce the crown), and accepted his cousin as king. It need not be pointed out what an important act this was from a constitutional point of view. Richard died in prison in the beginning of the following year in circumstances that gave rise to suspicions of violence. Henry's energies were, henceforth, entirely devoted to strengthening his position on the throne. He supported the orthodox Church party against the attacks of the Lollards, to whom his father, John of Gaunt, had been markedly favourable, and one of the most important enactments of his reign was the act De Hæretico Comburendo (1401) (q.v.). It must not be supposed that these persecutions

were popular with the clergy only. The contrary is proved by the traditional character which attached to the name of the most conspicuous Lollard of the succeeding reign, Sir John Oldcastle (q.v.)—a traditional character which, if it was not identical with, certainly bore considerable resemblance to that of the fictitious Falstaff. For the rest, Henry's reign was chiefly occupied in crushing domestic rebellion, and in meeting the attacks of the Scots and Welsh. In the first year of his reign he was at war with the Duke of Albany, the regent of Scotland, and with Owen Glendower, who had raised a national revolt among the Welsh. The Scots under Douglas were decisively defeated, and their leader captured at Homildon Hill (q.v.) by Harry Hotspur, son of the Earl of Northumberland (September 14, 1402). The expedition into Wales, in which Henry, the Prince of Wales, took part, was less successful. In 1403 broke out the formidable rebellion of the Percys, who were now leagued with Douglas and Glendower. On the march of the first two to join their forces with the latter, they were intercepted by the king's army, and forced into an engagement at Shrewsbury (July 21, 1403), where they were completely defeated and Harry Percy slain. Northumberland was, on this occasion, pardoned. Two other rebellions of less consequence broke out in the north, in the last of which (1408), Northumberland was again deeply implicated. It was crushed at the battle of Bramham Moor (q.v.), in which Northumberland fell. In the interval between these two events, Henry was fortunate enough to capture the heir-apparent of Scotland (James I), who was being sent to France (1405).

After 1408 Henry, no longer in fear of rebellion, began to turn his attention to the affairs of France, where the quarrels between the parties of the Duke of Burgundy and the Duke of Orleans had brought the country to the verge of civil war (the assassination of the Duke of Orleans, which made this war inevitable, took place on November 23, 1407). Henry adopted the policy of siding first with one party and then with the other, so as to weaken both as much as possible. During the last three years of his life the king suffered greatly from ill-health, and the Prince of Wales, who had already highly distinguished himself in the field, generally presided at the council. The growing popularity of this prince is said to have excited the jealousy of his father, and caused some estrangement between the two. Henry died March 20, 1413. By his first wife, Mary Bohun, he had four sons—Henry; Thomas, Duke of Clarence; John, Duke of Bedford; and Humphrey, Duke of Gloucester; and two daughters. After his accession Henry married Joanna, daughter of Charles II of Navarre, but had by her no issue. The interest of Henry IV's reign depends upon the success of his policy in founding the house which, in the person of his successor, made itself so famous, and in that of the third descendant again fell. It is still more remarkable as the period of the restoration of orthodoxy against Lollardy, and as the period of "mediæval constitutionalism."

J. H. Wylie, "England Under Henry IV," 4 vols., 1884; Sir J. H. Ramsay, "Lancaster and York," vol. i, 1892.

[C. F. K.]

Henry V, King (*b.* August 9, 1387, *s.* March 21, 1413, *d.* August 31, 1422), the eldest son of Henry IV, was born at Monmouth. He was at a very early age practised in arms, and was sent, when fifteen, to take command in an expedition against Owen Glendower, and a year later took part in the important battle of Shrewsbury. The character of this monarch must always be one of great interest to the historical student, for he was probably the most popular king who ever ruled in this country. Later tradition, apparently to throw into relief his subsequent merits, has represented him as passing his youth in dissipation, and in indifference to his reputation; and his biographer, Elmham, suggests that his conduct as a prince was marked by some youthful follies. That he could not have led the wild and dissolute life depicted by Shakespeare is, however, sufficiently clear from his incessant preoccupation with military and administrative duties. A quarrel between the prince and his father occurred in the latter's declining years. Henry seems, in conjunction with Bishop Beaufort, to have urged upon the old king the necessity for abdicating in his favour. The suggestion was received with indignation, and seems to have had as its consequence the dismissal of the prince and his friends from their positions on the council. Henry's place was taken by his next brother, the Duke of Clarence. His father's death on March 20 set the young man free to pursue his ambitions. He was crowned on April 9, 1413. By his first acts he gave evidence of the security which he felt upon the throne. He released the young Earl of March from his captivity, and reinstated the son of Harry Percy in the family honours and possessions. In his internal administration he seems to have been disposed to follow the general lines of his father's policy. But he had less sympathy with the Lollards, who were now persecuted with relentless rigour. Among the victims is to be counted Sir John Oldcastle (q.v.) (commonly called Lord Cobham), who perished at Smithfield in 1417. Henry was, however, supposed to have been not altogether unfavourable to a scheme for confiscating a portion of the revenues of the Church which was warmly advocated by the majority of the lay peers at this time. The abolition of the alien priories gives some colour to this view. It was perhaps to turn the attention of the king in another direction that Archbishop Chichele persuaded Henry that in right of his descent from Edward III he had a valid claim to the crown of France, which the present distracted state of that kingdom gave him a favourable opportunity of asserting. The proposal was

received with favour by all classes, and in pursuit of this object Henry set sail for Harfleur, August 10, 1415.

The details of Henry's invasion form an important and exceedingly interesting chapter in military history, but can only be given here in brief summary. The first undertaking was the attack on Harfleur. The place was strongly defended, and nearly surrounded by water, so that the siege, of which the contemporary authorities give us a tolerably detailed account, dragged on for six weeks. During this time the English army, which at first consisted of about 20,000 foot and 9,000 horse, diminished to not more than a third of that number. It appeared impossible to continue the war without obtaining fresh reinforcements from England. In order, however, not to seem to retreat before the face of the enemy, Henry determined to embark from Calais, and before leaving Harfleur he sent a challenge to the dauphin, offering to meet him in eight days, which was not accepted. This is a curious instance of the strategy, or, to speak more truly, the lack of strategy, which characterized the warfare of those days. The safety of Henry's army might seem to have depended upon his keeping his movements as secret as possible; on the contrary he waited eight days for the reply of the dauphin, and then set out (October 8) upon his perilous march. The English, proceeding by Fécamp and Eu, arrived at Abbeville on the 13th, but finding that the Somme was strongly guarded at this point, were induced to make a detour by Amiens and Nesle. At the latter place they crossed the Somme on the 19th, the French showing themselves and disappearing again. On the 24th they crossed the little stream of Ternoise, and there saw the whole French host waiting for them upon the opposite side near the village of Agincourt, and so completely barring the way to Calais that the English could not avoid an engagement. The battle took place on St. Crispin's Day (October 25, 1415). The French army is believed to have been five times as large as the English, and yet the engagement resulted in a victory for the English almost the most complete that has ever been recorded in history. The most important of the prisoners taken were d'Albret, the constable of France, and Charles, Duke of Orleans, the poet, son of the murdered Duke of Orleans. In August of the following year the French, who had threatened Harfleur, were decisively defeated at sea by the Duke of Bedford, the king's brother. Despite these victories Henry clearly perceived that he could only hope to bring his schemes to a successful conclusion by an alliance with one of the two great parties into which France was divided. The traditional policy of England, her commercial relations with the Low Countries, pointed out the Duke of Burgundy as the object of negotiations. It is hardly probable that a permanent alliance would have been made with this party had it not been for the murder of John the Fearless, Duke of Burgundy, on September 10, 1419. John's son and successor, Philip the Good, immediately threw in his lot with the English. He brought with him all the party of the Burgundians, which included the people of Paris. The result of this accession of strength was the Treaty of Troyes (q.v.) between Henry, Philip, and Isabella, the Queen of France (Charles VI was at this time insane), in which the dauphin was excluded from the inheritance, and Henry, on condition of his marrying Catherine, the daughter of Charles VI, was to receive the regency of France during the life of the king, and the succession after his death. The treaty was signed on May 21, 1420, and the marriage of Henry and Catherine took place on June 2. The kings of France and England entered Paris together in November, and the Treaty of Troyes was solemnly confirmed by the Parliament of Paris on December 10. Henry then returned to England, and entered London amidst immense rejoicings. The dauphin of course repudiated the Treaty of Troyes, and he still had the support of the powerful party of the Armagnacs. In March 1421 he gained the victory of Beaugé over the English under the Duke of Clarence. This obliged Henry at once to return to France. He drove back the army of the dauphin and entered Paris in triumph. He left it again to advance against the dauphin's army, which lay before Cosne. On his way he was attacked by a fever which terminated fatally at Vincennes on August 31, 1422, in the thirty-fourth year of Henry's age, and the tenth of his reign.

J. H. Wylie, "Henry V," 1914; R. B. Mowat, "Henry V," 1919; C. L. Kingsford, "Henry V," 1901. General works on the period are: Sir C. W. C. Oman, "Political History of England," vol. iv; K. H. Vickers, "England in the Later Middle Ages"; Sir J. Ramsay, "Lancaster and York," 2 vols.

[C. F. K.]

Henry VI, King (*b.* December 6, 1421, *s.* September 1, 1422, *d.* May 1471). The reign of this prince was the third act in the historic drama of the house of Lancaster, and that which was destined to witness the undoing of all that had been accomplished in the two previous reigns. Henry VI was born at Windsor, and was less than nine months old at the time of his accession to the throne. Charles VI, his grandfather, died a few months later. The regency of the two kingdoms, to which the young king was considered the heir, had been settled by Henry V. The Duke of Bedford was appointed to the more arduous duty of governing the English possessions in France, and of prosecuting the war in that country, while the English regency was assigned to the Duke of Gloucester with the title of Lord Protector. Parliament intervened, however, to frustrate the execution of this scheme. Bedford was made protector of England so long as he remained in the country; while Gloucester was

commissioned to act in his absence. Among Henry V's dying injunctions to his successor was to do all in his power to maintain the alliance with the Duke of Burgundy, and this advice Bedford did his best to carry out. At first he was eminently successful in all his undertakings. The dauphin (Charles VII), who hoped to rally his party now that his greatest rival was dead, led his army into Burgundy. He was decisively defeated at Crevant (1423), and the next year still more decisively at Verneuil (August 16, 1424) (q.v.). The Duke of Bedford commanded in person at this great battle, which has been well described as a second Agincourt. Meanwhile, however, the Duke of Gloucester had contrived, by espousing Jacqueline of Hainault, to alienate Burgundy from the English interests, and though Bedford did his best, by enormous concessions, to retain his friendship, the breach between them gradually widened. The pope, too, at this time wrote an appeal to Bedford to desist from his attempts to force upon the French people a sovereign in defiance of the rights of succession, and the public opinion of Europe was steadily turning against the English. It was at this juncture that Joan of Arc came forward alleging her divine commission to rescue the country from its invader. At the moment when Joan obtained her first audience with Charles VII the English were in the midst of the protracted siege of Orleans. Bedford had been induced, in opposition to his own judgment, to undertake this operation with the view of carrying the war into the country beyond the Loire, which adhered altogether to the party of Charles. All France had begun to look upon the siege of Orleans as decisive of the issue of the whole war. Joan made her way into the city on April 29, 1429, and nine days later compelled the English to raise the siege. The next act of Joan was to conduct the king to be crowned at Rheims, which she effected on July 17, after having defeated the English at Patay in the preceding month. These events ended the achievements which Joan had proclaimed it her mission to perform.* She accomplished, however, still more for the cause of France's deliverance by her death. Taken prisoner by the English at Compiègne on May 23, 1430, she was carried to Rouen, unjustly condemned for sorcery, and burnt in the May of the following year. But the effect of her achievements upon France did not pass away with her death. The national spirit had been roused, and the result was that the struggle became now a national effort to expel the alien invaders. From that time the cause of England was virtually lost. It is not necessary to follow in detail the stages of its decline. By the Treaty of Arras (September 21, 1435), Burgundy, still further alienated from Bedford, by the latter's marriage without his consent to Jacquetta of Luxemburg, finally threw in his lot with Charles, and the event is said to have been the cause of the death of Bedford, which shortly followed. The war dragged on with diminishing hopes on the English side, and increasing discontent at home, for ten years more. In 1444 a truce was made between the two countries; and in the following year a marriage was arranged between Henry and Margaret, daughter of the Duke of Anjou and the niece of the King of France.

Henceforward, the interest of events abroad depends mainly upon the effect which they had upon public feeling at home—the degree in which they embittered the different parties of English statesmen and tended to bring about the Wars of the Roses, which soon ensued. Two years after the king's marriage (1447), the two rival statesmen, the Duke of Gloucester and Cardinal Beaufort, died. The Duke of Suffolk now came to be the trusted minister of the Crown. He had been chiefly instrumental in bringing about the king's marriage, and he was on that account the favourite of Queen Margaret, by whom the king was entirely governed. But as the royal marriage and the queen herself became every day more unpopular in the country, the general distrust of the duke kept pace with his favour at court. Richard, Duke of York, now occupied, and with much more desert, the place in popular estimation that Gloucester had held a few years before his death, while the continued losses of the English were attributed to the treachery of Suffolk and the queen. At length Suffolk was, at the instance of York and his party, impeached of high treason, was banished by the king, and seized and beheaded, probably by a pirate, in the course of his passage to the coast of France (1450). He was succeeded in the queen's favour by the Duke of Somerset, to whom the defence of the possessions in France was entrusted. York in the meantime had been removed from the country by appointment as lord-lieutenant of Ireland (1447). In 1450 a foretaste of the civil war was experienced in the rebellion of the men of Kent, under Jack Cade, who called himself John Mortimer, and professed to be a cousin of the Duke of York. [Cade's Rebellion.] After this rebellion had been suppressed, York returned to England, with a following of several thousand men, and insisted upon his admission to the council. This was granted, and the appeal to arms was, for a while, deferred.

Meanwhile, the affairs of the country across the Channel had gone from bad to worse. There was no longer any question of retaining the more recent acquisitions. The most ancient possessions of the English in France were about to be lost—Normandy in 1450, Guienne in 1453. During the defence of the latter place, the brave Earl of Shrewsbury, his sons, and about thirty knights, fell in one engagement, Castillon, 1453. In August 1453 the king began to exhibit signs of that mental disorder which he had inherited from his grandfather, Charles VI of France. It now became clear to all that, sooner or later, the queen and Somerset on the one hand, and the Duke of

York and his partisans upon the other, would appeal to the sword to settle their disputes; and the noblemen throughout the country began to arm their retainers. The prospect of war was increased by the birth of a son to Henry and Margaret in October 1453. This event destroyed York's prospects of succeeding peacefully to the English throne, and increased the suspicion with which the queen regarded him. York was appointed protector in April 1454; but in January of the succeeding year the king recovered his faculties, and the appointment was, of course, annulled. The queen and Somerset now began to think of taking vengeance upon York, who was obliged to retire to the north. There he was joined by the most powerful among his adherents, and definitely took up arms, and marched upon London. On May 22, 1455, the army of York encountered the forces of the king at St. Albans (q.v.), and there was fought the first battle of the Wars of the Roses. Somerset was slain, and the victory remained with the Yorkists; so that, on the king again becoming deranged, York was once more made lord protector (1455–6). The war now slumbered for four years. It broke out again in the autumn of 1459, when the queen felt herself strong enough to strike. Lord Audley, with the king's forces, was defeated by the Earl of Salisbury at Blore Heath (September 23), but on the approach of the king the Yorkists were obliged to disperse [Ludford, Rout of], and their leaders were attainted by the parliament of Coventry in the following November. Soon, however, they recovered their position, landed in England, and entered London in triumph, in July 1460. Immediately after was fought the battle of Northampton, in which the king was taken prisoner (July 10, 1460). On October 16 the Duke of York, for the first time, laid claim to the crown. Finally a bargain was concluded whereby Henry was to continue to wear the crown during his lifetime, but was to be succeeded by Richard, to the exclusion of the young Prince Edward. Meanwhile, the queen, roused to frenzied action by this attack upon the rights of her son, had fled to the north, where she succeeded in raising an army. York hastened to meet her, and on December 30 was fought the battle of Wakefield (q.v.), in which the army of York was completely defeated. The duke himself was slain, and his second son, the Earl of Rutland, was murdered after the battle. Edward, Earl of March, now succeeded to the claims of his father. Margaret defeated his chief supporter, the Earl of Warwick, at the second battle of St. Albans in January 1461, and had London at her mercy. Henry, however, was unwilling to expose the city to the tender mercies of his wild northern troops, and the opportunity was lost. Edward, who had meantime defeated a Lancastrian detachment at Mortimer's Cross on February 2, was enabled to join Warwick, and together they entered London. The queen was pursued northwards and decisively defeated at Towton (q.v.) on March 29, 1461. For the next three years she kept the Lancastrian cause alive in the north, with French and Scottish assistance; but her hopes were finally destroyed at Hedgeley Moor (q.v.) and Hexham (1464). Margaret fled to the continent, but Henry remained for two years a fugitive in northern England until he was captured in Lancashire (1466). He was destined once more to occupy the throne for a few months from 1470 to 1471, as a result of an alliance between Warwick and the Yorkist malcontents and the exiled Margaret; but his reason was now permanently affected, and he was the mere puppet of his deliverers. Moreover Edward soon recovered his power. Warwick was defeated and slain at Barnet (April 14), and the Lancastrians were, for the last time, overwhelmed at Tewkesbury (May 4) (q.v.). Edward entered London on May 21, and next day the body of Henry was exposed at St. Paul's. It was very commonly believed that he had been murdered by the Duke of Gloucester, the brother of Edward IV. Henry was of a gentle and pious disposition.

Stevenson, "Wars of the English in France" (Rolls Series); Ellis, "Original Letters"; "Rolls of Parliament"; "Proceedings of Privy Council"; "The Paston Letters," with J. Gairdner's valuable Introductions; M. R. James, "Henry VI," 1919.

[C. F. K.]

Henry VII, King (*b.* January 28, 1457, *s.* August 22, 1485, *d.* April 21, 1509), was the son of Edmund Tudor, Earl of Richmond, son of Owen Tudor, a Welsh gentleman who had married the widow of Henry V. His mother, Margaret, was a great-granddaughter of John of Gaunt by Catherine Swynford, whose offspring had been legitimated in 1397, but expressly excluded from succession to the throne. Henry VI recognized his half-brothers of the Tudor house, and when Edmund Tudor died, soon after his son's birth, Henry VI took the young Henry of Richmond under his protection. After the battle of Tewkesbury, Jasper Tudor, Earl of Pembroke, carried off his nephew to Brittany for safety. Edward IV left no means untried to get Henry into his power. He tried to bribe the Duke of Brittany to give him up, but the duke preferred to receive an annual subsidy for keeping watch over his important guest. Richard III sent a special envoy to Brittany to spy Henry's doings. The English exiles more and more gathered round Henry, and saw in him their only possible head. His mother and Bishop Morton did their utmost to furnish him with money. On Christmas Day 1483 a body of exiles took oath in the cathedral of Rheims to place Henry on the English throne, and he on his side swore to reconcile the contending parties by wedding Elizabeth of York, Edward IV's eldest daughter. It needed much patience on Henry's part to keep his party together, and to overcome the obstacles which the French court put in the way of his preparations. At length, on August 1,

1485, he landed at Milford Haven and was welcomed by the Welsh as a compatriot. He advanced to Shropshire, where he was joined by the Talbots. Richard III advanced to meet him, and the two armies came in sight near the little town of Bosworth (q.v.), not far from Ashby-de-la-Zouch. The battle was decided by Lord Stanley, who joined Henry's side. Richard III was slain and Henry of Richmond was the conqueror (August 22). Still there were many difficulties in his way; but he showed a resolute and far-sighted spirit. He was determined to reign as England's lawful king, and not to assume a subordinate position by accepting any title through marriage with Elizabeth of York. The claims of the Lancastrian houses were not popular, and Henry could scarcely pretend to be a genuine Lancastrian. He took, however, a victor's right, and on the day of the battle of Bosworth assumed the royal title. He advanced to London and had himself crowned before he summoned parliament in November. The act which recognized his accession made no mention of his claim, but simply declared that "the inheritance of the crown be, rest, remain, and abide in the most royal person of our now sovereign lord King Henry VII and in his heirs." It may be said that parliament simply registered an accomplished fact. In January 1486 Henry VII married Elizabeth of York, and soon afterwards made a journey northwards to pacify his dominions. There was a futile rising of the Yorkists under Lord Lovel (q.v.) which was easily put down and sternly punished. But England had been too long disturbed by party warfare for peace to come at once. In 1487 a young man named Lambert Simnel (q.v.) was trained to personate the Earl of Warwick, son of the Duke of Clarence, whom Henry VII kept confined in the Tower. The impostor was welcomed in Ireland, and received aid from Flanders, where the Duchess Margaret of Burgundy, sister of Edward IV, resided. He landed in England in June 1487, but was defeated and taken prisoner at Stoke, and was afterwards employed as a servant in the royal kitchen. This rising taught Henry VII that he must mollify the bitterness of the Yorkist feeling, and he accordingly had Elizabeth crowned as his queen in November. He also took measures to reduce still further the power of the great barons, though the baronage had been almost annihilated in the bloody battles of the Wars of the Roses. In 1487 parliament constituted a new commission of judges, chosen from the members of the privy council, with power to put down divers misdemeanours. Chief of these was the practice of maintenance, by which a lord could bind to himself a band of retainers, who wore his livery, espoused his quarrels, and were too strong for the ordinary law courts to touch.

Henry VII's policy was peaceful, and he did not aim at gaining glory for his new dynasty by foreign warfare. The daughter of his former protector, the Duke of Brittany, asked his help against France; and the English people were ready for war. Henry VII used his people's zeal as a means for raising large supplies, but only made a show of fighting, and in 1492 arranged with Charles VIII of France the Peace of Étaples, by which he consented to be bought off by a large money payment of £149,000. A new pretender, a Fleming, Peter Osbeck, generally known as Perkin Warbeck (q.v.), claimed to be a son of Edward IV, who had escaped from the hands of Richard III. By the Treaty of Étaples, Warbeck was expelled from France. He was, however, warmly supported by Margaret of Burgundy, and had many adherents in England. Henry VII steadily pursued them, and punished them with remorseless severity. After an unsuccessful attempt at landing on the coast of Kent in 1495 one hundred and fifty-nine of his followers were hanged. In 1496 Henry VII made a commercial treaty, known as "The Great Intercourse" [INTERCURSUS], with Flanders, by which liberty of trading was secured, and each party undertook to expel the other's rebels from their territory. The obvious advantages of commercial intercourse overcame dynastic politics, and Flanders was no more a seedbed of plots against the English monarchy. Warbeck took refuge in Scotland, where Henry VII's policy of conciliation was not yet able to overcome national animosity. Still it made so much progress that Warbeck was driven to seek his fortunes in the field, and in September 1497 landed in Cornwall. As the royal troops advanced, Warbeck's forces melted away, and he was taken prisoner in the abbey of Beaulieu. Warbeck made an attempt to escape from prison, and led the Earl of Warwick to share in his attempt. In 1499 they were both executed, and the king was at last free from pretenders to his throne. Henry VII devoted himself to the great object of establishing the royal power at home, and of raising the English monarchy to a strong position in European affairs. He lived economically, and seldom summoned parliament. He used benevolences (q.v.) to raise money, and rigidly exercised all the old rights of the Crown. He reduced the barons into complete obedience, and raised up a new class of officials. He succeeded in bringing Ireland into greater order and closer connexion with England. The deputy, Sir Edward Poynings (q.v.), passed a law which made the Irish parliament largely dependent on the English king (1494). Henry VII steadily pursued the endeavour of bringing Scotland into closer union with England, and in this he was helped by his alliance with France, which weakened its connexion with Scotland. In 1502 peace was established with Scotland, and Henry VII's daughter Margaret was given in marriage to the Scottish king James IV.

In foreign affairs Henry VII recognized a congenial spirit in Ferdinand of Aragon, and

wished to restore on a firmer basis the traditional alliance between England and the Spanish house. A marriage was arranged between the Infanta Katharine and Arthur, Henry VII's eldest son. It took place in November 1501, but five months afterwards Arthur died at the age of fifteen. Henry VII and Ferdinand were both unwilling to lose the advantages of this connexion. It was agreed that Arthur's brother Henry should marry Katharine. The necessary dispensations were obtained, and Katharine stayed in England, but the marriage was not celebrated till after Henry VII's death. The death of Queen Elizabeth in 1503 left Henry VII free to carry farther his policy of continental alliances. He proposed to marry Margaret, daughter of the Emperor Maximilian, whose son Philip was Duke of Burgundy. By this marriage he hoped, amongst other advantages, to secure possession of Edmund de la Pole, son of the Duke of Suffolk and Edward IV's sister Elizabeth. A storm drove Philip of Burgundy on the English coast, and Henry VII, in return for his hospitality, demanded the surrender of Edmund de la Pole, who was imprisoned in the Tower. The marriage with Margaret did not take place, and Henry VII spent his last years in devising other marriages for himself and his daughter. None of them was accomplished; but their object was to secure for his house a sure friendship both with Austrian and Spanish lines. Henry VII's financial policy became more and more rapacious, and he was skilful in finding ready instruments, chief of whom were Edmund Dudley (q.v.) and Richard Empson (q.v.). When Henry VII died, on April 21, 1509, he left England pacified and the royal coffers well filled. He had executed a difficult task with thoroughness and persistency. He gave England order, peace, and prosperity. He established firmly his own house on the English throne. He secured its position by a system of alliances abroad. By the same means he protected English interests, and gained for England an important place in European politics without fighting a single battle. His prudent use of the means at his disposal won for him in after-times the name of the "Solomon of England."

"Memorials of Henry VII," ed. J. Gairdner (Rolls Series); Bacon, "History of the Reign of Henry VII"; biographies by J. Gairdner, 1889, and Gladys Temperley, 1917; A. F. Pollard, "Reign of Henry VII," 3 vols., 1914; L. Einstein, "Tudor Ideals," 1921; W. Busch, "England Under the Tudors," 1895; C. H. Williams, "England Under the Early Tudors," 1925; A. D. Innes, "Ten Tudor Statesmen," 1906.

[M. C.]

Henry VIII, King (*b.* June 28, 1491, *s.* April 22, 1509, *d.* January 28, 1547), was the second son of Henry VII and Elizabeth of York. He came to the throne a handsome and accomplished young man, whose accession was hailed with joy as a relief from the severe and sombre rule of Henry VII. Henry VIII increased his popularity by prosecuting the hated instruments of his father's extortion, Empson (q.v.) and Dudley (q.v.), who were put to death on a charge of plotting to seize the royal person. He intimated his intention of carrying on his father's foreign policy by completing the marriage, which had long been deferred, with Katharine of Aragon, his brother Arthur's widow. He longed to plunge into an adventurous career of foreign policy, for which the troubled state of European affairs afforded every opportunity. Italy was the battle-field of the rival claims of the Empire, France, and Spain. The League of Cambrai (1509)—for the dismemberment of Venice—had awakened the pope's jealousy against France. The Holy League was formed in 1511 against Louis XII, and Henry VIII gladly joined it. An English army was sent under the Duke of Suffolk to co-operate with Spanish troops in the south of France. But Ferdinand used it only for his own purposes; he delayed any great operations, and the English suffered from the climate. Nothing was done in this campaign of 1512; but next year Henry VIII arranged to co-operate with the Emperor Maximilian in Flanders. The bloodless "Battle of the Spurs" (August 16, 1513) secured the fall of Terouenne, and Tournai also was taken. France retaliated on England by stirring up the Scots to break the peace which they had recently made with England. James IV crossed the border with a large army, but was defeated and slain by the Earl of Surrey at the battle of Flodden Field (q.v.). The year 1513 was successful for Henry VIII's ambitious schemes. But his allies were ready for a truce. Henry VIII could not continue the war by himself. He made peace with Louis XII in return for large sums of money, and ratified the peace by giving his sister Mary in marriage to the old king. The death of James IV of Scotland left another of Henry's sisters, Margaret, the queen-dowager, regent of Scotland. But her second marriage, with the Earl of Angus, made her unpopular, and afforded an opening for French intrigues. The death of Louis XII and the accession of Francis I in 1515 again led to European war, which was ended in 1518 by a confederacy between England, France, and Spain.

Henry's chief adviser was Thomas Wolsey (q.v.), who rose by his abilities, and showed his capacity especially by managing the details of the campaign of 1513. Next year he was made Archbishop of York, and chancellor. He soon was created cardinal, and made papal legate in England. His civil and ecclesiastical authority combined gave him a commanding position. He was devoted to the king's service, and bent upon exalting the royal authority. He likewise upheld stoutly the authority of the Church, though he wished to reform some of its abuses. Above all he laboured to make England influential and respected in European affairs. At home he exercised arbitrary power. From 1515 to 1523 no parliament was summoned,

but money was collected by forced loans and benevolences.

The death of Maximilian in 1519 raised the question of succession to the empire. Henry VIII offered himself as a candidate; but the contest really lay between Francis I and Charles, grandson alike of Ferdinand and Maximilian. The election of Charles V was the beginning of a long rivalry between France and the house of Habsburg. Both wished to secure the support of England, and Wolsey enhanced the importance of the English alliance by temporizing between the two powers. Charles V condescended to visit Sandwich for a conference with Henry VIII. Francis I arranged an interview on the plain of Ardres, with such magnificence that it was known as the "Field of the Cloth of Gold" (q.v.). But in Wolsey's eyes the interests of England could be better served by siding with Charles V, and in the war which followed, England saw its ally everywhere successful. France retaliated on England, as usual, by raising disturbances in Scotland, where the Duke of Albany attacked the English borders. He was, however, outgeneralled by the Earl of Surrey, and in 1523 a peace for eighteen years was made with Scotland.

In 1523 Henry VIII had hopes of reviving the English claims on the French throne. But Charles V had no wish to see his ally become too powerful. His object was to use the help of England to enable him to make a satisfactory peace with France in his own interests. Wolsey soon saw this, and the alliance of England with Charles V began rapidly to cool. The complete success of Charles V at the battle of Pavia, in 1525, where Francis I was taken prisoner, showed still more clearly that England had nothing to gain from her ally. Henry VIII and Wolsey came round to the French side, and in 1528 England declared war against Charles V.

During this period Henry VIII was regarded as a gay, pleasure-loving king, ambitious, and full of great schemes, which he was content to leave in the hands of Wolsey to be worked out. Wolsey's hand was heavy on the people, and his taxation was arbitrary that he might raise adequate supplies. Henry VIII stood aloof from these questions. He retained his own popularity, and allowed all the responsibility and all the odium to fall upon Wolsey's shoulders. The country was prosperous and contented under a strong government, and looked with fervent loyalty upon the king who secured their peace. But Henry VIII had no male heirs. All his children by Katharine died in infancy, save a daughter, Mary. Uncertainty about the succession to the throne would again plunge England into a bloody conflict. Henry VIII repressed all speculation about the future with sternness. In 1521 the Duke of Buckingham was condemned and executed as a traitor on slight charges of attempting to forecast the duration of the king's life. But Henry VIII was uneasy at the want of a male heir. His wife, Katharine, was older than himself, and was sickly. So long as he remained in alliance with Charles V, Katharine had a political significance. On the breach with Charles V she became an obstacle in the way of the new policy. The marriage with a brother's widow had sufficient irregularity to give grounds for an annulment, and a desire for a divorce gradually took possession of the king's mind. It became a determined object when the king fell in love with Anne Boleyn (q.v.), a lady of Katharine's court. Wolsey had favoured the divorce scheme in the interests of the alliance with France. When he found that it was urged to make room for Anne Boleyn, he was dismayed, but none the less obeyed the king. The question was, however, an awkward one, and it was difficult to find good reasons for urging it on the pope. Clement VII was cowed by the sack of Rome in 1527, and was afraid of drawing on himself the wrath of Charles V, who was Katharine's nephew. He consented to constitute Cardinals Wolsey and Campeggio commissioners to examine into the king's plea, and the legates sat in London in 1529. But the case was revoked to Rome, and Henry was left disappointed. Every effort was made to override or outwit the unfortunate Katharine; but her resolution left the pope no chance of evading the main issue, which was the validity of the dispensation issued by a previous pope. It is no wonder that Clement VII hesitated.

The immediate result of Henry's disappointment was the disgrace of Wolsey, who had so faithfully served his master that he had no other friend. Wolsey was brought under the penalties of the Statute of Præmunire (q.v.) for having exercised the office of legate. He died in November 1530, foreseeing the great questions that would arise. "The king," he said, "is of royal spirit, and hath a princely heart; rather than he will miss or want part of his appetite, he will hazard the loss of half a kingdom." Henry was resolute for his divorce, and was still anxious to obtain the papal sanction. In dragging before the world all the secrets of his domestic life, and showing openly his attachment to Anne Boleyn, he entered upon a career which led to momentous results. The Lutheran revolt in Germany had done much to shake the foundation of the papal authority, and Henry VIII had shown his orthodoxy by writing against Luther, and receiving from the pope the title of "Defender of the Faith" (q.v.). But the demand for reform was loud inside the Church, and Henry VIII encouraged the parliament of 1529 to pass measures for remedying clerical abuses. He tried to bring further pressure to bear upon the pope by gathering opinions of the universities of Europe upon the question of the papal power to grant a dispensation for marriage with a brother's widow. In 1531 he went farther, and threatened all the clergy of England with the penalties of Præmu-

nire because they had recognized Wolsey's legatine authority. They bought off the royal displeasure, but were driven in their bill to give the king the title of Supreme Head of the Church "so far as the law of Christ will allow." Still the pope did not give way, and next year parliament was encouraged to continue the war against the clergy, and the payment of annates or first-fruits to the pope was attacked. At last the king's patience was exhausted, and in January 1533 he was secretly married to Anne Boleyn. The pope threatened excommunication, whereon an act was passed forbidding appeals to Rome. The divorce question was then tried before the court of Archbishop Cranmer; and Katharine, who refused to plead, was pronounced contumacious, and sentence was given against her. The pope declared the divorce illegal. The breach with Rome was complete. Henry VIII had done what he could to avoid it; but step by step he was drawn on until it was inevitable. The parliament of 1534 finished the work of separating the Church of England from the papal headship, and instituting it as a national church under the headship of the king. [Supremacy, Acts of.]

Henry VIII's chief adviser in these measures was Thomas Cromwell (q.v.), who had risen to notice in Wolsey's service. Cromwell wished to re-establish the royal power as supreme over Church and State alike. The discontent created by these sweeping measures was sternly repressed. The Succession Act, which settled the crown upon the children of Anne Boleyn, was made a test of loyalty. The royal supremacy was enacted by parliament, and it was declared high treason to question that title. Cromwell's spies and informers crowded the land. The monks of the Charterhouse perished on the scaffold for refusing to admit the royal supremacy. Sir Thomas More (q.v.) and Bishop Fisher (q.v.) were executed because they could not conscientiously take oath that they heartily approved of these changes. By these examples the discontented were cowed into acquiescence. The royal supremacy, exercised by Cromwell as vicar-general, was used for clearing away seedplots of disaffection. In 1536 the smaller monasteries were visited and suppressed, and in 1539 the larger monasteries were involved in the same fate. Their lands passed into the hands of a class of new nobility, who thus had a direct interest in maintaining the altered state of things. The abbots disappeared from the House of Lords, and the parliamentary influence of the Church was at an end.

There was no limit to the royal power, or to the subserviency of parliament. Henry VIII seems to have regarded himself as beyond all recognized principles of human conduct. In 1536 Anne Boleyn was accused of unchastity, and was beheaded. The day after her execution the king married Jane Seymour (q.v.). Again the succession to the throne was altered by act of parliament. Henry VIII was even allowed to nominate his successor by will. But the king's position was dangerous. In Ireland there was a serious rising of the Fitzgeralds. In Lincolnshire an army of discontented folk presented their grievances. In Yorkshire a more serious rising, the Pilgrimage of Grace (q.v.), was put down by the Duke of Norfolk. To guard against a rising of the old Yorkist faction in the west, the grandson of Edward IV, Edward Courtenay, Marquis of Exeter, was executed as a traitor. By the end of 1537 the disaffection created by the violent changes had been stamped out.

Henry VIII desired nothing more than the absorption into the Crown of the powers previously exercised by the pope. But it was difficult to repress the zeal of those who were inspired by the teaching of Luther, and discussed the doctrines of the Church with freedom. Religious change and doctrinal reform spread more widely than Henry VIII liked. He was willing to use it so far as it enabled him to make good his position, but no farther. In 1539 parliament passed the Bill of Six Articles (q.v.), which asserted the chief points of the old system against the attacks of the reformers. Cromwell was disposed to go farther, and seek political advantages by a close alliance with the Protestant princes of Germany. In 1540 he negotiated Henry VIII's fourth marriage, with Anne (q.v.), daughter of John, Duke of Cleves. His new wife displeased the king; the German princes were too irresolute to be of any political service. Henry VIII repudiated his wife, and abandoned Cromwell, who was condemned by bill of attainder and executed. The king married Catherine Howard (q.v.), niece of the Duke of Norfolk, and a reaction against Cromwell's policy set in. Catherine Howard was, in the year 1542, convicted of misconduct and executed. Next year Henry married, as his sixth wife, Catherine Parr (q.v.), widow of Lord Latimer; with her he contrived to live in peace.

The remainder of Henry VIII's reign was spent in war with Scotland and France, which, to his great annoyance, had renewed their old alliance. The young king, James V, married a French wife, and in 1542 ravaged the borders; but died in consequence of the ignominious rout of his army at Solway Moss (q.v.). Still the French party prevailed in Scotland, and the English generals on the borders kept up a merciless system of plundering raids. Indignant against France, Henry again allied himself with Charles V, and in 1544 captured Boulogne. But Charles V made peace for himself, and abandoned his ally. Still Henry VIII carried on the war single-handed till, in 1546, peace was made at Boulogne, and France agreed to pay a large pension to the English king. Meanwhile, Henry VIII's health was giving way, and his popularity had greatly waned. There was a secret strife between religious parties, which only the

strong hand of the king could repress. The Duke of Norfolk led the reactionary party; the Earl of Hertford, uncle of the young Edward, heir to the throne, favoured the reformers. Norfolk and his son, the Earl of Surrey, behaved so as to awaken the king's suspicions. Henry VIII was above all things careful that there should be no disturbance during the minority of his son. In December 1546 Norfolk and Surrey were suddenly imprisoned. Surrey was beheaded, and Norfolk was about to share the same fate when Henry VIII died on January 28, 1547.

Henry VIII was by nature a highly-gifted man, of a strongly-marked character, which won the hearts of all. He attached his ministers to him as few rulers have ever succeeded in doing. He used their loyal devotion to the full, and then remorselessly abandoned them. He was above all things a king. No king had a higher sense of the privileges of royalty; no king exercised them more fully, or succeeded in obtaining for them a fuller recognition from his people. Henry is equally remarkable for what he did, and for what he abstained from doing. He clothed his own caprice in the forms of justice; he elevated his own personal desires to principles of national policy; he strained the constitution to its farthest point, but he did not break it; he was a tyrant, but he clothed his tyranny under the forms of parliamentary sanction; he so far identified himself with the general interest of his people, that they were ready to trust him with larger powers than any previous king enjoyed. In his private life his coarseness was strangely mixed with questions of the national welfare; and the morality required from the ordinary man was set aside in the case of the sovereign. Everything was pardoned in a ruler who had a hand strong enough to maintain order, and who could hold a firm balance between contending factions. Under Henry VIII England passed through a great crisis without material change of the constitution either of Church or State. A great revolution was accomplished with comparative peace.

J. S. Brewer, "Reign of Henry VIII," 1884; A. F. Pollard, "Henry VIII," 1902 (latest edition 1925); L. Einstein, "Tudor Ideals," 1921; A. F. Pollard, "Factors in Modern History," 1907 and 1926; F. A. Mumby, "Youth of Henry VIII," 1913; M. A. S. Hume, "Wives of Henry VIII," 1927; A. D. Innes, "Ten Tudor Statesmen," 1906. [M. C.]

Henry, son of Henry II (1155–83), was married at an early age to Margaret, daughter of Louis VII of France. His father had destined him to succeed him in England, Normandy, and Anjou, while the rest of his dominions were to be divided between his other sons. In 1170, in pursuance of this scheme, the young Henry was crowned king, and in 1172 was re-crowned with his wife by the Archbishop of Rouen. Next year Henry II, anxious to make some provision for John, requested his elder sons to give up to their brother some few castles out of their promised shares of his dominions. The young King Henry refused, and joined the French king in the great confederation he had formed against Henry II; but the allies were defeated everywhere, and Henry was only too glad to seek reconciliation with his father (1174). But his intrigues continued both against his father and his brother Richard, his whole aim being to establish an independent dominion for himself. In 1183 these intrigues ended in an open revolt in which Henry and Geoffrey were ranged against Prince Richard and their father. A miserable civil war ensued, in the course of which Henry died at Martel. Of his character Giraldus Cambrensis speaks in terms of high commendation, which the facts of his life fail to justify.

Henry, Earl and Duke of Lancaster (1299 ?–1361), was the son of Henry, Earl of Lancaster, and grandson of Edmund, titular King of Sicily. He served with distinction in the Scottish and French wars of Edward III's reign, and in 1345 was made lieutenant and captain of Aquitaine. He was frequently employed by the king on diplomatic errands. In 1351 he was created Duke of Lancaster and his earldom of Lancaster was given palatinate status. In 1361 he died of the black death. His daughter and heiress, Blanche, married John of Gaunt, who thus obtained all the honours and claims of the house of Lancaster.

Henry of Almayne (1235–71) was the son of Richard of Cornwall, King of the Romans. During the constitutional struggles of the period he wavered between the royal and the baronial party. In 1263 he joined the barons against his uncle Henry III, and was taken prisoner by the king's partisans at Boulogne, but in the civil war which ensued he fought on the royalist side, and took part in the battle of Lewes. He was afterwards given as one of the hostages to the barons for the performance of the Mise of Lewes (q.v.), and was by them sent over to France to negotiate a new arbitration by St. Louis. After the defeat of the barons at Evesham, Henry received valuable grants of land, and in 1268 accompanied his cousin Prince Edward on his Crusade. On his return he was murdered at Viterbo in Italy by Simon and Guy de Montfort.

Henry, Prince of Scotland (*d.* 1152), was the son of David I. Stephen, soon after his coronation, conferred on him the earldoms of Northampton and Huntingdon, and at the Treaty of Durham, 1139, added Northumberland as well. Henry led a division of the Scottish army at the Battle of the Standard, 1138. He died, June 1152, to the sorrow of all, for we are told by the chroniclers that he was a brave and able soldier, and walked like his father in the paths of justice and of truth. He married Ada, daughter of William de Warenne, Earl of Surrey.

Henry, Prince of Wales (1594–1612), the eldest son of James I, was a prince of great promise. It was for his benefit that his father wrote the manual of conduct entitled, "Basilikon Doron," or "The Royal Gift" (q.v.). He seems to have been very popular with the Scots as well as with the English, and owing to his violent dislike of popery the young prince was the hope of the Protestant party in England; and his character and attainments offered high promise. He died in November 1612, from a fever probably brought on by over-violent exertions. The suspicion that he was poisoned seems to have been altogether unfounded.

Cornwallis, "Life of Prince Henry (Somers's Tract II)."

Hepburn, James, 4th Earl of Bothwell (1536–78), was lord warden of the Scottish Marches, as well as lord high admiral of Scotland, in which capacities he is said to have acted more as a marauder and a pirate than as an officer of state. In 1558 he was one of the Lords of the Articles; and in the following year distinguished himself as a partisan of the queen regent, and an opponent of Arran and the reforming lords. He was one of the nobles sent to Mary in France after the death of her husband; and in 1561 was made a member of the privy council. He was, however, in constant difficulties, owing to his turbulence and violence. In 1562 he was impeached for having plotted to carry off the queen, and outlawed; but in a few months he returned, and married Lady Jane Gordon, a sister of Lord Huntly, and about the same time began to find favour in the eyes of Queen Mary. From this time his life became closely associated with that of the queen. After Rizzio's murder Mary fled to Dunbar Castle, of which Bothwell had the custody; and subsequently he returned with her to Edinburgh. In October 1566 he received a visit from her when lying wounded in his castle of Hermitage; and after he had compassed the murder of Darnley, 1567, he was in constant attendance on Mary at Seton. An attempt on the part of Lennox to bring the murderer of his son to justice ended in Bothwell's acquittal, owing to the non-appearance of the accuser, and brought him fresh proofs of the queen's regard in the shape of large grants of land. In 1567 he carried off Mary as she was going from Stirling to Edinburgh, probably with her own connivance, and, having obtained a divorce from his wife, married the queen, May 15, 1567. Shortly afterwards a combination of the leading barons of Scotland forced Bothwell, who previous to his marriage had been made Duke of Orkney and Shetland, to fly to Borthwick Castle, and thence to Dunbar. On the queen's surrender to Kirkcaldy, after the failure at Carberry Hill, Bothwell had to escape as best he could to the Orkneys. Pursued thither, and driven to sea, he was arrested by a Danish warship off the coast of Norway, on suspicion of piracy, and conveyed to Denmark. There he was imprisoned by Christian IX, first at Malmö (1567–73), then at Dragsholm (1573–8); but the king refused the demands of the Scottish government for his extradition or execution. The so-called "Testament" he is said to have drawn up during this period is probably a forgery. Bothwell was, as Randolph said of him, "despiteful out of measure, false and untrue as a devil"; and it is not the least extraordinary feature in Mary's career that she should have conceived any affection for this brutal, ferocious, and unscrupulous border chief.

F. E. Schiern, "Life of Bothwell," trans. D. Berry, 1880; and biographies of Mary Stuart.

Heptarchy, The, is a term often applied to the English kingdoms which existed previous to the time of Ecgbert. It has been used generally by most of the historians of the last century, and is still a common term in historical text-books. It is, however, inappropriate, as the word Heptarchy (ἑπταρχία) strictly means a government of seven persons. Besides this, it conveys the erroneous idea that there were in England, from the fifth to the ninth centuries, always seven independent kingdoms. This was very far from the case: there were often more than seven kingdoms and more frequently fewer; but if every state which at any time had a king of its own were to be reckoned, the number of kingdoms would very far exceed the number. Those writers who use the term Heptarchy understand by it the kingdoms of Wessex, Sussex, Kent, Essex, East Anglia, Mercia, and Northumbria. [For the whole subject see Anglo-Saxon Kingdoms.]

Herat is a city of immemorial antiquity, situated in Afghanistan on the high road from India to Persia, and Central Asia. Since the foundation of the Afghan monarchy in the middle of the eighteenth century, Herat has been more or less subject to the claims of Kabul; and when in 1838 the Persians attempted to seize it, the British helped the inhabitants to resist. The Afghans, under Eldred Pottinger, endured a famous siege which lasted till the British government sent a message to the Shah, informing him that his occupation of Herat would be followed by war, whereupon the Persians raised the siege on September 9, 1838. In 1857 the British government compelled the Shah to recognize the independence of Herat; in 1863 it was definitely incorporated with Afghanistan by Dost Mohammed.

Herbert, Arthur, Earl of Torrington, lord high admiral (1647–1716), became rear-admiral in 1678. In 1682 he raised the siege of Tangier. In 1684 he was placed on the admiralty commission, and subsequently returned to parliament for Dover. He became vice-admiral and master of the robes (1685), but on refusing to consent to the repeal of the Test Act was dismissed from his offices. He

thereupon entered into communication with Dykvelt, the envoy of William of Orange, and was the bearer of the invitation to that prince. He commanded the fleet with which William sailed to England, with the title of lieutenant admiral general. After the revolution he was placed first on the admiralty commission. In 1689 he engaged in a skirmish with the French fleet in Bantry Bay, but without much result. He was created Baron Herbert and Viscount Torrington, and received the thanks of parliament. In 1690 he commanded the English and Dutch ships against the French, but retreated before them up the Channel, and when he received an order to engage off Beachy Head, sent the Dutch ships alone into action, and when they were completely crushed, fled into the Thames (June 30). He was tried by court-martial and acquitted (December 8–10), but not again employed.

Burnet, "History of His Own Time," ed. O. Airy, 2 vols., 1897–1900.

Herbert, Edward, Lord Herbert of Cherbury (1583–1648), was educated at Oxford, and, after travelling abroad, where he made the acquaintance of Casaubon and other great scholars, serving in the Netherlands under the Prince of Orange (1614–16), and visiting Italy, was appointed English ambassador at Paris (1618). Seven years later he retired into private life, and devoted himself to literary pursuits. In the Civil War he ultimately sided with the Parliament, though at first somewhat inclined to the Royalist cause. Lord Herbert's chief historical writings are a "History of Henry VIII," an account of the "Expedition to the Isle of Rhé" (in which he defended Buckingham's conduct), and a celebrated "Autobiography."

Lord Herbert's "Autobiography," ed. Sir Sidney Lee (revised), 1907.

Herbert, George, 5th Earl of Carnarvon (1866–1923), son of the 4th earl (below), discovered the tomb of King Tut-ankh-Amen at Luxor in 1923, after seventeen years of excavation and discovery, in conjunction with Mr. Howard Carter.

Herbert, Henry Howard Molyneux, 4th Earl of Carnarvon (1831–90), was colonial under-secretary in Lord Derby's second administration, 1858–9, and colonial secretary in Lord Derby's third administration, 1866. He resigned, on account of a difference of opinion respecting parliamentary reform, in 1867. In Disraeli's cabinet in 1874 he was again colonial secretary. In 1878 he resigned upon the Eastern question. In 1885 he became lord-lieutenant of Ireland in Lord Salisbury's first administration, resigning in 1886. Here his policy was conciliatory, and he even secretly approached Parnell on the subject of Home Rule. But in this, as he subsequently made clear, he did not profess to speak for his colleagues.

Biography by Lady Carnarvon, 1925.

Herbert, Sidney, 1st Lord Herbert of Lea (1810–61), entered parliament as member for Wiltshire in 1832, and attached himself to the party of Sir Robert Peel and the Conservatives. In 1841 Peel appointed him secretary of the admiralty, from which office he was promoted to be secretary for war in 1845. In common with almost every other member of Peel's government, he changed his views with regard to the question of protection, and became an ardent advocate of free trade. On Peel's death, Herbert, in company with Sir James Graham, Gladstone, and a few others, formed a party by themselves called "Peelites." When the Earl of Aberdeen became premier nearly the whole of the Peelites took office, and Herbert once more became secretary for war, but was not altogether successful as head of this department at the outbreak of the Crimean War. When Palmerston succeeded Aberdeen, Herbert was made colonial secretary. In 1859 he again became secretary for war under Palmerston, and introduced important reforms (including the development of the volunteer movement). In the midst of these labours his health began to fail. He was called to the Upper House by the title of Lord Herbert of Lea in 1860.

Herbert, Sir Thomas (1606–82), was a member of the family of Pembroke, and had already distinguished himself as a traveller when, on the outbreak of the Civil War, he joined the Parliamentary party. He was employed as commissary of Fairfax's army, and when Charles I was betrayed by the Scots he was made one of the king's attendants. The "Threnodia Carolina," which he published in 1678, gives a minute account of Charles I's life during his imprisonment. He was made a baronet in 1660, but took no further part in public affairs, devoting himself almost exclusively to antiquarian researches. Sir Thomas Herbert published an account of his travels in 1634, and this work has been subsequently reprinted.

Herbert, Thomas, 8th Earl of Pembroke and 5th Earl of Montgomery (1656–1733), was educated at Christ Church, Oxford, and succeeded to his brother's title in 1683. He raised the trained-bands of Wilts in order to suppress Monmouth's rebellion. In 1687 he was deprived of his lord-lieutenancy. He took part in the coronation ceremony of William and Mary, although he had voted for a regency, and was shortly afterwards sent as ambassador extraordinary to the States-General. Pembroke was sworn of the privy council, and put at the head of the admiralty commission. On the departure of William for Ireland he was placed on the Council of Nine, and was made lord privy seal in 1692. When the king went to the Netherlands to take command of the army he was appointed one of the lords justices. He voted against Fenwick's attainder. Pembroke was first plenipotentiary at the Treaty

of Ryswick. He was created president of the council in place of Leeds in 1700; and by an able speech expressed the dislike of the Tory peers to the Resumption Bill. On the accession of Anne he was dismissed from the admiralty in order to make room for Prince George. He was one of the commissioners to treat of the Union with Scotland, and became lord-lieutenant of Ireland in 1707. Pembroke was subsequently created president of the council, from which the Whigs attempted to thrust him in order to make room for Somers. On the death of Prince George he again became lord high admiral, but resigned in 1709 on receiving a pension. Before the arrival of George I in England Pembroke was one of the lords justices who carried on the administration. During the remainder of his long life he took but little part in politics. Although Pembroke played a prominent part during two reigns, we know hardly anything of his personal character. He was a moderate Tory in opinions, and seems to have carried out his official duties with zeal and integrity.

Burnet, "History of His Own Time," ed. O. Airy, 2 vols., 1897–1900.

Herbert, William, 1st Earl of Pembroke (second creation) (1501?–70), one of the most powerful men of his day, was employed in crushing the western rebellion in 1549, and as a reward was made master of the horse and president of the Council of Wales. In 1551 he was created Earl of Pembroke, and in conjunction with Warwick and Northampton virtually ruled England. At first deeply implicated in Northumberland's plot to set Lady Jane Grey on the throne, the earl soon found that his interests lay really on the other side; and on perceiving that the country was in favour of Mary, he proclaimed her at St. Paul's (July 19). In 1554 he threw the whole weight of his influence into the scale in favour of the queen, whom, however, he personally regarded with dislike; and it was owing in a great measure to his course of action that Sir Thomas Wyatt's rebellion was so easily suppressed in the following year. He was one of the commissioners sent to France to arrange for a general peace, and in 1556 led a reinforcement of troops to Calais to ward off the threatened French attack. On the accession of Elizabeth he accorded her his warmest support. In 1569 he was, however, arrested on suspicion of being implicated in the plot to marry the Duke of Norfolk to Mary, Queen of Scots, but he cleared himself at once, and was placed in command of part of the queen's army.

Hereford first appears in history as the place where Bishop Putta settled (676) for the exercise of his episcopal functions after he was obliged to leave Rochester. He probably acted, however, merely as a kind of suffragan for Saxulf, Bishop of Mercia, for the limits of the diocese of Hereford had not been fixed even by the end of the eighth century. Hereford was destroyed by Gruffyd of Wales in 1055, but was refortified by Harold in the same year. Its first charter dates from the reign of Richard I (1189). Hereford was famed as the shrine of St. Ethelbert, the martyred king of the East Saxons, and later of St. Thomas de Cantelupe (1275–83).

J. Duncombe, "History of Hereford," 1882.

Hereford, The Peerages of. The earldom of Hereford was held by William Fitz-Osbern, the Conqueror's justiciary, and by his son Roger. In 1140 the title was granted by the Empress Matilda to Milo of Gloucester, from whom it passed to his son, and then to the son of his daughter Margery, wife of Humphrey de Bohun. Seven earls were descended from the Bohun family, until its extinction in this branch, in 1372. [Bohun, Family of.] In 1397 Henry of Bolingbroke, afterwards king, was created Duke of Hereford, a title which became merged in the Crown. In 1550 a viscounty of the same style was created for Walter Devereux, who was descended from Eleanor, daughter of the last earl of the Bohun family. Walter's son was made Earl of Essex (1572), but in the next generation Robert, the famous Earl of Essex, was attainted and beheaded (1601). His son Robert was restored in blood and honours in 1604, but died childless in 1646, when the viscounty of Hereford devolved upon his cousin, Sir Walter Devereux, in whose issue it still remains.

Hereford, Earls of. [Bohun, Fitz-William.]

Heresy, Legislation concerning. According to the canon law, heresy was a subject of ecclesiastical discipline. The suspected heretic was summoned before the bishop's court, was examined concerning his opinions, and was required to submit to the parental jurisdiction of his ecclesiastical father. If convicted, he submitted, did penance, confessed his errors, and amended his ways. The common law, in early times, took cognizance of heresy, but probably only in the case of those who were contumacious to their bishop, or relapsed after submission. Heresy was a subject of inquest at the sheriff's tourn, and the punishment of avowed unbelief was burning. But in early times there were very few cases of heresy, and it did not cause any serious trouble till the rise of Lollardy. In the Assize of Clarendon (q.v.) heresy is noted, but heretics are treated with a leniency contrasting strongly with the legislation of later times. The Lollard preachers refused to obey the citations of the bishops summoning them to answer for their opinions. In 1382 a statute was passed enacting that commissions should be directed to the sheriffs to arrest persons certified by the bishops to be heretics, and to keep them in prison until they satisfied the Church. Archbishop Courtenay drew up a series of fourteen propositions which were condemned as heretical. The king, by royal letter, empowered the bishops to imprison

all who maintained the condemned propositions. The chief Lollard teachers in Oxford were tried, and made submission. But in the parliament of 1383 the Commons petitioned against the statute as not having received their consent. Though the statute was not repealed, no further proceedings were taken under it, though in 1391 Archbishop Arundel proceeded under the royal letters of 1382. The spread of Lollardy was, however, a source of political as well as ecclesiastical discontent, and in 1401 a severely repressive statute was passed, De Hæretico Comburendo (2 Henry IV, c. 15) (q.v.). By this act the bishop was empowered to arrest and imprison a heretic; he was bound to try him within three months; he had power to imprison or fine him, if he were convicted; if he refused to abjure, he was to be given over to the sheriff and publicly burned. During the session in which this act was passed, a Lollard preacher, William Sawtrey (q.v.), was burned by the king's writ. Even the powers given by this statute were not found sufficient, and in 1406 the Commons petitioned the king to enact that all officers of the Crown should make inquest for heretics and present them for trial before parliament. Though the king gave his consent, nothing was done; possibly the archbishop objected to the confusion of spiritual and secular jurisdictions. But the principle contained in this petition was turned into a statute by Henry V in 1414. This statute expanded the law of 1401, and provided further that all justices should inquire after heretics, and deliver them to the ordinaries to be tried by the spiritual court. Heresy was now made an offence against the common law; and the secular arm was not merely used to support the spiritual power, but had the duty of initiating proceedings against offenders. This statute seems to have been sufficient to drive Lollardy underground, though not entirely to suppress it. The number of trials, however, under all these statutes was not numerous and the executions were few.

With the outbreak of the Reformation movement, heresy again became a crime and the use of the old statutes was revived. The executions for opinion during the sixteenth century were carried out by virtue of them, and the legislation of that period was concerned rather with determining what was heresy than how heretics were to be tried and punished. By a statute of 1533 offences against the see of Rome were declared not to be heresy. In 1539 the Act of the Six Articles (q.v.) declared what opinions were heretical. We need not follow the variations in this definition during the two succeeding reigns. On the accession of Elizabeth in 1559, former statutes were repealed. Heresy as a simple offence was visited by spiritual punishment in a spiritual court; contumacious or relapsed heretics, after conviction by a provincial synod, were handed over to the secular arm to be burned. At the same time heresy was defined to be such opinions as were contrary to (1) canonical scripture, (2) the four general councils, (3) future declarations of parliament with the assent of convocation. Still Anabaptists were burnt under Elizabeth, and Arians under James I. The punishment of death for heresy was abolished under Charles II in 1677, and the heretic was subject only to ecclesiastical correction "pro salute animæ." An act of 1698 which made apostasy or denial of Christianity an offence liable to imprisonment still remains on the statute book, although long since obsolete. In the case of the clergy heresy is cognizable by the ecclesiastical courts, and in the last resort by the judicial committee of the privy council, but punishment is strictly limited to deprivation of benefice. [M. C.]

Heretoga (lit., the army leader) was the Anglo-Saxon title given originally to the commander of the army; but in later times it seems (like its Latin equivalent *dux*) to have become hereditary, and was sometimes used synonymously with the titles of "ealdorman" and "earl." Heretoga is the word used in the "Anglo-Saxon Chronicle" to describe Hengest and Horsa; whereas Cerdic and Cynric are called "ealdormen."

Hereward (*d.* c. 1073), called the Wake, was, according to later legend, the son of Leofric, lord of Bourne, in Lincolnshire. Actually we can say nothing with confidence of his antecedents, except that he was a tenant of the abbey of Peterborough. On the news of the appointment of the Norman Turold to the office of abbot in 1070, Hereward seems to have called in against him the Danes, who plundered the abbey. Subsequently the Peterborough tenants fortified themselves in the island of Ely under his leadership; and there continued their opposition to the Norman rule. Round him were soon gathered the bravest and most resolute of the English outlaws, Bishop Ethelwine of Durham, Siward, and even Earl Morkere. The fame of Hereward's courage was now spread abroad, and we read of an unsuccessful effort made by the men of Berkshire to join his camp. William therefore determined to crush, in person, a rebellion which was assuming such large proportions. Fixing his headquarters at Cambridge, he commenced a regular siege, and forced the greater part of the defenders to yield (1071), but Hereward with a few followers broke through the enemies' ranks and escaped. Legend asserted that he long continued his predatory incursions from the Bruneswald, but that he was in later times reconciled to William by the offices of his wife Elfthryth. According to Geoffrey Gaimar, William proposed to take him over to help in the reduction of Maine when that province revolted in 1073, and he was slain by private enemies on the eve of departure. Other authorities relate that he lived for many years and died peacefully. The details of his history are extremely obscure, owing to the mass of

legendary material with which they were early overlaid.

Biography by T. N. Harward, 1896.

Heriot (a word derived from the Anglo-Saxon *Here-geat*, war-gear) was, in the later Middle Ages, the right of the lord on the death of his tenant to the best beast or the best chattel of which the tenant was possessed at the time of his death. It originated in the fact that the lord used to lend his vassal horse and armour for life, which on the tenant's death reverted to the lord. When by the tenth century land was being given instead of arms the heriot still continued to be paid, thus assuming something of the character of the feudal relief. The custom has continued down to the present day on copyhold land, though either the lord or the tenant can compel the extinction of the right. Heriot differs from relief, in the strict sense of the term, in that it is paid out of the estate of the last tenant, not by the heir.

Pollock and Maitland, "History of English Law"; W. S. Holdsworth, "History of English Law"; F. W. Maitland, "Domesday Book and Beyond."

Hermitage Castle, in Roxburghshire, is the place where Sir Alexander Ramsay was starved to death by the Knight of Liddesdale (1342). In January 1347 it was taken by the English. In later years it passed from the hands of the Douglases to the Earl of Bothwell, who was visited there by Queen Mary after he had been wounded in a border fray, 1561.

Herries, John Maxwell, 4th Baron (1512 ?–83). [Maxwell.]

Herrings, The Battle of the (February 12, 1429), was fought near Rouvrai between the English and the French. The English had been besieging the town of Orleans since the summer of the year 1428, and Sir John Fastolf was commissioned to conduct a convoy of provisions for the use of the English army. The French made an effort to prevent its arrival at the besiegers' camp, and attacked Sir John, who had only 1,700 men under him, with very superior numbers. Sir John, however, entrenched his men behind the wagons, and succeeded in routing the enemy, finishing their confusion by ordering a charge when he perceived that his opponents were disorganized. This success seemed to have rendered the fall of Orleans almost unavoidable; and, indeed, the town must soon have surrendered had it not been for the appearance of Joan of Arc. The Battle of the Herrings was so named from the fact that a large part of the provisions convoyed by the English troops consisted of salted fish for the use of the besiegers during the Lenten fast.

Sir C. Oman, "England and the Hundred Years' War," 1898.

Hertford was a place of considerable importance under the Anglo-Saxon kings. An ecclesiastical synod was held there by Theodore of Tarsus as early as the year 673. It was the site of one of the numerous *burhs* established by Edward the Elder at the beginning of the tenth century. After the Conquest a castle appears to have been erected at Hertford as one of the series of defences round London. It played a part of some importance in the baronial struggles of 1215–16, and was besieged and captured by Louis the Dauphin in December of the latter year. The castle and honour of Hertford were conferred on John of Gaunt in 1360.

J. S. Cussans, "History of Hertfordshire," 1870–8; "Victoria County History: Hertfordshire."

Hertford, Lady Catherine Seymour, Countess of (1538 ?–68). [Seymour.]

Hertford, Edward Seymour, Earl of (1539–1621). [Seymour.]

Hervey, John, Baron Hervey of Ickworth (1696–1743), eldest son of John, Earl of Bristol, by his second wife, succeeded to the courtesy title on the death of his half-brother in 1723. During most of his career he supported Walpole. In 1731 he fought a duel with Pulteney, on account of a libel against himself which Pulteney refused to disavow. Both combatants were slightly wounded. In 1740 he was appointed lord privy seal against the wish of the Duke of Newcastle, and subsequently he intrigued with Pulteney and Chesterfield against Sir Robert Walpole. In 1743 he distinguished himself by a speech against the Gin Act. Lord Hervey left behind him certain memoirs of his own time, which form a most valuable addition to the history of the period of which they treat. He had the misfortune to offend Pope, who has branded him under the pseudonym of Sporus in the "Prologue to the Satires."

Lord Hervey's "Memoirs of the Reign of George II" were first published by J. W. Croker in 1848.

Hexham, in Northumberland, was the site of a great abbey founded by Wilfrid about 673. Four or five years later it was constituted a bishopric, on the division of the diocese of York (678). After 821 no Bishop of Hexham was appointed, and the see was merged in that of Lindisfarne, which in 995 was transferred to Durham.

"Victoria County History: Northumberland."

Hexham, The Battle of (May 15, 1464), was fought during the Wars of the Roses soon after the battle of Hedgeley Moor, by Montagu against Somerset and the remnant of the Lancastrians. The latter were totally defeated and Somerset captured and beheaded on the field. Henry IV found a refuge in Lancashire, while Margaret and her son fled to Flanders.

R. B. Mowat, "Wars of the Roses," 1914.

Hicks-Beach, Sir Michael Edward, Viscount St. Aldwyn (1837–1916), was parliamentary secretary to the poor law board from February till December 1868. In February 1874 he took office under Disraeli as chief secretary for Ireland. In 1878 he became colonial secretary, in 1885 chancellor of the

exchequer and leader of the Lower House, in 1886 Irish secretary, in 1888 president of the board of trade, in 1895 chancellor of the exchequer. In 1905 he retired from active political life, and in 1906 was made Viscount St. Aldwyn.

Hidage was a tax assessed upon the hide in the Norman and early Angevin periods; and may be regarded as the successor of the Anglo-Saxon danegeld. (q.v.). The name "hidagium" seems also to have been given to a customary payment, which we find included in the thirteenth century in the farm of the shire, together with such payments as the sheriffs' aid.

Hide, The, a measure of land. In Anglo-Saxon times it was generally regarded as the equivalent of the amount of land which would support one man and his family. Thus King Alfred substituted it for "one family's holding," in his translation of Bæda's "Ecclesiastical History." The vagueness and at the same time the usefulness of such a word for an extent of land seem to be in keeping with what we know of the informal methods of surveying an estate in pre-Conquestial days. But the vagueness of the word has caused a considerable controversy as to the sort of use it was put to as a uniform measurement of area. We may say that at the time of the Domesday inquest a hide generally approximated more closely to 120 acres than to any other figure, but this is not true for all counties, though it is supported by the evidence of later figures. The Domesday hide has been the centre of much discussion because the word itself is so generally used for the measurement of local resources and because a clear understanding of its significance in different contexts would give a clue to the meaning and purpose of the survey as a whole. The Domesday commissioners generally treat the hide as the area served by a plough team of eight oxen, or (since we cannot believe that so large a team was habitually employed) as the area for the ploughing of which eight oxen could be allotted, allowing for part of the land being under fallow each year. A fourth part of the hide is called a virgate and can be served by two oxen. Domesday Book further permits the calculation that a virgate is equal to 30 acres. Thus, 1 hide = 4 virgates = 120 acres. But in Wiltshire we find a virgate of 10 acres and similar aberrations elsewhere. So confusing are some of the results which Domesday calculations offer that we are forced to conclude that the hide which pays geld in the survey is not a definite areal unit at all, but a convenient extent which varies from place to place according to tradition, to the quality of soil, to the efficiency of the local system of farming, and finally, according to the generosity of the Conqueror when he assessed an estate for the payment of geld. If leniency were shown to a landlord the geld hide of Domesday would be more than the normal 120 acres, and the aggregate to be paid would consequently be less than a more rigid assessment would have allowed. The hide may even have been a fiscal unit from the very beginning.

P. Vinogradoff, "Growth of the Manor"; F. W. Maitland, "Domesday and Beyond"; A. Ballard, "The Domesday Inquest." [A. V. J.]

High Church. This term first appears about 1703 to designate that party in England which demanded the strict enforcement of the laws against Dissenters, and the passing of such additional measures as the Occasional Conformity Bill; it was, in fact, practically synonymous with Tory. In more modern times, however, it is only used to denote those members of the Church of England who hold certain doctrines, and the name has by analogy been given to the party associated with similar doctrines in the seventeenth century. Under Elizabeth the majority of the bishops, and of the more zealous clergy, were Calvinist in theology. Episcopacy was defended as a matter of expediency; conformity was only enforced for the sake of order, and because it was part of the established law. But towards the end of the reign a party arose among the younger clergy, who "met Calvinism by the assertion of its inconsistency with the ancient doctrine and constitution of the primitive Church, and the claim of a divine right for the Presbyterian polity by claiming a divine right for Episcopacy. They asserted against the individualism of the Puritan theology and worship the reality of sacramental grace, of the power of absolution, of the authoritative ritual of the Church" (Dr. Barry). Of this school the most important writer was Bishop Andrewes (1555–1626), the most active practical leader, Laud (1573–1645). It did not become prominent till the later years of James I. That king, though a firm supporter of Episcopacy, and of the established ecclesiastical system, was of distinctly Calvinist sympathies. But his love of order tended to make him favour the growing party; and in 1616 Laud, its leader at Oxford, was appointed to the deanery of Gloucester, to put an end to the irregularities in the cathedral worship which the Calvinist bishop of that see had allowed. He at once caused the communion table to be removed from the middle of the choir to the east end of the chancel, and placed "altarwise." But his example was not largely followed; and it was not till 1622 that Laud gained much political power. In that year he had taken part in a discussion with the Jesuit Fisher, on the relative claims of the English and Roman Churches, in order to prevent if possible the conversion to Rome of Buckingham's mother. His ability then secured for him considerable influence over Buckingham, and access to Prince Charles, to whom, upon his accession, he became chief adviser in ecclesiastical matters. The new teaching rapidly spread; in its protest against the dogmatic definitions of Calvinism on predestination, it resembled, and

was doubtless influenced by, the Arminianism of Holland; so that, in spite of their protests, the term Arminian was generally applied to the members of the party. In 1624 a reply by one of them (Montagu) to a Roman Catholic pamphlet, wherein he had denied that the popular Calvinist doctrines were the creed of the Church of England, called forth a remonstrance from the Commons. Montagu, however, gained the king's sympathy, and wrote a second book, "Appello Cæsarem," to explain the same principles. The movement represented by Montagu was, however, almost entirely a learned movement; it had little hold upon the country gentry or town traders, and irritated them by exalting the royal prerogative. In 1625 the Commons attacked the second book, and Montagu was committed for a short time to the custody of the serjeant. But Charles was now king, and Laud was supreme in Church matters. Laud was requested to draw up a list of orthodox and Puritan clergy, that preferment might be reserved for the former; and in 1628 Montagu became Bishop of Chichester, and Laud himself Bishop of London. In the previous year Dr. Cosin had prepared for the use of the queen's attendants a book of devotions, which gave to the new teaching an expression startling to the ordinary Englishman of the time; and the declaration prefixed to the Articles in 1629, which was intended to put an end to controversy, still further annoyed the Puritan clergy. In the parliament of 1628–9 the storm broke, and one of the celebrated three resolutions of 1629 was to the effect that "whosoever shall bring in innovation in religion, or seek to extend Popery or Arminianism, shall be reputed a capital enemy to this kingdom and the commonwealth." Undeterred by this expression of national feeling, Laud, now archbishop, revived in 1634 the disused right of metropolitical visitation, and everywhere caused the communion table to be removed to the east end, fortified by a decision of the king in privy council, which was of more than doubtful legality. Laud's action aroused bitter opposition among the clergy, and was one of the main causes of the Civil War. [Arminians.]

The Act of Uniformity of 1662 almost completely removed from the English Church the Puritan element; at the same time the country gentry rallied round the Church, and Anglo-Catholic teaching no longer met with the opposition it had encountered in the first half of the century. But as the Church had identified itself with the doctrine of passive obedience, it was with great reluctance that the main body of the clergy took the oath to William III; eight bishops and 400 clergy preferred to suffer deprivation, and created the non-juring schism. But though the Church was thus weakened, legitimist feeling, associated with the doctrine of non-resistance, revived under Anne, who was known to favour the Tories and the claims of her brother, the Old Pretender. A bitter warfare of words began, between High and Low Church, the latter term meaning the Whig clergy, most of them Latitudinarian, with a few Calvinists. Swift declares, "our State parties, the more to inflame their passions, have mixed religious and civil animosities together, borrowing both their appellations from the Church, with the addition of 'High' and 'Low,' how little soever the disputes relate to these terms." The tide quickly rose; in 1705 Hoadly (q.v.), preaching against the doctrine of passive obedience, was condemned by the lower house of convocation; and in 1710 the impeachment of Sacheverell, for his sermon on non-resistance, brought about the victory of the Tory—i.e., the High Church—party. Their period of power (1710–14) was marked by the passing of the Occasional Conformity and Schism Acts, by the building of fifty new churches in London, and by the temporary withdrawal of the Regium Donum from the Irish Presbyterians. But the political ill-success of Tories and Jacobites reacted on the Church, and when convocation was prorogued in 1717, and not again allowed to meet, the clergy were unable to create any popular movement in their favour. During the earlier part of the eighteenth century the majority of the bishops were Whig and Low—i.e., Latitudinarian—while the mass of the clergy were Tory and High. But the old doctrinal questions ceased to be discussed; popular preaching concerned itself with morality, and theological controversy touched rather the foundation of Christianity than its superstructure. Soon after the beginning of George III's reign, however, the Puritan remnant in the Church were roused to fresh life by the Wesleyan movement, and by the beginning of the next century the Evangelical party had gained a preponderating influence in the English Church.

It was in these circumstances that the Tractarian movement began at Oxford in 1833. It was thought by several that the only way to meet the ecclesiastical changes threatened by the Whigs (it was the year of the suppression of ten Irish bishoprics) was to fall back on the teaching of the seventeenth-century English divines. The "real founder" of this party, according to Dr. Blunt, was Hugh James Rose, who was soon joined by John Henry Newman, John Keble, Edward Bouverie Pusey, Hurrell Froude, William Palmer, and Isaac Williams. These began the series of "Tracts for the Times," which brought about a rapid increase of their numbers, and excited the fiercest opposition. In 1841 the "Remonstrance of Four Tutors" (including A. C. Tait, afterwards archbishop) led to the condemnation by the Hebdomadal Council of Newman's Tract No. 90. Four years later W. G. Ward was censured for a treatise by the convocation of the University of Oxford, though the proctors prevented Newman's name being included. In 1845 Newman joined the Roman Church. In spite of this and other

secessions, the party continued to spread. In the Denison case (1856) a sentence of deprivation pronounced by Archbishop Sumner upon a clergyman for certain teaching as to the Eucharist was reversed by the judicial committee of the privy council, though on technical grounds; and in the Bennett case (1872), high sacramental teaching was distinctly declared permissible. The revival of Anglo-Catholic doctrine had been accompanied by a renewed interest in archæology, and by improved ecclesiastical architecture, under the influence of Pugin and Scott. The Public Worship Regulation Act, 1874, failed to suppress the return to pre-Reformation usages known as "Ritualism," though several clergymen were imprisoned under it. Archbishop Benson's judgment in the Bishop of Lincoln's case (delivered November 21, 1890; confirmed on appeal to the judicial committee, August 2, 1892) has increased the latitude permissible in ritual.

Far the best account of the seventeenth-century movement will be found in S. R. Gardiner, "History of England, 1603–42," edn. 1903. See also Blunt, "Reformation of Church of England," ii; Church on "Andrewes" in "Masters in English Theology"; Mozley on Laud in his "Essays." The most characteristic writings of the time are Montagu, "Appello Cæsarem," 1625; Prynne, "Survey of Mr. Cozins his Cozening Devotions," 1628; Heylin, "Coal from the Altar," replied to in Williams's "Holy Table, Name, and Thing," 1637; Laud, "Diary"; Prynne, "Canterbury's Doom," 1646. For the eighteenth century see C. H. Abbey and J. H. Overton, "English Church of the Eighteenth Century," 2 vols., 1878. For the nineteenth, J. A. Froude, "The Oxford Counter-Reformation," in "Short Studies," 4 ser.; "Tracts for the Times," 1833–41; Palmer, "Narrative of Events," 1843; W. G. Ward, "Ideal of a Christian Church," 1844; Newman, "Apologia," 1864; Coleridge, "Memoir of Keble," 1869; Ashwell and Wilberforce, "Life of Bishop Wilberforce"; Mozley, "Reminiscences of Oriel"; Stanley, "Essays on Church and State"; Church, "Oxford Movement"; J. W. Cornish, "English Church in the 19th Century," 1910.

High Commission, The Court of, was the name given to a judicial committee instituted in the reign of Elizabeth to investigate ecclesiastical cases. Edward VI and Mary frequently had recourse to the plan of exercising their jurisdiction in ecclesiastical matters through special commissioners. General commissions were issued by Edward in 1549 and 1551 to a number of royal councillors, theologians, and lawyers, to inquire into heresy and nonconformity, and a somewhat similar commission appeared in 1557, though in this case it was restricted to inquiry, and further action was left to the bishops' courts. The statute (1 Eliz. c. 1) restoring the royal jurisdiction in matters ecclesiastical empowered the queen to nominate commissioners to exercise this power; accordingly two months later (July 1559) a commission was directed to inquire, "as well by the oaths of twelve good and lawful men, as also by witnesses, and *other ways and means ye can devise,*" into offences against the Acts of Supremacy and Uniformity, heresy, adulteries, and other ecclesiastical crimes. The subsequent commissions were drawn on the model of this one. In the reign of James I frequent disputes arose with the common-law courts as to the limits of the power of the High Commission; in 1611 Coke laid down that it had no right to fine or imprison, except in cases of heresy and schism. During the whole of its existence the court busied itself in enforcing uniformity. It was abolished by the Long Parliament (July 1641). In spite of the act of 1641, and that of 1661 confirming it, James II created a new Court of Commission for ecclesiastical causes (1686). It was abolished by the Bill of Rights.

J. R. Tanner, "Tudor Constitutional Documents," 1923; R. G. Usher, "Rise and Fall of the High Commission," 1913.

High Court of Justice, The (Ireland), was established in 1652. It was intended that it should try all Catholics who had shed Protestant blood, otherwise than in open battle, since 1641. Altogether some 200 persons were convicted.

High Treason. [Treason, The Law of.]

Highlands, The, of Scotland, in a strictly geographical sense seem to begin in the south near Loch Lomond, and thence to be separated from the Lowlands by the great valley of Strathmore. But from an historical point of view the word must be considered to embrace the Celtic-speaking part of Scotland. In the eighth century there appear to have been seven provinces, each ruled by its own *ri*, or king, who had a sub-king dependent on him. The names of these provinces (with the sub-provinces also), so far as can now be ascertained, were (1) Angus and Mearns, (2) Atholl and Gowrie, (3) Strathearn and Menteith, (4) Fife and Fothreve, (5) Mar and Buchan, (6) Moray and Ross, (7) Caithness and Sutherland. Under the kings of Alban and of Scotia (889–1092) we have still seven provinces bearing more or less relation to the earlier seven. At this period these provinces are no longer ruled by kings and sub-kings, but each has its own mormaer, or great steward. Meanwhile, in the extreme north, Harold Harfagr had, about the year 890, given the Orkneys to Jarl Sigurd to be held subject to the King of Norway. By the end of the tenth century the earls of Orkney had conquered all the country north of the Spey. But when Sigurd of Orkney was slain at the battle of Clontarf (1014) (q.v.), while the Orkney Isles passed to his elder sons, to be held of the king of Norway, we read that his younger son, Thorfinn, was sent to Malcolm's court, and there invested with the jarldoms of Caithness and Sunderland. But Moray and Ross now fell off from both Norse and Scots dependency, and were ruled by their own *ri*, Finleikr. By the time of Duncan's accession (1034) Thorfinn had united the Orkneys to his original jarldom of Caithness, and the Scottish king attempted to confer the latter province on his nephew Moddan, and even went so far as to support his right by arms. It was on this occasion

that Macbeth, the Mormaer or Ri of Moray, deserted, and perhaps murdered the Scots king (1040). Scotland was now divided between Thorfinn and Macbeth. It was probably on the death of Thorfinn (c. 1057) that Duncan's son, Malcolm Canmore, was able to drive back Macbeth. About the same time the other earldoms of Thorfinn seem to have been recovered by their native mormaers, subject probably to vague claims on the part of Malcolm as *ard ri* or head-king. It is during the years 1107 and 1124, when Malcolm's son Alexander was reigning over the Celtic part of Scotland north of the Forth, that we come across the first mention of the seven earls—four of whom certainly, and probably all seven, represented the old mormaers who, having lost their original title of *ri*, were now changing their later one for the Latin *comes*. During the reign of David I (1124–53) Moray rose in rebellion under its mormaer, Angus, but the rising was suppressed and the province was far more firmly than ever united to the Scottish crown. Ross was thoroughly subdued by William the Lion in 1179, though an attempt was made a few years later to separate the districts north of the Tay from the rest of Scotland by setting up a new king, Donald Bane MacWilliam, who combined in his own person Norse blood with that of Malcolm Canmore. After the suppression of this insurrection (1187) William forced Harold, Earl of Orkney and Caithness, to acknowledge his dependence on the Scottish king as regards the half of the latter province by the payment of 2,000 merks (1202); while Sutherland, the other half, ultimately became an earldom in the family of De Freshin of Moray (1230). On the death of the last Norwegian Earl of Caithness, in 1231, his lands were divided between the last-mentioned family and that of the Earl of Angus. Lastly, about the year 1232, the sole remaining Celtic province of Argyll seems to have submitted to Alexander II. But, though the whole county was now nominally subject to one king, yet there was a broad line of demarcation between that part of Scotland which had become thoroughly feudalized, and had been so long subject to the head-king at Scone or Edinburgh, and the Celtic-speaking districts of the north and west. In 1411 Donald, Lord of the Isles, who claimed the earldom of Moray, was defeated by the Earl of Mar at the great battle of Harlaw (q.v.), which seems to have finally checked the dangers threatened by the growth of this Celtic and Highland power. From this time onwards the incursions of the Highlanders on the Lowlands were limited to occasional plundering raids. Till the eighteenth century the Highland districts remained a province inhabited by an alien and semi-barbarous people; and though nominally part of the kingdom of Scotland, it was in fact ruled by the various tribal chiefs under their own laws and customs. In the wars of the seventeenth century the Highlanders were easily enlisted on the side of the Stuarts against the Covenanters; and they made the last stand both under Montrose and Dundee. After the suppression of the rebellion of 1715, a determined attempt was made to break up the tribal organization. Acts were passed (1716 and 1725) ordering the Highlanders to be disarmed, and the disarmament was effected by General Wade (1725). The same officer also completed between 1726 and 1737 the great military roads through the Highlands, by means of which, together with a chain of fortified military posts, a vigorous police was established, and plundering stopped. A happy idea was conceived of utilizing the military instincts of the Highlanders for the service of the country, and regiments of Highland troops were embodied in the regular army. In 1746 the national dress was prohibited in the Highlands by act of parliament (19 Geo. II, c. 39, repealed 22 Geo. III, c. 63). Under the influence of these measures the Highlands gradually became as peaceable and orderly as the rest of Scotland, and by the beginning of the nineteenth century little was left to mark their distinctive character except the survival in many districts of the native language.

P. Hume Brown, "History of Scotland," 1911; C. S. Terry, "History of Scotland," 1920.

[T. A. A.]

Hill, Rowland, 1st Lord Hill (1772–1842), second son of Sir John Hill, a Shropshire baronet, was educated at Chester, and at sixteen entered the army. He was sent as secretary on a diplomatic mission to Genoa, whence he proceeded to Toulon, and acted during the siege as aide-de-camp to Lord Mulgrave, and afterwards to David Dundas. He was wounded, and, returning to England, was soon promoted to be lieutenant-colonel of the 90th, with which he went to Egypt (1801). In the battle of Alexandria he was severely wounded. In 1805 he became a major-general, and was dispatched to the Peninsula on the first outbreak of war. He served at Roliça and Vimeiro, and at Corunna commanded Sir John Moore's reserve. In 1811 he succeeded to the command of General Paget's corps, and continued to be one of Wellington's most trustworthy officers. He was present in high command at nearly all the battles of the war, and always acquitted himself well on the many occasions on which Wellington entrusted him with a separate command. After his success at Almaraz, where he destroyed the enemy's works after a most desperate resistance, he was raised to the peerage (May 1814). He afterwards served at Waterloo, was personally thanked by Wellington for his services there and elsewhere, and was second in command of the army of occupation in France in 1815. He was appointed commander-in-chief in 1828. He was a brave and able soldier, beloved and entirely trusted by his men, with whom his relations are

best understood by the nickname which they gave him of "Daddy Hill."

Sir C. Oman, "Peninsular War," 1902–20.

Hill, Sir Rowland (1795–1879), was born at Kidderminster. In early life he was a schoolmaster. His attention had been directed to the question of Australian colonization, and, as secretary to Gilbert Wakefield's scheme for settling that country, he wrote a pamphlet on "Home Colonies." It was in 1837 that he issued his paper on "Post Office Reform." By a series of careful investigations and calculations he had arrived at the conclusion that, as the chief expenses of letter-carrying were not in the carriage itself but in the distribution of the letters, the distance might be disregarded, and a uniform charge made for the conveyance of all home letters to any distance. He also showed how the almost nominal charge of one penny for every half-ounce would, in view of the great increase in correspondence likely to ensue on such a reduction of cost, yield an ample profit on the transaction; and, at the same time, he suggested the use of postage-stamps. Despite the opposition offered to so entirely novel a scheme, a committee was appointed by the House of Commons to investigate the question (1837); and when Rowland Hill's proposals received its approbation, a bill was at once brought in for carrying out the new project (1839). On January 10, 1840, the penny rate was inaugurated. Rowland Hill was appointed to an office in the treasury, for the purpose of superintending the execution of his reforms, but had to retire in 1842, when the Liberals were out of office. In 1846 he was presented with £13,000, as a mark of public gratitude, and when the Liberals returned to office in the same year he was made secretary to the postmaster-general. In 1860 he was knighted, and when he resigned through ill-health (1864) he was allowed to retain his full salary of £2,000 a year.

Biography by E. C. Smyth, 1907.

Hoadly, Benjamin (1676–1761), successively Bishop of Bangor, Hereford, Salisbury, and Winchester, was educated at Catharine Hall, Cambridge. When he removed to London he appeared as the antagonist of Calamy on the question of conformity, and of Bishop Atterbury on that of non-resistance. He was a staunch Low Churchman. In 1705 he was attacked in the House of Lords by the Bishop of London for having advocated the duty of resistance and countenanced rebellion, in a sermon preached before the lord mayor. Burnet, in reply to this speaker, told him that he was the last person who ought to complain of the sermon in question. A few years later Hoadly was one of the most prominent opponents of Dr. Sacheverell (q.v.). In 1715 he was appointed Bishop of Bangor, and next year published his famous tract against the Non-jurors. This was quickly followed (1717) by the issue of his sermon on the Kingdom of Christ, printed by royal command. Both these works were devoted to questioning the divine authority of the king and the clergy, and were the occasion of the famous Bangorian Controversy. The matter was at once taken up by convocation, and led to such wrangling and discord that this body was suddenly prorogued by the government. From this time (1717) till the year 1852 convocation was allowed to meet only as a matter of form. Dr. Hoadly was translated to the sees of Hereford, Salisbury, and Winchester in the years 1721, 1723, and 1734 respectively, and died at Chelsea.

Hobbes, Thomas (1588–1679), was educated at Oxford, where he took his degree as bachelor of arts in 1608. The same year he was appointed tutor to the eldest son of the future Earl of Devonshire, and accompanied his pupil in his continental tour. Before the year 1620 he seems to have become acquainted with Francis Bacon, and was employed by him on the Latin version of the "Essays." In 1631 he undertook the education of the new Earl of Devonshire, his former pupil's son. While abroad with this boy he made the acquaintance of Galileo, and spent several months at Paris, returning home in 1637. It was about this time that he began his philosophic career. In 1642 the "De Cive" was printed; in 1650 his "De Corpore Politico" (English in everything but its title), and in 1651 the "Leviathan," which made him famous. Charles II, who had once been Hobbes's pupil in mathematics, gave his old teacher a pension of £100 a year after the Restoration, and hung his portrait in his private room. After the Great Fire of London a bill levelled against the "Leviathan" was introduced into the House of Commons, and passed early in the next year (1667). The "Behemoth," or history of the Civil War, was published 1679, just before its author's death, but without his consent. The last years of his life were spent in Derbyshire; and his literary labours were continued till the very end, in the quiet of the country. Hobbes's influence on philosophical thought has been equalled by few English writers. Even greater has been his influence upon political and ethical speculation. He aimed at finding a scientific explanation for the phenomena of man in society, and this gave an impulse to a movement of thought which has been followed by English thinkers ever since. His main political conception was that of the right of all men to seek their own happiness, and their tendency to seek it, even at the expense of their fellows. In a state of nature the selfishness of every man would have free play, and would be limited only by the selfishness of others. The state of nature, therefore, would be a state of warfare and of suffering. Government had been instituted to limit this; and government in its perfect form should have absolute control over civil, moral, and ecclesiastical affairs alike.

The demonstration of the supremacy and irresponsibility of the sovereign power in a state, which is one of the most remarkable features in his philosophy, caused Hobbes to be often classed with the defenders of despotism, and roused against him the champions of constitutionalism and of ecclesiastical freedom in his own day; but at a later time the conception formed the foundation of the theory of utilitarian legislation, which was worked into a regular system by the school of Bentham (q.v.).

The works of Hobbes have been edited by Sir W. Molesworth, 16 vols., London, 1839–45; biographies by G. E. G. Catlin, 1922, and Sir Leslie Stephen, 1904.

[S. L.]

Hobhouse, John Cam, Lord Broughton (1786–1869), the eldest son of Sir Benjamin Hobhouse, was an intimate friend of Lord Byron, accompanying him on his travels in 1809, and during his first visit to Turkey and Greece. He adopted advanced Liberal views in politics, and was a zealous advocate of parliamentary reform. In 1816 he wrote a work called "Letters written by an English Gentleman resident at Paris," which gave great offence to the English government. In December 1819, in consequence of one of these letters, which was declared a breach of privilege by the Commons, he was arrested and imprisoned in Newgate, but was liberated a few weeks after, when parliament was dissolved by the death of George IV, in 1820. The same year he was elected with Sir F. Burdett member for Westminster. In 1832 he joined Earl Grey's government as secretary for war. In 1833 he was appointed chief secretary for Ireland; and in 1834 chief commissioner of woods and forests. He was president of the board of control from 1835 to 1841; and again from 1846 to 1852. He succeeded to the baronetcy in 1831; and was raised to the peerage as Baron Broughton in 1851.

Broughton's Autobiography, 6 vols., 1909.

Holkar is the family name of one of the chief dynasties of Mahratta princes, ruling, since 1736, the principality of Indore. In 1774 Tuckagi Holkar took a prominent part in the war against the British. He was defeated by Colonel Goddard in 1782, and subsequently joined the British alliance against Tippoo Sahib.

Holkar, Jeswunt Rao (*d.* 1811), was a turbulent freebooter who allied with the British troops in India to win the battle of Poona (1802) against the Peshwa and Sindhia. He then rejected the British alliance, besieged Delhi (1804), and was chased by Lake and his army dissipated. The Treaty of Raipur Ghaut (1806) was forced on him, but Sir John Shore permitted him to plunder in Rajputana, where domestic intrigues drove him mad and he died in 1811.

J. C. Grant Duff, "Mahrattas," edn. of 1918.

Holland, Henry, Duke of Exeter (*d.* 1475), was the son of John, Duke of Exeter. He was one of the principal leaders of the Lancastrian party, though he married Anne, daughter of Richard, Duke of York. He fought in the battles of Blore Heath, Northampton, St. Albans, and Towton, and after Towton he escaped to Scotland, and was attainted by Edward IV. He fled to Flanders, where, according to Froissart, he was in such abject poverty that he was obliged to beg his bread in the streets. He afterwards returned to England and fought in the battle of Barnet, where he was left for dead on the field. He recovered, and was apparently set at liberty after several years' imprisonment, to participate in the expedition to France in 1475. He was drowned between Calais and Dover when returning from this expedition.

Holland, Thomas (*d.* 1400), was the eldest son of the Earl of Kent, and nephew of Richard II. In 1397 he was made Duke of Surrey, but was degraded by Henry IV in 1399 as a partisan of the deposed king. In 1400, being implicated in a plot against Henry IV, he was beheaded.

Holland, Henry Rich, 1st Earl of (1590–1649). [Rich.]

Holland, Barons. [Fox.]

Holland, Relations with. The name Holland, properly belonging to the Imperial county of that name, which subsequently became the leading state of the Republic of Seven United Provinces, is commonly used loosely for the United Provinces as a whole; and, though the official title of the modern kingdom is the Kingdom of the Netherlands, the same inexact designation is still applied to it. With the mediæval county of Holland the relations of England were frequent and friendly. Count William I fought for Otto IV at Bouvines, and, subsequently changing sides, followed Louis, the son of Philip II, to England in 1215. Floris V established intimate relations with Edward I, got the wool-staple placed at Dort, and secured fishing rights on the English coast. But in 1296 he reverted to the French connexion. His son, John I, restored the alliance by his marriage with a daughter of Edward I. The new Hainault line was again closely bound to England by the marriage of Philippa, daughter of William III, to Edward III (1328). On his son's death in 1345, Edward and Philippa made an ineffectual attempt to seize the country. In the next century the attempt of Humphrey of Gloucester to win Holland and the counties attached to it for his wife Jacqueline was the means of breaking up the Anglo-Burgundian alliance which had given the English mastery of France. On his failure, Holland became included in the Burgundian dominions, which the accession of Charles V transferred to Spain. Burgundy and Spain were both English allies, and so the old friendship was kept up. Intimate commercial relations still further tightened the bonds of union between the two countries.

The Reformation, which broke up the alliance of England and Spain, led to the revolt of the Protestants of Holland from the absolutism and Catholicism of the Spanish monarchy. England, under Elizabeth, was also engaged in a life-and-death struggle with Spain. This ultimately compelled the queen, despite her reluctance both to help rebels against their sovereign and to take a decided Protestant line, to afford the revolted Hollanders very material assistance. At first English help took the form of secret subvention or popular subscriptions, or of the willing bands of volunteers who flocked to join a Protestant cause. Subsequently the queen assisted the Dutch in a more formal way. Elizabeth's first decided intervention began with the lavish grants to her lover, the Duke of Anjou, who aspired to lead the southern provinces of the Netherlands, but on his disastrous failure, and the murder of William the Silent in 1584, Elizabeth, though declining the proffered sovereignty of the Seven Provinces, sent her favourite Leicester as governor-general with a small army, receiving in return some "cautionary towns." In 1586 Sidney fell at Zutphen (q.v.). In 1587 Leicester's incompetence necessitated his recall. In 1588 the Dutch did good service by blocking up in their ports the army of Parma which the great Armada (q.v.) hoped to land in England. Up to the date of Elizabeth's death relations with the Hollanders continued cordial, and materially assisted their efforts for liberty.

With James I a new epoch began. That monarch's peace with Spain was followed by the restitution of the cautionary towns, and the growing theological differences between the two countries and the increasing rivalry between English and Dutch merchants produced a deeply-rooted and enduring hostility. When the Twelve Years' Truce with Spain (1609–21) came to an end, James's sympathies were altogether Spanish. Holland found in France the protector she had lost in England. The Amboyna massacre (1623) was but the prelude to a long struggle of the two naval powers in the East Indies. The eventful marriage of the Stadtholder, Frederick Henry, with Mary, daughter of Charles I (1641) rather increased than diminished the hostility of England and Holland. Flushed with the glorious recognition of their liberty by the Treaties of Westphalia (1648), the Dutch plunged into their famous naval war with England. The passing by the Long Parliament of the Navigation Act (q.v. —1651) dealt a deadly blow at the Dutch carrying trade, and the war which ensued, from 1651 to 1654, was on the whole unfavourable to Holland. The restoration of the Stuarts, closely followed by the re-enactment of the Navigation Act, rather intensified the opposition of the Amsterdam oligarchs to their commercial rival. The second war (1665–7) was on the whole favourable to the Dutch, though the Treaty of Breda (q.v.) lost them New Amsterdam. In 1667 the two powers united to check Louis XIV by the Triple Alliance; but in 1670 Charles II signed a treaty with France to partition Holland, as Charles I had nearly forty years earlier concluded a similar treaty with Spain. In 1672 Charles joined Louis in his great attack on Holland. But common political hostility to the tyrant of Europe now proved so strong a bond of union between England and Holland that even commercial rivalry was powerless to separate them. The restoration of the house of Orange personally united the two courts; and the marriage of William III with Mary of York (1667) completed the alliance. The Revolution which brought William to England made it indissoluble. Henceforward the "Maritime Powers," as Great Britain and Holland were now called, had a common policy and common interests. Marlborough simply continued the work of William of Orange. But the narrow basis of Dutch prosperity now began to show itself. It was perhaps only because Great Britain had won the commercial race that her alliance with Holland had become possible. Though the Treaty of Utrecht (q.v.) gave the Dutch all they could wish, they gradually sank into a decided condition of dependence on their great ally. It was British influence, now extended to internal affairs, that made William IV, the son-in-law of George II, Stadtholder in 1747. But George's grandson, William V, was a weak ruler; and despite his sympathy with George III, the rising Dutch democracy, which warmly supported the American colonists, insisted on Holland adopting the "Armed Neutrality" (q.v.—1780), and rushed into a naval war with Great Britain. But the glory of Holland had now departed, and the States willingly accepted an inglorious peace in 1783 [Versailles]. In 1787 the British and Prussians combined to restore the Stadtholder, an act which led directly to the conquest of Holland by the French Republic, with the approbation of the Dutch democracy. Holland was forced to lend its naval strength to France, and remained in antagonism to Great Britain until 1815. It was largely through British influence that the Congress of Vienna erected Holland and Belgium into a kingdom under the house of Orange. In 1830, after the revolt of Belgium, Great Britain and France blockaded the Dutch ports, and insisted on the signature of the Convention of London in 1833, giving Belgium independence. The territory had been determined, and its neutrality guaranteed by the five great powers in 1831. [This settlement was not recognized by Holland until 1839.]

T. L. Motley, "Rise of the Dutch Republic," 2 vols., edn. 1906; G. Edmundson, "History of Holland," 1922; S. R. Gardiner (ed.), "Letters and Papers relating to the First Dutch War," 4 vols., 1904 (Navy Records Society); G. Edmundson, "Anglo-Dutch Rivalry, 1600–53," 1911.

[T. F. T.]

Holles, Denzil, Lord (1599–1680), was the younger son of John Holles, 1st Earl of Clare. On entering parliament (1624) he joined the

popular party, and was one of the most ardent opponents of Buckingham. On March 2, 1629, when the Speaker was about to adjourn the House in obedience to the king's order, Holles forced him back into his chair, for which act he was fined a thousand marks and imprisoned. At the opening of the Long Parliament he was much valued and esteemed by the whole popular party. In the year 1644 he was one of the commissioners sent to Oxford to negotiate with the king; similarly at Uxbridge in 1645. He showed himself very anxious to effect a reconciliation, and was consequently accused of treachery by Lord Savile. Holles was the leader of the Presbyterian party in their contest with the Independents and with the army. In August 1647 he was excluded from the House of Commons, returned to share the short triumph of the Presbyterians, and was forced again to take refuge in Normandy, and to console himself by attacking Cromwell in his "Memoirs." Holles reappeared in parliament in 1659, and was spokesman of the deputation of the Commons sent to Breda. Six months later he sat in the court which judged the regicides, and was raised to the peerage by the title of Baron Holles in 1661. In 1663 he was sent as ambassador to Paris, recalled in 1666, and negotiated the Treaty of Breda in 1667, but utterly disapproved of the foreign policy of Charles. "Save what the government of the Parliament did," he wrote, "we have not taken one true step or struck one true stroke, since Queen Elizabeth's time." His last public act was to vote for the acquittal of Lord Stafford (1680). He died February 17, 1680.

"Memoirs" published in Masere's "Tracts."

Holy Alliance, The, was formed by a treaty concluded at Paris on September 26, 1815, between Alexander I, Emperor of Russia, Francis I, Emperor of Austria, and Frederick William I, King of Prussia, without the intervention of their ministers. The Emperor of Russia was the instigator of the step, and he is supposed to have taken it under the influence of Madame Krudener, a visionary pietist. The main points of the agreement were as follows: (1) European Christendom was regarded as forming a single family; "the only principle either between governments or subjects is to regard themselves as members of the same Christian nation, the three allied princes considering themselves as delegated by Providence to govern three branches of the same family." (2) Three states, representing three forms of Christianity, the Greek Church, the Roman Church, and Protestantism, were asked to rise above their differences, and to form a union depending on their common agreement. (3) Christianity was proclaimed as the foundation of all government and all civilization, "the sublime truths which are taught us by the eternal religion of a God Saviour." "The present act has no other object than to show in the face of the universe the determination to adopt no other rule of conduct, either in the administration of government, or in the political relations with other governments, than the precepts of this holy religion, precepts of justice, charity, and peace," which were as well fitted to guide the public acts of princes as they were to guide the lives of private persons, and the only means to consolidate human institutions and remedy their imperfections. (4) The three sovereigns declared themselves bound together by the ties of a true and indissoluble fraternity. (5) They were to consider themselves in the light of fathers to their subjects. The treaty was offered for signature to all European powers, except the pope and the sultan. Great Britain alone declined to accede to it, but the Prince Regent declared his personal adherence to its principles. [O. B.]

[For over ten years the policy of the so-called "Holy Alliance" was a dominant factor in European relations. It took visible shape in the congresses of Aix-la-Chapelle (1817), Troppau and Laibach (1820–1), and Verona (1822). By declining to countenance French intervention in Spain Canning dealt the congress system a severe blow, and definitely withdrew Great Britain from the "Concert of Europe" into a policy of non-intervention hostile to the paternal interference of the three autocrats. In 1827 he destroyed the alliance by joining Russia to Great Britain and France in the Treaty of London (q.v.).]

Text of Treaty in "Encyclopædia Britannica," xiii, 621, 1911; W. Alison Philips, "Confederation of Europe," 1914; C. K. Webster, "Foreign Policy of Castlereagh, 1815–22," 1924; H. W. V. Temperley, "Foreign Policy of Canning, 1822–7," 1925.

[A. C. F. B.]

Holyrood Abbey was founded by David I in 1128. It was plundered by the English in 1332 and 1385, and destroyed by Hertford in 1544. The foundation was suppressed in 1547. *Holyrood Palace* was made a royal residence by James V in 1528, and became the dwelling-place of the kings of Scotland. It was the scene of the murder of Rizzio in 1566. Charles I was crowned there in 1633. In 1650 it was partly destroyed by Cromwell's troops. In 1745 it was for a short time occupied by the Young Pretender and in 1830 by the exiled Charles X of France. After being allowed to fall almost into ruins it was repaired in 1850, and again in 1903.

Homage (*homagium*, sometimes *hominium* from *homo*, through the earlier Latin form *hominaticum*) was that profession of feudal subjection which the vassal (*homo*) made to his lord on receiving a fief from his hands. It could only be received by the lord himself. With solemn ceremonies the vassal uncovered his head, laid aside sword and spear, and knelt before his suzerain, and, placing his hands between those of the lord, formally declared, "I become your man for the lands which I hold of you, and will be faithful to you against all men, saving the fealty which I owe to my

lord the king." The oath of fealty and the grant of the fief followed the formula of homage. Every free feudal tenant on acquiring his property was compelled to do homage to his lord. Besides *liege* or unconditional *homage*, as mentioned above, there was also *simple homage*. If a tenant held land of several different lords, he could only perform liege homage, and swear unconditional fealty to one—his liege lord. This was usually the lord who had made the oldest of the feoffments. Homage to the others had to be done, saving the faith due to the liege. There was also a homage that involved no feudal duties, such as the Palatine earls proffered to the English kings, or such as the great peers of France or the Duke of Normandy performed to the King of France (*homagium per paragium*).

Home Office, The, was created in 1782 when the conduct of foreign affairs, hitherto shared between the two secretaries for the northern and southern departments, passed wholly to the secretary for the northern department [Foreign Office]. The secretary for the southern department was known henceforth as the home secretary. His business included Irish and colonial matters until the addition of a new secretary of state in 1794 [Colonial Office]. The home secretary is responsible chiefly for the maintenance of the king's peace, the administration of criminal justice, police and prisons, and the enforcement of rules laid down to safeguard national safety and national health. His departmental staff includes a permanent and parliamentary undersecretary, several assistant under-secretaries, and clerks.

List of Home Secretaries

[For dates prior to 1782 see Colonial Office.]

Earl of Shelburne	March 1782
T. Townshend	July 1782
Lord North	April 1783
Earl Temple	Dec. 1783
Lord Sidney	Dec. 1783
W. W. Grenville	June 1789
H. Dundas	June 1791
Duke of Portland	July 1794
Lord Hawksbury	May 1804
Earl Spencer	Feb. 1806
Lord Hawksbury	March 1807
Earl of Liverpool	1808
R. Ryder	Oct. 1809
Viscount Sidmouth	Jan. 1812
Robert Peel	Jan. 1822
W. S. Bourne	April 1827
Marquis of Lansdowne	July 1827
Sir Robert Peel	Jan. 1828
Viscount Melbourne	Nov. 1830
Viscount Duncannon	July 1834
H. Goulburn	Dec. 1834
Lord John Russell	April 1835
Marquis of Normanby	Sept. 1839
Sir J. Graham	Sept. 1841
Sir G. Grey	July 1846
Spencer H. Walpole	Feb. 1852
Viscount Palmerston	Dec. 1852
Sir G. Grey	Feb. 1855
Spencer H. Walpole	Feb. 1858
J. H. S. Escourt	Feb. 1859
Sir G. C. Lewis	June 1859
Sir G. Grey	July 1861
S. H. Walpole	June 1866
Gathorne Hardy	May 1867
H. A. Bruce	Dec. 1868
R. Lowe	Aug. 1873
R. A. Cross	Feb. 1874
Sir W. V. Harcourt	April 1880
Sir R. A. Cross	July 1885
H. C. E. Childers	Feb. 1886
H. Matthews	Aug. 1886
H. H. Asquith	Aug. 1892
Sir H. M. White-Ridley	June 1895
Marquis of Lansdowne	Nov. 1900
C. T. Ritchie	July 1902
A. Akers-Douglas	Aug. 1902
H. J. Gladstone	Dec. 1905
W. L. S. Churchill	Feb. 1910
R. McKenna	Oct. 1911
H. L. Samuel	Jan. 1916
Sir G. Cave	Dec. 1916
Edward Shortt	Jan. 1919
W. C. Bridgeman	Oct. 1922
A. Henderson	Jan. 1924
Sir W. Joynson-Hicks	Nov. 1924

Home Rule Movement. [Ireland.]

Homildon Hill, The Battle of (September 1402), was fought near Wooler in Northumberland, between a marauding party of Scots under Douglas, and an English force under the Percys. The victory was won for the English by the archers, there being little or no fighting at close quarters.

Homilies, The Book of. In the year 1542 convocation decided to issue "certain homilies for the stay of such errors as were then by ignorant preachers spread among the people," and this determination resulted in the publication of a volume of sermons, fitted to be delivered by preachers whose ability and knowledge were not equal to the task of writing their own discourses (1547). A reprint of this volume appeared in 1560. The leading writers of this first Book of Homilies appear to have been Cranmer, Hooper, and Latimer, but one or two of the sermons, at least, were borrowed from earlier publications. The second Book of Homilies was published in 1563.

Honduras, British, on the east coast of Central America, is a British colony with a semi-responsible government. It was discovered by Columbus (1502) and was for many years in the nominal possession of Spain. In 1630 the Earl of Warwick formed a settlement on the adjacent island of Providence and spasmodic attempts were made on the Mosquito coast, whose natives were afforded British protection by treaty. From 1638 British logwood adventurers occupied the coast and resisted Spanish attempts to dislodge them until in 1670 the Spaniards recognized their right to the Laguna de Terminos and part of Yucatan. The Spanish attempt (1717) to drive out the British resulted in a desultory war. From 1749 superintendents were nominated by the governors of Jamaica to regulate the coast settlements, where a rude form of popular government by assembly had sprung up. In 1783, by the Treaty of Versailles, Spain recognized a district as open to British logwood cutters, while by the Convention of London (1786) the British were to evacuate the Mosquito coast and adjacent islands, but this was never enforced. Spanish attacks in 1796

and 1798 were repulsed and British possession was not again challenged, though Britain relinquished her claim to the Mosquito coast protection by the Clayton-Bulwer Treaty of 1850 (q.v.). The resolutions of the general assemblies of all the colonists were in 1765 given the force of law, and from 1786 the intendant became a Crown appointment, except for a period of seven years from 1790 when elective magistrates ruled. The colonists quarrelled with the intendants from about 1830 until an executive council was introduced in 1839 and a legislative council of 18 elected and 3 nominated members in 1853. In 1862 Honduras was made a colony subordinate to Jamaica, in 1870 became a Crown colony, and its dependence on Jamaica severed in 1884. The legislative council which replaced the assembly in 1870, of 5 officials and 4 unofficial members, was altered in 1913 to consist of 7 unofficial members out of a council of 12. The executive council consists of 3 officials and 3 others.

A. P. Newton, "The Colonizing Activities of the Early English Puritans," 1912; C. H. Haring, "Buccaneers in the West Indies in the Seventeenth Century," 1910; G. W. Prothero (ed.), "British Honduras"; "Foreign Office Peace Handbook," No. 133; J. A. Burdon, "Brief Sketch of British Honduras," 1927.

[H. R.]

Hong Kong, a British Crown colony at the mouth of the Canton River, consisting of the island ceded in 1841 and confirmed by the Treaty of Nankin (1842), the peninsula of Kowloon on the mainland ceded in 1860 by the Peking treaty, and the Kowloon New Territory by the agreement of 1898. Ceded as a desolate island, the discovery of Australian gold (1851), the opening of the Suez Canal, and the opening of Japanese and Chinese markets have made Hong Kong one of the greatest free ports in the world. At the Washington Conference in 1921 the Chinese delegates asked for the surrender of all mainland leases of territory to foreign powers. Mr. Balfour refused to leave Hong Kong defenceless by ceding Kowloon, and in July 1925 Chinese dissatisfaction culminated in a nationalist boycott against all extra-territorial concessions. In 1926 British troops were dispatched to protect British interests and subjects there.

Sir E. Hertslet, "Treaties Between Great Britain and China and China and Foreign Powers," 1896; "Colonial Possessions Report, No. 84"; "Hong Kong General Chamber of Commerce Report," 1925; "China Year Book."

[H. R.]

Honorius, Archbishop of Canterbury (627–53), was one of the companions of Augustine, and was famous for his skill in music. On the death of Justus he succeeded to the archbishopric. During his long tenure of office the conversion of Northumbria was completed by the Celtic missionaries; Wessex was evangelized by Birinus; and Felix was commissioned to bring back the apostate East Angles to the fold. Honorius does not appear, however, to have exercised jurisdiction outside Kent.

Honour. The terms "honour" and "barony" were alternatively used in the Middle Ages to describe the lands held by the greater tenants-in-chief of the Crown. No hard-and-fast distinction can be drawn between them, although Maitland held that of the two, the latter was the more comprehensive. The name "honour" seems to have been applied only to lay estates of the highest rank and importance, and is seldom or never found in connexion with the lands of bishops or abbots, however great their extent. An honour is perhaps best defined, in Maitland's words, as "a mass of lands" or "a complex of knights' fees" "which from of old have been held by a single title." It was a unit as regards both its internal economy and its external relationships. However much the lands comprising it were partitioned among co-heirs, it remained in theory a single whole, and the co-parceners were said to hold a moiety or a third part, as the case might be, of the honour of X. In the same way it retained its separate identity if it passed into the hands of another lord, or even if it escheated to the Crown, and a careful distinction was made between lands held of the king "ut de corona" and those held of him "ut de escaeta" or "ut de honore." The tenants of such escheats continued to enjoy the status of subvassals, and could not be subjected to the burdens and responsibilities of tenants-in-chief (Magna Carta, c. 43). For purposes of administration the honour was organized as a unit under its own hierarchy of officials, and even on the judicial side the idea of unity might find expression in an honorial court dispensing justice to the free tenants of the fief. The principle of honorial jurisdiction Maitland regarded as fully recognized in mediæval England, although, perhaps because of the peculiar position of the Crown and of royal justice in this country, it was never universally applied. The honour court of Dunster was a well-authenticated instance of such jurisdictional solidarity. In the external relationships of the honour a similar emphasis on unity is apparent. It constituted, for some purposes at least, an administrative area, and its lord fulfilled some of the functions of an administrative official. He collected and paid into the exchequer his feudal dues and incidents by the hand of his steward or bailiff instead of through the medium of the sheriff; and he was entitled to be summoned by an individual writ to perform the "servitium debitum" of his fee in the king's army, or to do suit at the king's court; and he led his tenants in person under his own banner in the feudal host. In the post-mediæval period, and especially after the dissolution of the monasteries had placed large areas of land at the disposal of the Crown, honours were sometimes created by act of parliament. By this means, in 33 Henry VIII, Ampthill, Grafton, and Hampton Court were established; four years later Henry was empowered to make Westminster

and Kingston-upon-Hull honours if he so willed. [Baron.]

Sir H. C. Maxwell Lyte, "The Honour of Dunster," 1918; W. Farrer, "Honours and Knights' Fees," 3 vols., 1923, etc.; Pollock and Maitland, "History of English Law"; W. S. Holdsworth, "History of English Law."

Hood, Alexander, 1st Viscount Bridport (1726–1814), entered the navy, became a lieutenant in 1746, and post-captain in 1756. In 1758 he served under Admiral Saunders in the Mediterranean, and under Sir Edward Hawke in the Channel. In 1766 he was appointed treasurer of Greenwich Hospital. In 1778 he took an active share in the engagement off Ushant. In September 1780 he was appointed rear-admiral of the white, and in 1782 commanded the centre squadron of the fleet sent out under Lord Howe to relieve Gibraltar. On February 1, 1793, he became vice-admiral of the red; and on the very next day France declared war. On June 1, 1794, the division of the Channel fleet commanded by Lord Howe attacked and utterly defeated the French fleet off Ushant. In this action Hood played a conspicuous part, and in the following August he was created Baron Bridport, in the Irish peerage. In the following June, having succeeded Lord Howe in the command of the Channel fleet, he sailed with fourteen ships from Spithead to cruise off the French coast, and chased a French fleet into Port L'Orient. During his tenure of command in the Channel occurred the mutiny of the fleet, which cannot, however, be in any way attributed to his conduct. On the contrary, the men disavowed all intention of giving personal offence to the admiral, and called him their father and friend. At length, through the combined efforts of Lord Bridport and Lord Howe, and the tact and prudence displayed by both, the men were brought back to their allegiance, and again sailed, in 1799, under Lord Bridport in pursuit of the French fleet, which this time eluded them and escaped to the Mediterranean. On resigning his command he became general of marines, and in 1801 was raised to the rank of viscount. He lived on for thirteen years, chiefly in retirement.

Hood, Samuel, Viscount (1724–1816), entered the royal navy in 1741. In 1754 he was in command of a sloop stationed at the Bahama Islands. Several years later he served under Rodney in the bombardment of Havre, and passed the four years which preceded the Peace of Paris in duty off the coast of Ireland, and in the Mediterranean. In the course of the next twenty years he was created a baronet, 1778, and appointed rear-admiral, 1780, with the command of a squadron of eight ships which were being sent to reinforce Rodney in the West Indies. On Rodney sailing away to England with a large convoy, Hood was left in command of the fleet off the Leeward Islands. On learning that de Grasse had sailed to America, Hood hastened after him, and a partial engagement occurred between the French and British fleets. Again de Grasse sailed for the West Indies, and was followed by Hood, who baffled for some time the combined efforts of the French fleet and army to take possession of the island of St. Christopher. The island at length capitulated, and Hood sailed away unmolested to join Rodney at Barbados. On April 9, 1782, Sir Samuel Hood, in command of the advanced squadron, consisting of eight ships, came up with the French, and was at once vigorously attacked by fifteen French ships; but so ably did he fight his small detachment that on Rodney's arrival with the centre squadron de Grasse sailed away. The next two days were occupied in a chase; but on the 12th Rodney managed to bring the French fleet to an engagement off the north-west corner of Dominica. Hood's division was engaged with the French van, and the contest was maintained with much obstinacy and spirit, until the *Ville de Paris*, de Grasse's ship, struck to the *Barfleur*, the flagship of Hood. Hood was rewarded for this victory by the title of Baron Hood in the peerage of Ireland. On the conclusion of peace he returned home, and in May 1784 was returned as M.P. for Westminster. In 1786 he was appointed port admiral at Portsmouth, and two years later was constituted one of the commissioners for executing the office of lord high admiral. In 1793 he was appointed vice-admiral of the red, and was at once ordered to the Mediterranean as commander-in-chief, with the object of taking possession of Toulon. After a siege of two months this town was reduced. At the end of 1794 he was appointed governor of Greenwich Hospital, being soon afterwards raised to the English peerage with the title of Viscount Hood (1796). He survived his elevation nearly twenty years.

J. H. Rose, "Lord Hood and the Defence of Toulon," 1922.

Hooker, Richard (1554–1600), the author of the famous "Ecclesiastical Polity," was educated at Oxford, where he remained until 1584. In the following year he became master of the Temple, and was involved in a controversy with Travers, a Puritan, in which he was vigorously supported by his friends Archbishop Whitgift and Bishop Sandys. Travers was suspended, and "to justify his suspension we are in possession of Hooker's immortal work," which has gained for him the epithet of "judicious." The "Ecclesiastical Polity" has other claims to remembrance besides its literary excellence. It is in reality a defence of the Church of England as then established; and in the course of his argument Hooker has to deal with those principles which, underlying the Puritan doctrines, were at that time forcing their way into such prominence. He first of all inquires into the nature of law, and finds that it is divided into two distinct sections—laws immutable and laws variable; and then

applies the touchstone of criticism to decide to which category the various texts of scripture belong. The extreme Puritans, who would have borrowed even their criminal jurisprudence from the pages of the Old Testament, are met at the threshold by Hooker's challenge. Passing on from general to particular points, he comes to the burning question of Episcopacy; and here, though adhering to the belief that this form of Church government is to be found in the Scriptures, he bases his chief argument on the fact that no special form of ecclesiastical rule is laid down in its pages as being absolutely binding on all nations. The varying circumstances of different peoples will, he argues, lead them to form a mode of discipline fitted to their necessities. It is hardly necessary in this place to draw attention to his theories of secular government, and of the king's limited power, widely as they differed from the notions generally upheld by the Church party in the ensuing reigns.

Keble's edition of the "Ecclesiastical Polity," 1854; and biographies by R. H. Murray, 1924, and L. S. Thornton, 1924.

Hooper, John (*d.* 1555), at first a Cistercian monk, became, during the reign of Edward VI, one of the leaders of the Reformation, and acquired great fame as a preacher. In 1550 he was made Bishop of Gloucester, though for some time he refused to enter upon his office, owing to his objection to obey any spiritual authority but the Scriptures, or to wear the episcopal dress. In 1552 he received the bishopric of Worcester *in commendam*, and "by his activity, his fervid declamation, and his bold though intemperate zeal, deserved the applause and gratitude of the well-wishers to the new doctrines." On the accession of Mary, Hooper was at once marked out as a victim. He was ejected from his see, and imprisoned in the Fleet, September 1553. In the beginning of 1555 he was condemned for heresy, and sent to Gloucester, where he was burnt on February 9.

Biography by J. C. Ryle, 1868.

Hopton, Sir Ralph, afterwards Lord (1598–1652), first distinguished himself in the wars of the Low Countries. On the outbreak of the Civil War he was sent into the western parts of England to assist in forming an army for the king. His success in Cornwall was complete. In 1643 he defeated Sir William Waller at the battle of Lansdown, but was himself severely wounded. In the same year Charles I appointed him governor of Bristol and created him Baron Hopton. Next year, after taking Winchester, he was defeated at Alresford by Waller with Haselrig's "Lobsters," and was appointed a member of the Prince of Wales's council at Bristol. In 1646 he was routed by Sir Thomas Fairfax at the battle of Torrington, after which disaster he dissolved his army and withdrew to the Scilly Islands, and subsequently to the continent. He died at Bruges.

Horestii, The, were an ancient British tribe occupying an area roughly corresponding to the modern counties of Clackmannan, Kinross, and Fife, with the eastern part of Stratherne and the country to the west of the Tay.

Horsa is said to have been the brother of Hengest, whom he accompanied in his expedition to Britain, where, according to tradition, he was slain in the battle of Aylesford (455 ?). The town of Horstead, in Kent, is said to derive its name from him, and a barrow in the neighbourhood is pointed out as the tomb of Horsa. The very existence of Horsa has been questioned of late years, and his name has been made to be no more than a representation of the steed which has so long figured on the standard of Kent. But his name occurs more than once in the "Anglo-Saxon Chronicle," and there is no reason why he should not have been a real historical character, even though his name bears the signification attributed to it. [Hengest.]

Hospitallers, The Knights, or Brethren of St. John at Jerusalem, were one of the two great military orders of Crusaders. They derived their name "from their hospital built at Jerusalem for the use of pilgrims coming to the Holy Land, and dedicated to St. John Baptist." The order was instituted about the year 1092, but they do not seem to have had a house in London till about the year 1140. They were much favoured by the first two Kings of Jerusalem, Godfrey of Boulogne and Baldwin, and in England soon acquired large possessions. The superior in England came in process of time to be reckoned a lay baron, and had a seat among the lords temporal in parliament as "premier" of his order. They had numerous manors scattered over different counties in England. Each settlement of Hospitallers was under the rule of a commander, who answered to the preceptors of the Templars. They were followers of St. Augustine's rule, and wore a black habit with a white cross upon it. Their chief establishment in England was the Hospital of St. John, at Clerkenwell, founded by Jordan Briset, about 1100. Its revenue at the time of the Reformation seems to have been between £2,000 and £3,000. Other commanderies of this order were at Beverley (Yorkshire) and Warwick. In Dugdale's "Monasticon" more than fifty other cells are enumerated.

Dugdale, "Monasticon"; Porter, "History of the Knights of Malta"; "Knights Hospitallers in England" (Camden Society).

Hotham, John de (*d.* 1337), was chancellor of the exchequer in Ireland in 1309. As Gaveston's steward he seems to have incurred the hostility of the baronage, but in 1312 he was made chancellor of the exchequer in England, and in 1313 was sent on a mission to France. Two years later he was dispatched to Ireland for the purpose of inducing the barons there to make a stand against Edward Bruce. In 1318 he was appointed chancellor, and continued to hold the great seal till January 1320. Some

four years before this last date (1316) he had been elected Bishop of Ely. On the accession of Edward III he was once more made chancellor, but resigned the great seal next year. He was struck with paralysis some two years before his death, which happened in 1337.

Hotham, Sir John (*d.* 1645), took a prominent part in the attack on the Earl of Strafford, having some personal grudge against that statesman. In the debate upon the Grand Remonstrance (q.v.) he sided with Hyde. Next year (1642) Hotham was dispatched by the Parliament to take command of Hull and secure the large magazines of that important town for the popular party. When Charles demanded admittance to this fortress Hotham refused him, and Parliament approved the conduct of their officer. But he was not entirely in the confidence of his employers, who sent his son to play the spy upon his father's movements. Unfortunately, when Lord Digby fell into their hands, Sir John allowed his honour to be tampered with, and promised to deliver up the town on the first shot fired against it by the king's army. Accordingly Hotham permitted Digby to depart for the purpose of carrying the news to York, but on the king's arrival he flooded the country and forced him to abandon the siege (July). A little later both Sir John Hotham and his son were executed for treasonable correspondence with the Marquis of Newcastle (January 1645), and died leaving on men's minds the impression that had it not been for their weakness Parliament would have become the absolute masters of the whole of Yorkshire.

Hotspur. [Percy, Sir Henry.]

Houghers, The, made their first appearance in Galway in the winter of 1711. They consisted of armed parties, disguised by white sheets, and spread over Mayo, Sligo, Roscommon, Galway, and Clare, slaughtering and "houghing" the cattle, from which last practice they derived their name. Notices were posted up, signed by "Captain Evan," bidding the shepherds remain indoors. None of the Houghers, who were evidently directed by men of birth and education, had been apprehended, when a government proclamation was issued, promising a free pardon to all who would confess. Upon this, sixteen young gentlemen belonging to the best Catholic families came forward in Galway, and by the end of 1713 the movement had ceased. It is difficult to decide whether it was merely intended to check cattle-farming and Protestantism, or whether it had a Jacobite origin: but, in any case, the priests do not appear to have been implicated in the disturbance. Afterwards, the Houghers were identified with the Whiteboys (q.v.). In 1783 the Houghers directed their efforts against soldiers, and a bill was passed against them in 1784.

W. E. H. Lecky, "Ireland in the Eighteenth Century," edn. 1900.

Housecarls, The, or Thingmen (*Hus carls*), were a body-guard formed by Canute from the crews of the forty ships which he retained in his service after disbanding the bulk of the Great Army (1018). The force, which consisted of between three and four thousand men, was organized as a gild or fraternity, with the king as chief member. The warriors received their board in the royal "garth" or household, and were paid a monthly wage. They were heavily armed, and were provided with horses, although they did not constitute a cavalry force in the strict sense. Although predominantly Scandinavian, they were recruited from many different nations, and the English element tended to increase when once the country had become settled. The English king's housecarls were almost exterminated at the battles of Stamford Bridge and Senlac.

Household, The Royal, is important because the offices of state grew out of it. This was due to the fact that in early times in England, as in other European countries, there was no distinction between the functions of the king as manager of his estate and his functions as ruler of his kingdom. All the households of western monarchs went back to the Carolingian household, and through that to the imperial and papal households. The households of magnates developed along similar lines. The household, therefore, was the basis of all activity: it was the financial, secretarial, and judicial office by turns; afforced by the wise men of the land, it was the king's advisory body; and, as the household under arms, supplemented by the armed households of the king's followers, it provided the army in wartime. The earliest surviving description of the organization of the household is the "Constitutio Domus Regis" of 1135. From it we learn that the chief officers were the chancellor, master of the scriptorium, chaplain, master dispenser, stewards, master butler, master chamberlain, treasurer, tally-cutter, constables, and master marshal. There were as well numbers of subordinate officials, clerks, chamberlains, stewards, serjeants, ushers, marshals, watchmen, huntsmen, archers, and all the more domestic officers of kitchen, spicery, buttery, pantry, larder, and mews. The chamber was the oldest department of the household, and the peculiarity of English administrative history is that from the chamber there developed the exchequer as chief office of finance, while in the rest of Europe, for example in the papacy and in France, the chamber of the court remained the only financial department of the state. Between 1100 and 1400, there emerged the exchequer, chancery, king's council and parliament, king's bench and common bench, wardrobe (q.v.), king's chamber as the privy purse, privy seal, signet, and secretary's office. After such differentiation little but the king's private household remained. The modern

royal household contains mediæval survivals in the two chief departments of the lord chamberlain (q.v.) and the lord steward. The master of the horse, the third modern department, only became important in the late mediæval and Tudor days.

L. M. Larson, "King's Household in England Before the Norman Conquest"; W. Stubbs, "Constitutional History of England"; T. F. Tout, "Chapters in the Administrative History of Mediæval England"; "The English Civil Service in the Fourteenth Century." [D. M. B.]

Howard, The Family of. According to Sir Bernard Burke, the family of Howard was established in Norfolk in the tenth century. In the fifteenth century Sir Robert Howard married Margaret, daughter of Thomas Mowbray, Duke of Norfolk (who was descended from Thomas of Brotherton, son of King Edward I), and of Elizabeth, daughter and heiress of Richard Fitzalan, Earl of Arundel. Thus the estates of the Mowbrays and Fitzalans came into possession of the Howards. In 1470 Sir John Howard, son of this Sir Robert, was created Lord Howard, and in 1483 earl marshal and Duke of Norfolk. Among other peerages in this family are those of Howard de Walden (created 1597), Howard of Glossop (1869), Carlisle (1661), Effingham (1554), Suffolk (1603).

Howard, Charles, Lord Howard of Effingham (1536–1624), was the son of William, Lord Howard of Effingham (q.v.), and grandson of the second Duke of Norfolk. In the year 1569 he held a command in the royal army during the northern rebellion, and in 1587 very strongly advised the execution of the Queen of Scots. In 1585, although a Catholic, he was appointed lord high admiral of England, and had command of the fleet during the alarm of the Spanish Armada, his resolution and bravery being conspicuous throughout the crisis. In 1596 he was associated with the Earl of Essex in the expedition against Cadiz, and was created Earl of Nottingham as a reward for his services. In 1601 he was instrumental in suppressing the insurrection of Essex, with whom he had quarrelled after the Spanish expedition. Under James I, Lord Howard continued to hold his office as admiral, and filled the post of lord high steward at the coronation. Though without very great experience or commanding ability, he was fairly successful. He had some naval skill, and was both bold and prudent. [Armada, The Spanish.]

Howard, Sir Edward (1477 ?–1513), was the second son of Thomas Howard, Earl of Surrey and 2nd Duke of Norfolk (q.v.), the victor of Flodden. Occupying the position of lord high admiral of England, he distinguished himself on several occasions. In 1511, supported by his brother, Sir Thomas Howard, as a subordinate officer in his fleet, he killed the Scottish privateer, Andrew Barton (q.v.), and captured two of his ships. In 1512, on his return from Spain, where he had conducted the English forces, under the Marquis of Dorset, Sir Edward Howard captured many French merchantmen, and made several destructive descents on the French coast. Having refitted at Southampton, and being reinforced by a further squadron of 25 sail, he engaged with a French fleet of 39 sail near Brest, on August 10. Victory once again inclined to the side of the English, but a complete triumph was prevented by the dismay occasioned to both the contending parties upon the conflagration of the two largest ships on each side, the *Regent* and the *Cordelier*, whose entire crews, to the number of 1,700 men, perished in the flames. In 1513 Sir Edward Howard was killed in an attempt to destroy the French fleet near Brest (April 25). He was succeeded in his office of lord high admiral by his brother, Sir Thomas Howard, who became in later years the 3rd Duke of Norfolk.

Howard, Edward, Lord Howard of Escrick (*d.* 1675), was the seventh son of Thomas Howard, 1st Earl of Suffolk, and was created Baron Howard of Escrick, in Yorkshire, 1628. He sided with the Parliament throughout the Civil War, and, after the abolition of the House of Lords, consented to become a member of the Commons, where he represented Carlisle; he also became a member of the council of state. In July 1650 he was accused by Major-General Harrison of taking bribes from wealthy delinquents. A year later he was convicted, expelled from the House, sentenced to be imprisoned in the Tower and to pay a fine of £10,000. He was soon released, and the fine was not exacted, but he took no further part in public affairs.

Howard, George William, 7th Earl of Carlisle (1802–64), was educated at Eton and Christ Church. In 1826 he accompanied his uncle, the Duke of Devonshire, on his visit to Russia at the coronation of the Emperor Nicholas I. He was returned to the House of Commons for the family seat of Morpeth (1826), and one of his earliest speeches was in defence of the character of the Russian emperor. During the agitation of the Reform Bill he enlisted on the side of Earl Grey, and on the dissolution of parliament which followed the success of General Gascoyne's motion, he was returned for Yorkshire, which seat he held till the passing of the Reform Bill in 1832. He was chief secretary for Ireland from 1835 to 1841, and chancellor of the duchy of Lancaster from 1850 to 1852. In 1855 he became lord-lieutenant of Ireland, and began a career of popularity almost without parallel among Irish viceroys. A change in the government removed him for a short time; but he returned again in 1859, and held this office till the summer of 1864, when illness compelled him to lay it down.

Howard, Henrietta, Countess of Suffolk (1681–1767), was the supposed mistress

of George II. She was the daughter of Sir Henry Hobart, and married Charles Howard, third son of Henry, 5th Earl of Suffolk, who afterwards succeeded to the earldom of Suffolk. When her husband tried to remove her from the household of Caroline, then Princess of Wales, the latter protected her. She entertained a strong regard for Swift and Pope, and was courted by the opposition partly in the mistaken expectation of gaining the royal ear, partly from real regard for her amiable character. After her withdrawal from court in 1734, she married the Hon. George Berkeley.

"Letters of the Countess of Suffolk," ed. J. W. Croker, 1824; Lewis Melville, "Lady Suffolk and Her Circle," 1924.

Howard, Henry, Earl of Surrey (1517?–47), was the eldest son of Thomas Howard, 3rd Duke of Norfolk. A promising scholar and soldier, and a poet of considerable power, his career was brought to a premature close through Henry VIII's jealous interpretation of some indiscreet assumptions of royal arms and titles and references to his relationship to royalty, at a time when the king began to reject again the counsels of the conservative Anglicans, of whom Norfolk and Surrey were the chief. Though barely thirty years of age at his death, the young earl had distinguished himself in some of the Scottish and French campaigns, besides winning fame as a poet of real if limited powers. For a short period he was entrusted with the governorship of Henry's French conquest, Boulogne, but his defeat before the city in 1546 led to his being superseded in his command, and to his engaging in a quarrel with his successor at Boulogne, Lord Hertford, which was one main cause of his incurring the king's displeasure. Accused of treason at the instance of Hertford, he was condemned, and executed (January 21, 1547). He was the brother-in-law and frequent companion of Henry's natural son, the Duke of Richmond.

Biography by Edmond Bapst (Paris, 1891).

Howard, Henry, Earl of Northampton (1540–1614), second son of Henry, Earl of Surrey, and the brother of Thomas, 4th Duke of Norfolk, was created an earl by James I in 1604. He has incurred the infamy of having betrayed the secrets of his patron, the Earl of Essex, to the privy council, and will be remembered in history as a man of shameless principles who for various selfish reasons changed his religion no fewer than five times. Under James I he rose rapidly to honour, being made warden of the Cinque Ports and lord privy seal; he was a commissioner at the trial of his enemy, Sir Walter Ralegh; and was subsequently concerned in the murder of Sir Thomas Overbury. Though he had inherited "the talents, the taste, and the accomplishments of his father," he was in reality "a monster of wickedness and hypocrisy."

Howard, John, 1st Duke of Norfolk (*d.* 1485), was the son of Sir Robert Howard by Margaret, daughter and heiress of Thomas Mowbray, Duke of Norfolk. He took part in Talbot's expedition to Gascony, and fought in the battle of Castillon (1453). He was much favoured by Edward IV, who made him treasurer of the household (1467), and frequently employed him on diplomatic missions. He accompanied the Duke of Gloucester in his expedition to Scotland in 1482, and on Richard III's accession to the throne was made Duke of Norfolk and earl marshal. In 1483 he became admiral of England, Ireland, and Aquitaine. He steadily adhered to Richard, and was killed whilst commanding the vanguard at Bosworth. An attempt was made to detach him from the Yorkist cause on the eve of the engagement, and he is said to have found pinned to his tent a paper with the following rhyme upon it:—

"Jack of Norfolk, be not too bold,
For Dickon thy master is bought and sold."

Howard, John (1726–90), a distinguished philanthropist, was born in London, and after being for some time apprenticed to a grocer, travelled over Europe. In 1756 he undertook a voyage to Lisbon, but on the way was captured by a French privateer, and was for a short time held in captivity. In 1773 his attention was directed to the state of the English prisons, and he visited most of the countries of the continent to examine their prisons. In 1777 he published "The State of the Prisons in England and Wales," which had the effect of drawing public attention to the abuses which prevailed, and ultimately led to great reforms. He died at Kherson (Russia) while prosecuting researches into the plague.

Biographies by W. H. Dixon, 1854, L. O. Cooper, 1904, and J. G. Rowe, 1927.

Howard, Philip, 13th Earl of Arundel (*d.* 1595), son of Thomas, 4th Duke of Norfolk, who was attainted and beheaded in 1572, inherited the earldom of Arundel in right of his mother. He was restored in blood and made privy councillor in 1581. On his first appearance at court he won the favour of Elizabeth, but quickly lost it through his immoral life. In 1583 he was charged with complicity in the plot of Francis Throckmorton (q.v.) (having incurred suspicion by his relations with the Jesuit Campion), but was speedily released. In the next year he was formally received into the Roman Catholic Church, through the influence of his wife Anne Dacre. On attempting to escape from England, in 1585, he was captured and again sent to the Tower, where he remained until his death. In 1589 he was found guilty of high treason on a charge of having prayed for the success of the Spanish Armada. He was condemned to death, but by the advice of Cecil and Hatton was not executed. The severity with which he was treated seems to have been due to personal animosity on the part of Elizabeth.

Biography by Cecil Kerr, 1925.

Howard, Thomas, 2nd Duke of Norfolk (1443–1524), was the son of John Howard, Duke of Norfolk, who was killed at Bosworth Field while fighting on the side of Richard III. Like his father, he fought under Richard's banner at Bosworth, and, being taken prisoner, was lodged for a period in the Tower, his newly-acquired title of Earl of Surrey being declared forfeited. He transferred his allegiance to Henry VII; and he was entrusted as the king's lieutenant with the important duty of tranquillizing the northern districts of England. In 1497 Surrey was directed to provide against the expected Scottish inroads. His rapid march to Norham, undertaken at the request of Fox, Bishop of Durham, compelled James IV to make a hasty retreat into his own kingdom. Under Henry VIII, Surrey became a trusted member of the royal ministry, and still further distinguished himself in the field by his decisive victory over James IV at Flodden (q.v.) in 1513; and by the complete check he succeeded in giving in 1523 to the Scottish invasion under Albany, the consequence of which last success was a peace of eighteen years between the two countries. In 1522 he was placed in command of the English expedition dispatched to France for the purpose of acting against that kingdom in conjunction with the Imperialist forces. Circumstances were, however, not favourable to any decisive engagement, and Surrey's hostile proceedings were limited to a general ravaging of the coast of Brittany. Surrey had his dukedom and the earl-marshalship restored to him in 1514, and was made lord treasurer and knight of the Garter.

Howard, Thomas, 3rd Duke of Norfolk (1473–1554), was a distinguished soldier and statesman under Henry VIII and his two successors. His first public appearance in the field was at Flodden, where he fought under his father. Subsequently, on becoming Duke of Norfolk in 1524, he took a prominent part in the proceedings of the king's council as the political opponent of Wolsey, and the acknowledged leader of the English nobility. His tact and firmness enabled him to put down the Suffolk riots in 1525. On Wolsey's fall in 1529, Norfolk became Henry's chief minister. As the recognized head of the conservative party in Church matters, and the chief representative of the older nobility, he was deputed by Henry to negotiate with the rebel leaders in the Pilgrimage of Grace (q.v.). He was instrumental in passing the statute known as the Six Articles (q.v.). In October 1542 he was in command of the English army in Scotland, on the occasion of the hostilities between the two countries which ended in the Scottish disaster of Solway Moss. In December 1546, however, the influence of the king's brother-in-law, Lord Hertford, who had taken Cromwell's place as leader of the reforming party, was strong enough to bring about Norfolk's arrest on a charge of treason. A suspicion of pretensions to the throne was a fatal one for Henry to conceive of any of his nobles, and Norfolk would have shared the fate of his gifted son, the young Earl of Surrey, who was executed on the same groundless charge of treason (January 21, 1547), had not the king's own death preceded the day appointed for his execution. All through the reign of Edward VI, however, he was kept a close prisoner, and was only restored to liberty on the accession of Mary to the throne. He presided at the trial of the Duke of Northumberland, and took an active part in the suppression of the rising under Sir Thomas Wyatt (q.v.).

Howard, Thomas, 4th Duke of Norfolk (1536–72), grandson of Thomas, 3rd duke, was one of the most powerful nobles in England under Elizabeth, and a Catholic in politics, though in creed he professed himself an Anglican. Whilst in command of the Army of the North, during the Scottish campaign of 1560, he incurred the suspicion of the queen, who feared his popularity. In 1568 Norfolk was appointed president of the commission of inquiry at York to examine the charges brought against Mary of Scotland. It was at this time that the idea first arose amongst the Catholic nobles of a marriage between the duke and the Queen of Scots. This marriage, urged on by Moray and Maitland, was extremely distasteful to Elizabeth, to whom Norfolk declared that nothing would induce him to marry one who had been a competitor for the crown. He subsequently, however, gave his adhesion to the scheme, and, in conjunction with others of the queen's council, including Leicester, Sussex, and Throckmorton, he joined the plan of marrying Mary on condition that she outwardly conformed to the rites of the Church of England. Elizabeth, however, remained averse to the match. A plot formed against Cecil was discovered, and Norfolk, who had been intriguing with Spain for an attack on the commercial interests of England, renounced Protestantism, and threw himself into the arms of the Catholic lords in the north. In October 1569, however, Norfolk was arrested and sent to the Tower, but regained his liberty the following year by giving a written promise not to pursue the scheme of the marriage. The duke, however, quickly found himself involved in a fresh Catholic plot, known as the Ridolfi Conspiracy (q.v.). In September 1571 some letters which fell into Cecil's hands caused Norfolk to be lodged in the Tower. He was brought to trial in the following January. The charge against him was that of compassing the queen's death—(1) by seeking to marry the Queen of Scots; (2) by soliciting foreign powers to invade the realm; (3) by sending money to the aid of the English who were rebels, and the Scots who were enemies to the queen. The duke denied all the charges, but was found guilty of high treason, and, after some delay caused by the unwillingness of Eliza-

beth to sign the warrant, was executed on June 2, 1572.

Howard, Thomas, 1st Earl of Suffolk (1561–1626), second son of Thomas, 4th Duke of Norfolk, was one of the volunteers who assisted in attacking the Spanish Armada off Calais. In 1591 he was in command of the fleet which attacked the Spanish treasure ships off the Azores, when Sir Richard Grenville was killed, and in 1596 was second in command of the fleet during the expedition to Cadiz. In the following year he accompanied Essex in his disastrous attempt on the Azores. On his return home he was created Lord Howard de Walden, and in 1603 Earl of Suffolk. In 1604 he was appointed one of the commissioners for executing the office of earl marshal, and helped to discover the Gunpowder Plot (q.v.). In 1614 he was created lord high treasurer of England, but was deprived of his office five years later for extortion and embezzlement.

Howard, William, Lord Howard of Effingham (1510 ?–73), was the eldest son of Thomas, 2nd Duke of Norfolk, marshal of England. On the charge of concealing the incontinence of his niece, Catherine Howard (q.v.), Lord William was declared guilty of misprision of treason, and condemned to perpetual imprisonment. He soon, however, recovered his liberty, and was, under Henry VIII and Edward VI, employed on various diplomatic missions. Soon after Mary's accession he was raised to the peerage, and made lord high admiral of England. In 1554 he greatly distinguished himself in crushing the Kentish rebellion, and successfully prevented Sir Thomas Wyatt from entering London. It was owing to his influence as head of the naval power of England that Gardiner found it expedient not to press the charge against Elizabeth of being implicated in Wyatt's rebellion; and throughout the whole reign of Mary he exercised a constant watch over the princess, by whom, after her accession, he was created lord chamberlain and lord privy seal, as a reward for his devotion. In 1559 he was sent as commissioner to Cambrai, in conjunction with Dr. Wotton and the Bishop of Ely, and subsequently did his best to bring about the marriage of the queen with the Archduke Charles of Austria.

Howard, William, Lord, known as "Belted Will" (1563–1640), was the third son of Thomas, 4th Duke of Norfolk, the ancestor of the Earls of Carlisle. He was suspected of being implicated in Throckmorton's plot, 1583 (q.v.), but, though he was arrested, no proof of his complicity could be obtained. Having become lord of Naworth Castle in right of his wife, he was made warden of the Western Marches.

Howard, William, Viscount Stafford (1614–80), fifth son of Thomas, Earl of Arundel, was a Roman Catholic peer of high personal character, who in 1678 was accused by Oates and Bedloe of complicity in the Popish Plot (q.v.). He was committed to the Tower with four other Catholic peers, and in 1680 was the one chosen to be tried. He was impeached of high treason by the Commons, and tried by the House of Lords (November 30—December 6), and, although the only witnesses against him were Oates and other perjured wretches, he was found guilty by 55 votes to 31. His execution, which took place on December 29, 1680, marks the turn of the tide against Shaftesbury and the other upholders of the Popish Plot. Stafford protested his innocence on the scaffold, and the populace avowed their belief in his assertion.

Stafford's "Memoirs," 1682.

Howard *v.* **Gossett,** Case of. Mr. Howard, who had been Stockdale's solicitor in his action against Messrs. Hansard in 1839 and 1840, brought an action against the officers of the House of Commons who had taken him into custody, and obtained a verdict for £100. He then obtained a second verdict against Sir W. Gossett, the serjeant-at-arms, on the ground that the Speaker's warrant was informal. The question was once more brought before the Court of Exchequer, and here the verdict of the lower court was reversed. The case forms a constitutional precedent of some importance.

Sir T. Erskine May, "Constitutional History," ed. F. Holland, 3 vols., 1912.

Howe, John (1630–1705), was a Puritan divine, born at Loughborough. After his appointment to the living of Great Torrington about 1652, and while on a visit to London, he attracted the notice of Cromwell, who made him his domestic chaplain. He was also appointed lecturer at St. Margaret's, Westminster. At the Restoration he returned to Torrington, but was ejected by the Act of Uniformity, and became a Nonconformist minister in London. He was an erudite and eloquent preacher, and was universally esteemed for his liberality and piety.

Howe, John Grubham (1657–1722), was returned as member for Cirencester to the Convention of 1689, having previously been known as the author of some savage lampoons. He was appointed vice-chamberlain to Queen Mary. He proved himself a zealous Whig, and proposed sending Dutch troops to suppress a Scottish regiment which had mutinied when ordered to the continent. He attacked Carmarthen and Halifax, demanding that they should be removed from the king's councils, but without effect. He was dismissed from his office in 1692, apparently for imagining that Queen Mary was in love with him. From this time he displayed the most rancorous hatred against the queen and her husband, and moved the impeachment of Burnet for writing an obnoxious pastoral letter. Shortly afterwards he became a Tory, and a zealous advocate for peace. In 1702 he became a privy councillor and received the office of joint paymaster of the forces. He

moved without success that the Prince of Denmark should have the enormous income of £100,000 a year on the death of Queen Anne. On the accession of George I he was dismissed from his offices, and passed the remainder of his life in retirement.

Howe, Richard, Earl (1726–99), second son of Emanuel, 2nd Viscount Howe, entered the navy at the age of fourteen, and was employed under Lord Anson. After serving for some time in the West Indies he was appointed commander of a sloop in 1745. In 1748 he returned to England, and spent three years in studying navigation and tactics. He was then appointed to perform a semi-diplomatic mission in the Mediterranean, and executed it with great skill and judgment. In 1754, while attached to Boscawen's fleet, he captured a French ship. Three years later he was returned to parliament for Dartmouth, and in the following year made himself conspicuous in Hawke's attacks on the French coast, and in the same year succeeded to the family title and estates on the death of his brother, Viscount Howe. Once more he distinguished himself at the action in Quiberon Bay in 1759. During the American War he was employed on that station; but his force was so small and ill provided that he could effect little or nothing. He returned to England in 1778, and in 1782 was sent to relieve Gibraltar, a service which he accomplished in spite of the superior number of the enemy. On his return in 1783 he was appointed first commissioner of the admiralty, and, except during the short coalition administration, held that post until 1788, when he resigned and was created an earl. In 1793, when the war with France broke out, he was appointed to the command of the Channel fleet. On May 2, 1794, he sailed from St. Helen's, and on June 1 gained a decisive victory over the French [First of June]. Honours were heaped upon him; and on the outbreak of the mutiny in the fleet in 1797, Lord Howe was armed with full powers to restore order in the navy. To effect this purpose he exercised so much moderation, firmness, and tact that he soon brought back the sailors to their allegiance.

W. L. Clowes, "Royal Navy," vol. iv, 1899.

Howe, William, 5th Viscount (1729–1814), brother of Richard, Earl Howe (the admiral), was appointed commander-in-chief of the English army in America in 1775. Acting in this capacity he won the battle of Bunker Hill (June 17, 1775) and took New York (September 15, 1776). Next year he was victorious at Brandywine River (September 11) and occupied Philadelphia, but was recalled in 1778 at his own request.

Howel Dda (Howel the Good) was the most famous of the early Welsh kings (reigned 915–48). He was the son of Cadell and the grandson of Rhodri Mawr. Howel seems to have had a vague sort of overlordship of North Wales, whose chief king was his cousin, Idwal Foel; and on the latter's death in 942 he assumed the direct rule over Gwynedd and probably also over Powys. Later writers speak of him as king of all Wales; but Morgamrwg and Gwent never came within his jurisdiction. He never disputed the West Saxon overlordship, and in 918 accepted Edward the Elder as "father and lord." He seems to have attended the English witenagemots, attested charters, and there is some ground for the belief that he joined the expedition of Edmund against Cumbria in 946. Howel is most famous for his collection of Welsh laws and customs, which he made towards the end of his reign at a great gathering of Welsh prelates and princes at his hunting lodge, near Whitland, in Carmarthenshire, known as Ty Gwyn ar Daf. He is said to have been aided by Blegywryd, the first scholar of his time, and, with less probability, to have taken the laws in person to Rome to obtain papal sanction. But the "Book of the White House" is no longer extant, and the bulky codes which now go by the name of the "Laws of Howel Dda" can only in their present form be referred back to the eleventh or twelfth century, though doubtless based on earlier collections. They comprise three varying laws belonging to the districts of Gwynedd, Powys, and Dyfed respectively. They bear large traces of English influence, and, though largely occupied with minute details of fines and court duties, are very valuable sources of information. Howel died in 949 or 950, and the peace which seems to have attended his power died with him. "He was," says the native chronicler, "the wisest and justest of all Welsh princes, greatly loved by every Welshman and by the wise among the Saxons."

The "Laws of Howel Dda" were first printed by Wotton, and afterwards more completely edited by Aneurin Owen in the Record Commission's "Ancient Laws and Institutes of Wales"; "Brut y Tywysogion"; "Gwentian Brut"; "Annales Cambriæ"; "Liber Landavensis"; J. E. Lloyd, "History of Wales to the Edwardian Conquest," 2 vols., 1911.

[T. F. T.].

Howick, Lord. (1764–1845). [Grey, Charles.]

Hudson, Jeffery (1619–82), was Charles I's favourite dwarf, 18 inches high at the age of seven and 3 feet 6 or 9 inches at his maximum. He was faithfully attached to Queen Henrietta, whom he accompanied in her first flight from England; not long after this he was taken prisoner by Turkish pirates and sold as a slave, but very shortly he was released and served as a captain of horse in the royal army. When the royal cause became hopeless he again retired to France with the queen, but returned to England at the Restoration, and in 1679 was accused of complicity in the Popish Plot. On this account he was imprisoned, and died very soon afterwards in captivity.

Hudson's Bay Company, founded in 1670 as a trading company to exploit the

territory named after Henry Hudson, who discovered it for the Dutch West India Company (1609–10). One of the chief incorporators was Prince Rupert, who gave his name to the territory. Conflict with French settlers also trading with the Indians for furs led to the Treaty of Whitehall (1686), which, however, did not settle the dispute. Actual fighting took place round the factories or forts, but in 1713 the company was greatly strengthened by the abandonment of the French claim at the Treaty of Utrecht (q.v.). A parliamentary inquiry led to a confirmation of its privileges (1749) and a definition of its territories. In 1763 French political rivalry was removed by the cession of all Canada to Great Britain, but a rival North-West Fur Company of Montreal was established, and fighting later ensued over the ownership of land in the Red River valley. This culminated in 1816, and in 1821 the two companies were amalgamated under the more ancient title. A grant was also made of the trading right to lands farther afield, and British Columbia and the Oregon district were included. In 1846 Oregon was ceded to the United States and Vancouver Island given to the company in exchange (1849). This concession lapsed in 1859. A desire to settle the Red River districts was followed by a parliamentary committee which recommended their cession by the company, which should, however, retain its trading rights. On the formation of the Dominion of Canada (1867) the company's jurisdiction became an anachronism, and negotiations for the surrender of its possessions resulted in their sale for £300,000 in 1869, although some land (the so-called Fertile Belt) was retained. These arrangements were completed in 1872. Of these fifteen million acres so retained the company has sold all but about four. It has continued its fur trading, but subordinated that activity to more general trading, and in the Great War acted as commissariat agent for the French government.

Sir W. Schooling, "Hudson Bay Company, 1670–1920," 1920; B. Wilson, "The Great Company, 1667–1871," 2 vols., 1900; J. Barrow, "The Geography of Hudson's Bay," Hakluyt Society, 1852; G. M. Asher, "Henry Hudson the Navigator," Hakluyt Society, 1860; C. R. Markham, "Baffin's Voyages, 1611–22," Hakluyt Society, 1881; A. C. Laut, "The Adventurers of England on Hudson's Bay," 1920; N. M. W. L. MacKenzie, "Men of the Hudson's Bay Company," 1921; G. Bryce, "History of the Hudson's Bay Company," 1900. [H. R.]

Hue and Cry is derived from the French words *huer* and *crier*, both of which signify to cry aloud. In early English law it was one of the recognized processes of common law for securing the arrest of a felon. The plaintiff who had been robbed had by this process the right of acquainting the constable of the township with the wrong he had suffered, and the description of the culprit. The constable might then call upon all the inhabitants to join in the pursuit of the suspected criminal with horn and voice; and so follow up the offender's tracks to the limits of the township, at which limit this constable would generally hand on the duty of pursuit to the constable of the neighbouring parish. The hue and cry was enjoined by the Statute of Westminster, 1275, and regulated by acts made in the years 1285, 1585, 1735, and 1749.

Huguenots. [Protestant Refugees in England.]

Hull, or Kingston-upon-Hull, derives its second name from Edward I, who, seeing its advantageous position, spent much labour in fortifying the place and granted it a charter in 1299. But it seems to have been of considerable importance even before this time. The great house of de la Pole were Hull merchants. About the year 1300, Edward, in an ordinance having reference to the establishment of mints, appointed it one of the places for the erection of furnaces. Its prosperity, though occasionally interrupted by plague and famine, seems to have been continuous during the succeeding centuries. In 1642 the town came into great prominence as one of the most important magazines of arms in the country. Owing to this it was entrusted by the Parliament to the keeping of Sir John Hotham (q.v.), whose refusal to admit the king within the gates was almost tantamount to a declaration of war. Before long, however, Sir John was found in correspondence with the Royalists, treating for the surrender of his charge. For this offence he suffered death; while the town of Hull held out under Ferdinando Fairfax against the siege of the Marquis of Newcastle.

"Victoria County History: Yorkshire"; J. J. Sheaham, "General and Concise History of Hull," 1864; T. Sheppard, "Evolution of Kingston-on-Hull," 1911.

Humble Petition and Advice, The (1657), was the second paper constitution of the Protectorate. When Cromwell's second parliament met in 1657, Alderman Pack, member for the city of London, brought forward (February 23) an address under the title of "An Humble Address and Remonstrance," in which he proposed the recasting of the constitution along definitely monarchical lines. His propositions were, after a long debate, accepted by the House, in spite of the opposition of the military members. On April 4 a committee was appointed to discuss the whole question with Cromwell, who, however, on May 8 definitely refused to exchange the title of protector for that of king. But with this and a few other minor exceptions, the whole scheme (which in its enlarged and amended form was known as the Humble Petition and Advice) received the protector's assent (May 25, 1657). The chief provisions of this document were, that Cromwell should name his own successor in his lifetime; that a parliament of two Houses should be called every three years at the furthest; that papists and all who had some aim against the Parliament should be disabled from sitting as members

and from voting in the election of members; that an Upper House should be constituted, consisting of from forty to seventy members, whereof twenty-one should form a quorum; that the members of this Upper House should be nominated by Cromwell with the approval of the Commons in the first place—the right of filling up vacancies being, however, inherent in the chamber itself; that a constant revenue of £1,300,000 a year should be granted for the maintenance of the army and navy, other supplies being granted by parliament as need should arise; that the protector's council should consist only of "such as are of known piety and of undoubted affection to the rights of these nations," even in matters of religious faith; that this council should not be removed but by consent of parliament; that it should appoint to the military and naval commands on Cromwell's death; that the chancellor, treasurer, chief justices, etc., should be approved by parliament; that parliament should issue a public confession of faith, to which, however, none should be *compelled* to assent, nor be molested for holding other views so long as they did not abuse this liberty; but that neither papacy nor prelacy should be suffered. When, however, parliament once more met, in January 1658, Cromwell found the Lower House, from which his chief supporters had been withdrawn to form the new Upper House, calling in question all that had been done in the previous year. The Lower House now refused to recognize the Upper. Cromwell, in despair, dissolved parliament early in 1658, and the Humble Petition and Advice fell to the ground.

S. R. Gardiner, "Constitutional Documents of the Puritan Revolution"; C. H. Firth, "Last Years of the Protectorate, 1656–8," 1909.

Hume, Joseph (1777–1855), was born of humble parents at Montrose. After studying medicine at Edinburgh he was appointed surgeon to one of the Indian regiments (1797), and did not return home till 1808. From this time he devoted his attention to the practical side of English politics, and in 1812 entered parliament as member for Weymouth—a borough which he did not long represent. A few years later he was returned for Aberdeen, and after one or two changes finally became member for Montrose. The chief object to which he addressed himself as a politician was the reduction of taxation, and to secure this reduction he investigated and, when necessary, challenged every item of public expenditure. But it was not to this line of work only that Hume confined his attention. Almost every branch of domestic policy in turn called for his inquiries: he proposed reforms in the army, the navy, and the ecclesiastical courts. He secured the repeal of the laws forbidding machinery to be exported, and workmen from going abroad. He was also a determined enemy of imprisonment for debt, of flogging in the army, and the system of impressment for the navy. In such useful work he passed the last years of his life.

Hundred, The. Tacitus, describing the Germans, says that their chiefs are assisted in matters of justice by a hundred companions, and that in war each *pagus*, or district, furnishes a hundred warriors and the host. These bands, he tells us, are called "hundreds," but "what was once a number is now a name only." Thus the tribe is divided into "hundreds," which are already beginning to lose their connexion with a definite number of warriors, or fully free men. There is no specific evidence of any such division in England till Edgar's "Ordinance how the Hundred shall be held." But in the Frank kingdom the court of the hundred had been the most important part of the judicial machinery as early as the fifth century; and an arrangement of the land in hundreds seems to have been common to most German peoples. It is therefore probable that Edgar's measure was not the creation of the division into hundreds, but the employment for judicial and police purposes of a primitive territorial unit. It does not, however, follow that the hundreds were all originally of the same size; the district given to a hundred warriors would naturally vary in size according to the natural characteristics of the country, and to the amount of land at the disposal of each tribe at the time of the allotment. In historic times the hundreds varied from two square miles to three hundred square miles in area. According to William of Malmesbury, the division into hundreds and tithings was due to Alfred; but certainly Alfred did no more than revive the hundred as a basis of rating. Connecting this tradition with the fact of the first appearance of the name under Edgar, we may regard the revival or development of the hundredal system as a part of the work of reorganization after the Danish attack. The laws of Edgar mention a "hundreds-ealdor" who is to be consulted on questions of witness, and a "hundred-man" whose duty it is to pursue thieves. These may or may not be the same. In the thirteenth century the hundred was represented in the shire-moot by an elected ealdorman; it is therefore likely that the hundreds-ealdor, or hundred-man, was from the first an elected officer. He can scarcely be regarded as more than the convener of the court. In the twelfth century the hundreds were fast becoming dependent upon great lords who managed and took the profits of the court. The hundred-moot, wherein the whole body of suitors or freeholders present were judges, and which was probably presided over by a deputy of the sheriff, was held monthly. It had jurisdiction in all cases; was the court of first instance in criminal matters; and Canute decreed that no case should be brought before the king until it had been heard in the hundred court. The laws of Ethelred direct that "the twelve senior thegns go out and swear in the relic that they will accuse no innocent man nor conceal any guilty one"; the presentment of criminals was therefore probably part of the immemorial

work of the hundred court, and a representative body of twelve seems to have acted on behalf of the suitors as a sort of judicial committee. Upon the creation of the system of frankpledges (q.v.), a distinction arose between the great court of the hundred held twice yearly for the sheriff's tourn or view of frankpledge, and with specially full attendance, and the lesser court of the hundred under the bailiff for petty questions of debt. Its criminal jurisdiction was gradually taken from it on the one hand by the growth of the manorial courts-leet and of franchises, and on the other by the creation of the system of itinerant justices. From the twelfth century the hundred ceased to be of much political importance.

Stubbs, "Constitutional History." The laws are printed in Schmid, "Gesetzte der Angel-Sachsen" (see also his Glossary, s.v. *Hundred*); those of Edgar and the "Leges Henrici Primi" are in Stubbs's "Select Charters" (ed. H. W. C. Davis, 1913).

[W. J. A.]

Hundred Rolls, The, are the result of inquisitions taken by a commission appointed by Edward I at the beginning of his reign, to inquire into various grievances relating to illegal tolls, encroachments on royal and common lands, unlawful tradings, oppressions by the nobility and clergy, etc. These returns are of the greatest importance to the local historian and the genealogist. They derive their names from the fact that the inquiry was conducted from hundred to hundred. A jury in each hundred gave witness to the extent of the demesne lands of the Crown; of manors alienated from the Crown; the names of tenants-in-capite with their services, and the losses incurred by the Crown owing to subinfeudation; the extent of lands held in frankalmoign; the wardships, marriages, escheats, etc., wrongfully withheld from the Crown, and many other items of importance. These Rolls were published by command of the king in 1812.

Hundred Years' War, The (1338–1453), is the name generally applied to the long period of scarcely interrupted hostility between England and France, which began with Edward III's assertion by arms of his claims to the French throne, and did not finally end until the expulsion of the English from France during the reign of Henry VI. As roughly and vaguely indicating, at least, the culminating century of the long mediæval struggles between the two nations, the term is useful enough. But it must not be taken to indicate any definite war in the way that the terms Thirty Years' War or the Seven Years' War do. The long warfare was interrupted by more than one interval of peace, and more than once changed its character and objects. Despite the claims raised by Edward III in 1328 [Edward III], the accession of Philip of Valois was peaceful, and it was not until 1338 that hostilities began. A variety of causes of quarrel had long embittered the relations of England and France, when the strong support which Philip gave to the Scots made war inevitable, and Edward did his best to make the breach irreparable by his obtrusive reassertion of his old claim to the French throne. Strong in his national leadership of the English hatred of France, Edward, as Duke of Guienne, relied also on rallying the feudalists of the south to his side, while he concluded a close alliance with Louis of Bavaria, the imperial vassals of the Netherlands, and the anti-French party in the Flemish cities. From 1338 to 1340 an indecisive war was waged on the northern frontier of France, memorable only for Edward's naval victory of Sluys (June 24, 1340). The lukewarmness and desertion of Edward's allies necessitated a truce, which continued until the dispute between John of Montfort and Charles of Blois for the duchy of Brittany gave English and French, as partisans of Montfort and Charles respectively, an opportunity of renewing their quarrel. In 1345 the general war was resumed. Edward again established intimate relations with Ghent, and Derby in Guienne won the victory of Auberoche, though compelled the next year to stand a siege in Aiguillon. In 1346 Edward, in person, landed with a great army in Normandy, and after a destructive inroad, won the famous victory of Crécy (August 6, 1346), gave the English enduring prestige, and the possession of Calais, which surrendered after a famous siege in 1347. The Black Death (q.v.) now compelled a truce, and the war was not renewed until 1355, when a bloody foray of the Black Prince, at the head of the chivalry of Guienne, bore more fruit than Edward's abortive expedition from Calais. During a similar inroad in 1356 the Black Prince won the victory of Poitiers, where King John of France was taken prisoner. A period of extreme anarchy now set in, in France, of which King Edward availed himself to conclude the very favourable Peace of Brétigny (1360) (q.v.). The treaty was never really carried out, and the war in Brittany continued until the battle of Auray gave Montfort the duchy; and after the Black Prince had lost health and reputation in Spain, the appeal of the barons of Aquitaine led Charles V to renew the war openly in 1369. The skilful strategy of the Constable du Guesclin avoided pitched battles, and wore down the enemy by a partisan warfare of sieges, skirmishes, and ambuscades. The capture of Limoges was the last of the Black Prince's exploits. Lancaster traversed France from end to end in 1373, but he found no enemy and could win no durable results. By 1374 all Guienne was lost except two or three towns on the coast, and in the north Calais alone remained English. The feeble government of the minority of Richard II led the French, even under Charles VI, to retaliation on England; but the war continued very slackly, and with constant truces, until in 1397 Richard II, intent on despotism, established a close alliance with France, cemented by his marriage with Isabella of Valois. But the revolution of 1399 again embroiled England and

France in hostilities, and nothing but the weakness of Henry IV and the outbreak of the Burgundian and Armagnac factions prevented a serious renewal of the war; as it was, the judicious trimming of Henry led in 1411 to his securing full possession of Guienne. Henry V, with greater resources, renewed vigorous hostilities. On October 25, 1415, the battle of Agincourt (q.v.) gave him a victory over Burgundian and Armagnac, combined for once to defend their country. In 1417 a second expedition profited by the renewal of civil strife in France; and the capture of Rouen completed the conquest of Normandy. In 1419 the murder of John the Fearless drove the whole Burgundian party on to the English side. A marvellous change of feeling brought the monarchical north of France to welcome the national enemy and head of the feudal separatists. Paris opened its gates to Henry, and the Treaty of Troyes (q.v.) (1420) secured him the succession to the French throne. But Henry's premature death in 1422 led the dauphin, now Charles VII, to renew the war against the regent Bedford. Despite the victories of Crevant and Verneuil (q.v.), the Anglo-Burgundian party failed to hold their own south of the Loire. The mad folly of Bedford's brother alienated Burgundy. A national reaction set in, in France, which found its highest expression in the heroic career of the Maid of Orleans. In 1429 Joan relieved Orleans and defeated the English at Patay; marched to Rheims to crown Charles king, and, though unsuccessful in her attacks on Paris, succeeded in rekindling the spirit of nationality through all north France. The coronation of Henry VI at Paris, and Joan's capture and execution in 1431, failed to stem the tide. In 1435 Burgundy abandoned the English at the Congress of Arras (q.v.), and the death of Bedford completed their discomfiture. In 1437 Paris was lost. A peace party that recognized the futility of continuing the war now grew up in England, but their temporary triumph, though it led to the truce of 1446 and the marriage of Henry VI and Margaret of Anjou, failed to secure a permanent peace. In 1448 the war was renewed, and by 1449 all Normandy fell into the hands of the French. Guienne next fell, and in 1453 Calais alone remained in the English possession in France. The outbreak of the Wars of the Roses finally prevented any prolongation of the long struggle—which had caused so much misery and had been so barren of results—and which, if resulting in bracing up the national life of France, brought little to England but barren glory, chequered with disgrace, and a factious and unruly spirit that found its outcome in the civil wars that now fell upon the land.

Sir C. W. C. Oman, "History of the Art of War," 1924; T. F. Tout, "Political History of England, 1216–1377," 1920; Sir C. W. C. Oman, "Political History of England, 1377–1485," 1906; K. H. Vickers, "England in the Later Middle Ages," 1913; J. Mackinnon, "History of Edward III," 1900; J. H. Wylie, "The Reign of Henry V," 1914; R. B. Mowat, "Henry V," 1919; S. B. Terry, "Financing the Hundred Years' War," 1914; R. A. Newhall, "The English Conquest of Normandy, 1416–24," 1924.

[T. F. T.]

Hungarian Refugee Question, The (1851). In 1851 Louis Kossuth, the Hungarian revolutionary leader, came to England, and was received with great enthusiasm. The Austrian government (already offended by an attack at Barclay's brewery on the Austrian general, Haynau, September 1850, and by an unconciliatory note of Lord Palmerston's on the subject) looked on these proceedings with great distrust and suspicion, overrating, much as Kossuth himself did, the value of the demonstrations. Lord Palmerston had already used British influence to protect the Hungarian refugees in Turkey, and it became almost understood that if Palmerston received Kossuth at a private interview, as he proposed to do, the Austrian ambassador would leave the country. Lord John Russell grew alarmed, and the result of his remonstrances with Palmerston was that the latter promised to avoid an interview with Kossuth. He consented, however, to receive some deputations from various metropolitan parishes at the foreign office. The addresses brought by these bodies contained strong language with regard to the Austrian government. The whole transaction was eventually made one of the charges of independent action brought against Palmerston as the cause of his dismissal in 1852.

C. S. Sproxton, "Palmerston and the Hungarian Revolution," 1919.

Hunsdon, Henry Carey, 1st Lord (1524 ?–96). [Carey.]

Hunt, Henry (1773–1835), better known as "Orator Hunt," was born at Widdington, Wiltshire, and was a farmer in very well-to-do circumstances. In consequence, however, of some misunderstanding, he was expelled from the Marlborough yeomanry by Lord Bruce. He demanded satisfaction, and for this he was indicted in the King's Bench, found guilty, fined, and imprisoned. In prison he met Horne Tooke and other Radicals, who converted him to their party. In 1812 he stood for Bristol, where for some time he had been following the trade of a brewer. The poll was kept open for fourteen days, serious riots took place, and Hunt was beaten in this, as in many subsequent attempts to enter parliament. He now took to stump oratory, held Reform meetings at Westminster, and was especially conspicuous at Spa Fields and Manchester. A warrant was issued against him, and he was arrested at Manchester, tried and imprisoned (1820). During the excitement of the Reform Bill he displaced Lord Stanley as member for Preston, and entered the House of Commons (1830). Here he estranged most of his former associates, including Cobbett, and he was defeated at the 1832 election.

Hunt's "Memoirs," 1820; Spencer Walpole, "History of England from 1815," 1879.

Huntingdon was the seat of one of Edward the Elder's *burhs*, established about the end of the second decade of the tenth century. It was part of the East Anglian earldom of Harold, but later passed to Waltheof, son of Siward of Northumberland, and thence through Simon de St. Liz to David of Scotland. In the Middle Ages the history of the town is unimportant. It was one of the great centres of the Parliamentarians in the Civil War, being the home of the Cromwell family, and was plundered by the Royalists in 1645.

W. H. B. Saunders, "Legends of Huntingdonshire," 1888.

Huntingdon, PEERAGES OF. The evidence as to the existence of a pre-Conquest earldom of Huntingdon is scanty. Huntingdon was included among the territories ruled by Turi, usually styled Earl of the Middle English, and was later part of Harold's East Anglian earldom. Siward of Northumberland appears subsequently to have held it, and after him Tostig Godwinson, upon whose exile in 1065 it passed to Siward's son Waltheof. Waltheof, Earl of Huntingdon and Northampton, was beheaded in 1076 for complicity in the conspiracy of the Earls of Hereford and Norfolk. His daughter Maud married first Simon de St. Liz, and secondly David, afterwards King of Scotland, who successively bore the title of earl. The title then passed to David's younger son, Henry, and afterwards to his half-brother, Simon de St. Liz. Afterwards it reverted to the Scottish house, and was held by David's grandson, Malcolm, and by the latter's son William, both of whom were Kings of Scotland. William, however, was divested about 1174, and Simon de St. Liz, son of the Simon last named, became earl. Then followed David, brother of William, King of Scotland, with whose son the title became extinct (c. 1237). A new earldom was subsequently created in favour of William of Clinton (1337), and again of Guichard, Lord of Angle in Poitou (1377); but neither of these persons left heirs. In 1388 John Holland, afterwards Duke of Exeter, was made Earl of Huntingdon; this title was forfeited when his grandson Henry was attainted (1461). Ten years later Thomas Grey, afterwards Marquis of Dorset, was granted the earldom, which, however, he is stated to have resigned on receiving the marquisate; the former being now granted to William Herbert, Earl of Pembroke, who died without male issue (1491). In 1529 George, Baron Hastings, was created Earl of Huntingdon, and by his family the honour is still held.

Huntingdon, EARLS OF. [HASTINGS.]

Huntly, EARLS AND MARQUISES OF. [GORDON; SETON.]

Huskisson, WILLIAM (1770–1830), the son of William Huskisson of Oxley, near Wolverhampton, was educated for the profession of medicine. Shortly before the French Revolution he accompanied his uncle to Paris, and warmly entered into the feelings of the revolutionary party. He became a member of the "Club de Quatre-vingt-neuf," and of the London Corresponding Society, and turned his attention to international policy and commerce. He attracted the attention of Lord Gower, the British ambassador, who offered him the situation of private secretary (1790). In 1793 he was appointed to assist in the projected establishment of an office for arranging the affairs of the French refugees in England. In 1795 he became under-secretary of state for war, and was secretary for the treasury under Pitt (1804) and Perceval (1807). He was chief commissioner of woods and forests in 1814, and elected member for Liverpool in 1823. In that year he was made president of the board of trade, and with him a complete alteration came over our commercial policy, and the reign of protection began to give place and yield to free trade. In his first year he was not able to do much. He offered to remit the import duty on raw cotton if the manufacturers would consent to give up the export duty. This they declined. An attempt was made to free the Spitalfields silk manufacture from restrictions such as the settlement of their wages by a magistrate, but 11,000 journeymen petitioned against the project, and it was dropped. He was, however, successful in practically abolishing the old Navigation Act (q.v.), and thus freeing English and foreign shipping. In 1824 he reduced the duty on raw and spun silk, and lowered the import and export duty on wool. Under Canning Huskisson still retained his old post at the board of trade (1827). On the death of Canning, Huskisson succeeded Lord Goderich as secretary for the colonies (1827). A quarrel, however, shortly broke out about the appointment of a chairman to a finance committee, which was to be formed at the opening of the session, and Huskisson at once sent in his resignation. This produced the downfall of Lord Goderich's government. In 1828 he joined the Wellington ministry, but in a very few months a slight difference of opinion enabled the duke to insist upon his resignation on the East Retford question (q.v.). On September 15, 1830, Huskisson was accidentally killed on the occasion of the opening of the Liverpool and Manchester Railway.

Spencer Walpole, "History of England from 1815," 1879; A. Brady, "William Huskisson and Liberal Reform," 1928.

Hutchinson, JOHN (1615–64), was the son of Sir Thomas Hutchinson of Owthorpe, Notts. During the Civil War he was governor of Nottingham for the Parliament, a position of great importance as commanding the passage of the Trent. In 1646 he was elected member for Nottingham, and three years later sat in the High Court of Justice, and signed the king's death warrant. On the expulsion of the Long Parliament (1653) he retired into the country until it was reinstated by the army (October 1659). He was returned to the Convention

(May 1660), but though his life was spared he was, as a regicide, incapacitated from public employment. In October 1663 he was imprisoned, and died September 11, 1664. A certificate presented to the House of Lords in his favour in January 1661 affirmed that "above seven years ago, and from time to time ever since, Colonel Hutchinson hath declared his desire of the king's majesty's return to his kingdoms, and his own resolutions to assist in bringing his majesty back." It went on to state that he had been in correspondence with conspirators for that purpose, collected arms for it, and on all occasions assisted the king's friends. These statements, made with Hutchinson's knowledge and approval, throw considerable doubt on the account of his conduct given in his biography by his wife, noticed in the next article.

"Life of Colonel Hutchinson," by Mrs. Hutchinson (first pub. 1806, revised 1905).

Hutchinson, Lucy (1620–59), was the daughter of Sir Allen Apsley, lieutenant of the Tower, where she was born. In 1638 she married Colonel John Hutchinson, was his faithful attendant in all the dangers of his subsequent life, and compiled the memoirs of his life. This work, which is of the greatest importance for the period over which it extends, has been republished several times.

Hutchinson, Thomas (1711–80), was born at Boston. In 1760 he was appointed chief justice of Massachusetts. Nine years later he was made governor of the colony. In this capacity he refused to consent to the wishes of the people when they desired that the tea ships should be sent back without discharging their cargo (1773), and his conduct thus led to the famous destruction of the tea by the citizens of Boston. By this time Hutchinson had lost all the confidence of those whom he governed. Dr. Franklin had exposed the letters he had written to England, advocating a restriction of colonial liberty and the dispatch of troops to Boston. Recognizing his unpopularity, Hutchinson retired to England in 1774.

Hwiccas, The, were probably a mixed body of Angles and Saxons occupying the present counties of Gloucester and Worcester. Of the date of their settlement we have no certain indication, but it is probable that it followed Ceawlin's victory at Deorham in 577. In later days the Hwiccas were merged in the great kingdom of Mercia, but seem to have preserved some traces of their old independence even so late as the close of the seventh century, when Archbishop Theodore gave them a bishop of their own at Worcester.

Hyde, Anne (1637–71), was the daughter of Edward Hyde, Earl of Clarendon. In 1654 she became maid of honour to the Princess of Orange, and in 1659 a secret contract of marriage took place between her and the Duke of York. On September 3, 1660, she was privately married to the duke. Great efforts were made by the queen-mother to get the marriage annulled, and a plot was got up amongst the courtiers of the queen's party, by Sir Charles Berkeley and others, to induce the duke to repudiate her. These intrigues failed, and she was publicly acknowledged as Duchess of York in December 1660. Her daughter Mary was born April 2, 1662; Anne, February 6, 1664. In August 1670 the duchess became a Catholic. She died on March 31 of the following year.

Biography by J. R. Henslowe, 1915.

Hyde, Edward, 1st Earl of Clarendon (1609–74), son of Henry Hyde of Dinton, Wiltshire, entered Magdalen Hall, 1622, and the Middle Temple, 1625. When the Short Parliament was summoned, Hyde, who had obtained considerable reputation as a lawyer, was elected member for Wootton Bassett. In the Long Parliament he represented Saltash, and took a prominent part in the attack on the maladministration of the last twelve years. Legal abuses, such as the extraordinary courts, the ship-money judgment, the misconduct of the judges, and other causes which had brought into contempt "that great and admirable mystery the law," met with his chief attention. He shared in the earlier portion of the proceedings against Strafford, and his name is not among the list of those who voted against his attainder. But the question of Church government led to his separation from the popular party, and brought him into connexion with the king. In the autumn of 1641 he became, though without any official position, the confidential adviser of Charles, and the real leader of his party in the Commons. He thoroughly disapproved of the king's attempt to seize the Five Members (q.v.), but nevertheless continued in his service, drew up in secret the royal replies to the manifestos of the Parliament, and finally joined the king at York. His great work was the formation of the party of constitutional Royalists, whose leader and spokesman he was, and he now succeeded in persuading the king to abstain from unconstitutional action, and take his stand on his legal rights. Thus he gave the king a policy, and gathered round him a party. In the spring of 1643 he was knighted, made a privy councillor, and appointed chancellor of the exchequer. It was by his counsel that the king summoned the parliament which met in December at Oxford. In all negotiations he was the king's chief agent and adviser, and the Parliament recognized his importance by excepting him from pardon. When, in 1645, the Prince of Wales was sent into the West of England, Hyde went with him as one of his council, and also accompanied him in his flight from the advance of Fairfax, first to the Scilly Isles, then to Jersey (April 1646). In September 1648 the second Civil War and the rumour of an expedition to England called him to Holland to join Prince Charles, but in the spring of the next year

he was sent as ambassador to Madrid, and remained in Spain till 1651. At the end of 1652 he rejoined the young king, and from that time till the Restoration acted as his chief minister, being promoted in 1658 to the dignity of lord chancellor. During these years he managed the king's finances, conducted his negotiations with foreign courts, and carried on a constant correspondence with the disaffected in England, which survives in the collection entitled the "Clarendon State Papers." At the Restoration he drew up the Declaration of Breda (q.v.), and it was by his suggestion that the king, instead of attempting to arrange the terms on which he should be restored, referred them unreservedly to the future judgment of parliament. The king's return placed him at the head of the administration; he was elected chancellor of the University of Oxford (October 1660), and created Earl of Clarendon (April 1661). The marriage of his daughter (Anne Hyde) to the Duke of York, which had at first seemed to endanger his power, in the end confirmed it. In his domestic policy he tried to maintain the balance of the constitution against both king and parliament. He opposed the attempt to convert the king's Declaration of Indulgence (q.v.) into law (1663). It was afterwards charged against him that, when he might have secured a revenue which would have made the king independent of parliament, he preferred not to do so. "He had no mind," says Burnet, "to put the king out of the necessity of having recourse to his parliament." On the other hand, when the Cavalier majority of the House of Commons wished to repeal the Act of Indemnity (1662), he set his influence against it, and kept the king to his promises. "He often said it was the making those promises had brought the king home, and the keeping them must keep him at home." When parliament introduced the principle of appropriation of supplies (1665), and the system of auditing expenditures (1666), it was against his advice that the king yielded to them. In ecclesiastical matters he aimed at restoring the state of things which had existed before 1640. The Declaration of Breda had held out to the Nonconformists promises of comprehension and indulgence which were not observed. Clarendon, after some hesitating attempts at a compromise in favour of the Presbyterians, urged the re-establishment of the old ecclesiastical system in all its rigidity, and supported the enactment of the Corporation Act (1661), the Act of Uniformity (1662), the Conventicle Act, and the Five Mile Act (1665) [Clarendon Code]. Abroad, the alliance with France, which began under Cromwell's rule, was continued under Clarendon. He favoured the Portuguese match (1662), and negotiated the sale of Dunkirk (1662). He opposed the war with Holland (1665), but continued in office, and was made responsible by public opinion for its mismanagement. He had already been unsuccessfully impeached by the Earl of Bristol (1663). In August 1667 he was dismissed from the chancellorship, and two months later the House of Commons decided on his impeachment. The charges brought against him were corruption, the intention of introducing arbitrary government, and treachery in the late war. In obedience to the king's command, Clarendon fled to France. Parliament summoned him to return and stand his trial, and as he did not do so, sentenced him to exile for life. He therefore remained in France until his death, which took place on December 9, 1674. As a statesman Clarendon was honest and constant to his principles. His attachment to the Church never failed, and his influence with both his masters was always used to prevent changes in its government or discipline. "He did really believe the Church of England the most exactly formed and framed for the encouragement and advancement of learning and piety, and for the preservation of peace, of any Church in the world." For the constitution he had "a most zealous esteem and reverence; and believed it to be so equally poised that if the least branch of the prerogative was torn off or parted with, the subject suffered by it and that his right was impaired; and he was as much troubled when the Crown exceeded its just limits, and thought the prerogative hurt by it." During his first exile he wrote the first seven books of the "History of the Rebellion" and portions of the three subsequent books (1646–8). His object was to explain to posterity the success of the Rebellion, and "to vindicate the memory of those few who out of duty and conscience had opposed and resisted that torrent," i.e., to justify the constitutional Royalists. The rest of the "History of the Rebellion" was written during the second exile. Clarendon at first (1668–70) set to work on an autobiography in which he recounted his life down to the Restoration, and related over again much that he had written in the history. He then changed his mind, and decided to unite the two works, incorporating portions of the "Life" in the earlier work, and also using it to form the latter books of the history. Thus the "History of the Rebellion" consists of two parts, written at two periods; the first composed with the intention of writing a history, the second with the intention of writing a biography. Of these parts the first is the most valuable and the most accurate. The "Continuation of the Life" is an apology for Clarendon's administration, written in 1672 for the information of his children. The "History of the Rebellion in Ireland" was written to vindicate Lord Ormonde.

"History of the Rebellion," 1702; "Autobiography," 2 vols., 1857; "History of the Rebellion in Ireland," 1712; C. H. Firth, "Life of Clarendon," 1909; Sir H. Craik, "Clarendon," 2 vols., 1911; "Calendar of the Clarendon State Papers," 1869.

[C. H. F.]

Hyde, Edward, Viscount Cornbury and 3rd Earl of Clarendon (1661–1724), was the son of Henry, Earl Clarendon, and brother of the Earl of Rochester. On the landing of

the Prince of Orange, he led three regiments from Salisbury over to William's side; but, finding he could not completely accomplish this act of treachery, stole to the prince's quarters with a few followers. His signature, together with that of several other leading men, was appended to an association in favour of James forged by Robert Young, the Jacobite informer, but nothing could be proved against him (1692). He was subsequently governor of New York for six years, a post in which he displayed great incapacity. He is said upon one occasion to have dressed as a woman in order to represent the queen.

Hyde, Henry, 2nd Earl of Clarendon (1638–1709), was the son of Charles II's great minister. In 1685 he was appointed lord privy seal. At the end of the year he was appointed lord-lieutenant of Ireland. He found himself completely eclipsed in that country by the influence of Tyrconnel, and (as he was a sincere Protestant) his alarm was great when several Roman Catholics were sworn of the privy council. He nevertheless submitted to Tyrconnel's dictation, and when James threatened to dismiss him for his reluctant compliance in the reform of the army and administration, he wrote humble letters of apology. He was, however, dismissed in 1687, shortly after the dismissal of his brother, Rochester. He was invited to the consultation in aid of the Seven Bishops. When the Declaration of the Prince of Orange was published, he told the king that he had had no part in summoning him to England. He was much grieved at hearing that his son, Lord Cornbury, had deserted James, but at length joined the Prince of Orange at Salisbury. Finding that he was coldly received by William, he soon resumed his Tory principles, and endeavoured to persuade the Princess Anne to insist on her rights to the throne. He took part in the Jacobite plots of 1690. Before setting out for Ireland William sent warning to him through his brother, Rochester. He was subsequently arrested by order of the privy council. He again engaged in Jacobite plots, and letters from him to James were seized among Preston's papers. He was confined in the Tower for six months, but afterwards suffered to go free. On the death of Queen Mary he lost his influence with the Princess Anne. The remainder of his life was spent in obscurity.

Hyde, Lawrence, Earl of Rochester (1641–1711), second son of the great Earl of Clarendon, served as ambassador to John III of Poland in 1676, and as a commissioner at Nimeguen in 1677. He became first lord of the treasury in March 1679. He energetically defended the Duke of York during the struggle over the Exclusion Bill, and was rewarded by being created Viscount Hyde in 1681, and Earl of Rochester in 1682. He was in favour of a return to the foreign policy of the earlier years of the reign, a close alliance with France, while Halifax advocated the policy of the Triple Alliance. The influence of Halifax was the stronger, and Rochester was removed from the treasury in 1684. But shortly afterwards Charles II died; James II at once created his brother-in-law lord treasurer, and he became practically prime minister. But Rochester, though ready to go far in the direction of despotic government, was strongly attached to the English Church, and by no means inclined to support James in his measures for the restoration of Catholicism. A struggle for office ensued between Rochester and the more pliant Sunderland, and when the former definitely refused to change his religion he was dismissed (1687). In 1700 William III thought it necessary to court the support of the High Church party, and called its leader, Rochester, to the cabinet. In the same year he was made lord-lieutenant of Ireland. Dissatisfied with the admission of a few Whigs into the first ministry of Anne, he came over from Ireland and strenuously opposed the carrying on of the war with France. He was ordered to return to Ireland, refused to do so, and sent in his resignation in 1703. In 1710 he became lord president in Harley's ministry, and died in 1711.

Character-sketch in T. B. Macaulay, "History of England," chap. ii.

Hyde, Sir Robert (1595–1665), was a first cousin of the Earl of Clarendon. In 1640 he was returned to the Long Parliament as member for Salisbury, and joined the court party; and in 1644 he was a member of the Oxford Parliament. During the Protectorate he continued his practice at the bar, and on the Restoration was made a judge of the Common Pleas. In 1663 he was promoted to be chief justice of the King's Bench.

Hyder Ali (1722 ?–82) was a Mohammedan soldier of humble extraction, the son of a petty revenue officer. He entered the service of the Raja of Mysore, and about the year 1759 he succeeded in making himself master of the whole country. Out of the wrecks of the old principalities of South India he soon founded for himself a compact Mohammedan kingdom, and became a most formidable enemy of the British. He was the terror of all his neighbours, the Mahrattas of Poona, the Nawab of the Carnatic, and the Nizam of Hyderabad; while at the same time he was intriguing with the French at Pondicherry. His intrigues roused the suspicions of the British, and more especially so when Nizam Ali deserted their side for that of Hyder. The two new allies invaded the Carnatic, but were driven back, whereupon Nizam Ali renewed his alliance with the British (1768). For the next ten years Hyder Ali was engaged in quietly strengthening his army and his state. At last, on the outbreak of war between the British and the French in 1778, he was enraged at the British expedition sent by way of Mysore from Madras, against the French settlement of Mahé. This

action decided Hyder Ali's mind. Bursting into the Carnatic at the head of 100,000 men, he laid the whole country waste with fire and sword (1780). He had allied himself with the French; Nizam Ali and the Mahrattas had engaged to support his arms, and the case of the British seemed very desperate for a time. But Warren Hastings, the governor-general, was more than equal to the occasion. Negotiations secured the friendship, or at least the neutrality, of the Nizam; while Sir Eyre Coote was dispatched against Hyder himself. The great leader of the war was defeated at Porto Novo (1781), and all immediate danger was over from that side. A year and a half later Hyder Ali died suddenly at Chittur (1782).

L. B. Bowring, "Haidar Ali and Tipu Sultan," 1893. [B. S.]

Hyderabad, The Battle of (March 1843), was fought during the Sind War of 1842–4 between Shir Mohammed and Sir Charles Napier. The former was completely defeated.

"Annual Register," 1843.

I

Ibea. [East Africa, British Dominions in.]

Iberians, a name given to the pre-Celtic population of the British Isles, who are supposed to have been of Eastern origin, and to have followed the northern shore of the Mediterranean and the western shore of the Atlantic in their migrations. They were of short stature and swarthy countenance, and were conquered and absorbed by the Celts, who invaded Britain in successive waves in the centuries preceding the Roman invasions. Traces of their language are supposed to exist in certain peculiarities of Welsh, and the Druidic religion has been thought to have been derived from them by the Goidelic Celts. The population in parts of South Wales, moreover, is of the Iberian type, and Iberian characteristics have also been discerned in the small dark Highlander and the Black Celts to the west of the Shannon.

Ibhar, or Iberius, St. (*d.* 500 ?), Bishop of Begerin, was probably a pupil of St. Patrick, and received the name of Ibhar on becoming a Christian. He lived first in the Aran Islands in Galway Bay, afterwards on Geshille Plain, King's County, and later in the island of Begerin in Wexford Haven. He kept a school, and soon gathered monks around him, and his memory is preserved in various local traditions. He died at Begerin.

Iceni, The, were an ancient British tribe occupying an area roughly corresponding to the modern counties of Suffolk, Norfolk, Cambridge, and Huntingdon. On the invasion of Claudius (A.D. 43), they hastened, under their king Prasutagus, to make submission to the emperor; being probably actuated by hostility to the family of Cymbeline (q.v.). In A.D. 48 they revolted against Ostorius Scapula, but were suppressed with comparative ease, and granted easy terms. In A.D. 60 a much more serious rising was provoked by Roman maladministration and injustice, the leader on this occasion being the famous Boudicca (q.v.): the suppression of this rebellion marked the final subjugation of this tribe, and the end of its independent existence.

Sir C. Oman, "England Before the Norman Conquest."

Ida, King of Bernicia (*d.* 559), is said to have been the founder of that kingdom (547); but this phrase is perhaps to be interpreted as meaning that he united the various petty Anglian settlements existing in that district into one kingdom. His descent is traced from Woden, and he is spoken of as having been a wise and temperate ruler. Ida is said to have been in the prime of his life when he became king. He built the great fortress of Dinguardi or Dinguoaroy, later called Bebbanburgh, after Bebba, Ethelfrith's queen (the modern Bamburgh). Ida's immediate kingdom probably did not extend south of the Tees, though his power may have been felt beyond that river, for the kingship of Deira, between the Tees and the Humber, does not appear to have been founded previous to his death. He reigned twelve years, and is said to have fallen in a battle against the Britons, with whom he was engaged in constant conflict. The advance of heathen power under him and his sons (six of whom reigned in succession over their father's kingdom) caused a widespread apostasy from Christianity among the Picts.

Iddesleigh, Henry Stafford Northcote, 1st Earl of (1818–87). [Northcote.]

Iknield (or Icknield) **Way,** The. [Roman Roads.]

"**Ikon Basilike:** or, the True Portraiture of his Sacred Majesty in his Solitudes and Sufferings," was a work published some ten days after Charles I's death, and purported to have been written by that king in the last years of his life. It is divided into twenty-eight chapters, almost every one of which is appropriate to some remarkable incident in the closing years of the king's life. A short sketch of some event or reflection upon it is given, and to this is appended a prayer applicable to the occasion. So Chapter iii, entitled, "Upon his Majestie's going to the House of Commons," begins with an explanation of the king's reasons for this step—"To call in question half a dozen men in a fair and legall way, which God knowes was all my design"; an explanation of the fact that he was attended by some gentlemen of his ordinary

guard, and a declaration that he had no design of overawing the freedom of the House. After two pages of such meditation follows a short prayer of some half a page in length, calling God to witness his innocence, and praying for forgiveness on his enemies. The work had an immense sale, though to modern eyes it must seem a somewhat dull performance. Fifty editions are said to have been sold within a year, and it was in vain that parliament gave orders to seize the book. So great was its popularity that in October 1649 Milton had to publish his "Eikonoklastes," or Image-breaker, in answer. The authorship of the "Eikon Basilike" has generally been attributed to John Gauden (q.v.), afterwards Bishop of Exeter.

"Eikon Basilike" (edition of 1904); Milton, "Eikonoklastes."

Immigration. With the exception of the immigration of the Huguenot families from France to this country after the revocation of the Edict of Nantes, the population of Great Britain was never very largely increased from external sources until within the nineteenth century. The great influx within that period of destitute Russian, Polish, Rumanian, and German Jews drew public attention to the evil, and in 1888 and 1889 parliamentary committees were appointed to consider the questions of foreign pauper immigration and the sweating system. A royal commission was later instituted, and in its report, issued in 1903, it recommended that state legislation should be adopted and enforced to prevent the country from being burdened with undesirable aliens. In 1905 an Aliens Act was passed to check the immigration of such aliens. It was superseded in 1914 by the British Nationality and Status of Aliens Act (amended 1918 and 1922). [Aliens.]

Impeachment is the name given to the judicial process by which any man, from the rank of a peer downwards, may be tried before the House of Lords at the instance of the House of Commons. In this case the Commons are the prosecutors, while the Lords combine in their own persons the functions of judge and jury. The process of conducting an impeachment is explained by Sir Erskine May as follows:—Some member of the Lower House charges the accused with high treason, or any other offence of which he may be considered guilty. If he succeeds in winning the House over to his opinion, he is empowered to go to the bar of the House of Lords and there impeach the offender. A committee is next appointed to draw up the articles of impeachment, which are then forwarded to the Lords in writing, with a reservation of power on the part of the Commons to add to the original counts if necessary. A day is then appointed for the trial, which generally takes place in Westminster Hall, under the presidency of the lord high steward if the accused is a peer, or of the lord chancellor in other cases. Certain managers conduct the case on behalf of the Lower House, and the accused may defend himself by counsel. Witnesses are called on both sides, and the whole series of charges is gone through article by article; the accusers are bound to confine themselves to the charges contained in the articles of impeachment, and when they have finished, the offender enters on his defence, after which the prosecutors have a right of reply. All the evidence being then completed, each peer in succession delivers his verdict on the first article in the words, "Guilty [or Not Guilty], upon my honour." And so on for every count. In conclusion, the lord chancellor or lord high steward reckons up the number of votes, and a simple majority acquits or condemns upon each charge. Though the House of Lords may have delivered its verdict, judgment is not to be pronounced unless the House of Commons demand it by their Speaker. On the other hand, in 1679, the House of Commons protested against the Earl of Danby's right to plead the king's pardon when impeached, and by the Act of Settlement (1701) it was made part of the law of the realm "that no pardon under the Great Seal of England shall be pleadable to an impeachment by the Commons in Parliament."

The first case of an impeachment in which both Houses took part would appear to be at the time of the attack on Richard Lyons and Lord Latimer, in the Good Parliament of 1376. Of course in this case we cannot expect to have the full record of proceedings which have characterized the impeachments of much later centuries; and in fact it seems to have been the whole parliament, and not the barons alone, who imprisoned these offenders. The impeachment of the Earl of Suffolk some ten years later (1386) seems to have been more in accordance with those of later times, for the Commons were clearly the prosecutors in this case, while it was the Lords who decided the question of his guilt. In a similar way, the judges who had in 1387 given their decision against the legality of the commissioners appointed in the preceding year were next year impeached by the Commons and found guilty by the Lords (1388). From this time it is hardly necessary to carry on the instances of impeachment down to later times in any detail. The practice was not discontinued for any very long period till the accession of the house of York; but from the reign of Edward IV the institution seems to have fallen into disuse, till it was revived in the reign of James I. Under the house of Tudor the Commons were too closely in accord with the royal authority to make use of their old privilege on their own account, and when the sovereign wished to be rid of an obnoxious subject he found a bill of attainder a readier instrument for effecting his ends. With the revival of the spirit of liberty in the first half of the seventeenth century, impeachments once more became frequent: the first two important instances being those of

Francis Bacon (q.v.) in 1621 and the Earl of Middlesex in 1624. Buckingham, who had been very urgent in inducing the Commons to proceed against the latter nobleman, would in his turn have been impeached a few years later had not the king dissolved parliament for the purpose of saving him (1626). The cases of Strafford, Laud, Danby, Warren Hastings, Melville, etc., will be found alluded to under the articles devoted to these statesmen; but that of Fitzharris (q.v.) in the year 1681 deserves a passing notice as being the occasion on which the Commons affirmed their "right to impeach any peer or commoner for treason, or any other crime or misdemeanour." This claim of the Commons seems to have been practically conceded to them, but Blackstone and Lord Campbell are agreed "that a commoner cannot be impeached before the Lords *for any capital offence*, but only for high misdemeanours." The last impeachment in English history was that of Lord Melville (1805), but an unsuccessful attempt was made to impeach Lord Palmerston in 1848.

Sir T. Erskine May, "Constitutional History," ed. F. Holland, 3 vols., 1912; W. S. Holdsworth, "History of English Law," vol. i, 1922; Sir W. Anson, "Parliament." [T. A. A.]

Imperial Conference, The, from 1907 has been an integral part of the machinery of government of the British Commonwealth of Nations. It developed from various colonial conferences which embodied a vague imperial sentiment in late nineteenth-century politics, and was constituted as a conference of prime ministers of the self-governing Dominions with the prime minister of Great Britain assisted by some of their ministers, to meet every four years to discuss matters of common interest. It was provided with a permanent secretariat on Lord Elgin's reorganization of the colonial office and modified in 1917 to admit India. In 1923 Ireland was first represented.

On the occasion of Queen Victoria's Jubilee in 1887, Stanhope called a conference of all colonial governors. Delegates arrived from all the self-governing colonies, Natal, Western Australia, and some of the Crown colonies, and discussed the organization of colonial defence with especial reference to Pacific naval problems and communications. From this resulted the Imperial defences inspection by Sir Bevan Edwards in 1890 and the Intercolonial conference at Melbourne which led to Australian federation largely for purposes of defence. In 1894 delegates from all the Australasian colonies, and the Cape and Canada, met at Ottawa on the invitation of the Dominion to discuss intercolonial trade and colonial trade with Great Britain. Resolutions in favour of an Imperial preferential tariff, a British-owned mail service between Great Britain and Australia via Canada, and of a Canada-Australian cable under British control were passed. Work was begun on the cable in 1902. On Queen Victoria's completion of sixty years' reign in 1897 the premiers of all the self-governing colonies were invited to London, and Joseph Chamberlain took occasion to hold a private conference on defence and trade relations. This was followed by Great Britain's denunciation, at the colonies' request, of existing commercial treaties with Germany and Belgium, and by the Canadian Tariff Act giving a British preference. In 1902 the premiers of the self-governing colonies were present at King Edward VII's coronation, and a conference resulted in an improved Australasian naval agreement and offers from the Cape and Natal to increase their contribution to the Imperial navy, to which Newfoundland now added a grant.

These colonial conferences were but a prelude to the Imperial Conferences which followed. Lyttelton's dispatch of 1905 suggesting a regular Imperial Conference was embodied in Resolution 1 of the conference of the prime ministers of all the self-governing colonies, including the newly-created Transvaal, held in 1907. The conference was given a constitution, the title of Imperial, and a permanent secretariat. It resolved that a general staff for Imperial defence and mail communications with Australia via Canada be established, that emigration should be encouraged to the colonies, and that uniformity of naturalization and company laws, trade statistics and marks be attempted, and that the rules governing colonial appeals to the judicial committee of the privy council be codified and brought up to date. It also reaffirmed the 1902 resolution for preferential trade, but to this the representatives of H.M.'s government were unable to agree. To embody these resolutions, orders-in-council were issued regulating appeal procedure; trade commissioners, a kind of consular service for commercial relations, were established in Canada, Australia, New Zealand, and South Africa, and an agent of the board of trade in Newfoundland; trade statistics of the Dominions were modified to show their trade with Great Britain and the empire, and some steps were taken towards uniformity in company and naturalization law and in trade-marks and patents.

A Defence Conference was held in 1909, and Australia and New Zealand substantially contributed to the Pacific squadron, while the Canadian fleet was inaugurated and a plan for Imperial mobilization drawn up. A copyright conference was held in 1910 to accept the Revised Copyright Convention of Berlin (1908), the acceptance of which was embodied in subsequent legislation (1911–23).

The Imperial Conference of 1911 was attended by all the prime ministers and by two other ministers each from Canada, Australia, and South Africa, and one each from New Zealand and Newfoundland. The constitution of the conference was approved and the question of how far colonies could be consulted in treaty-making was thoroughly discussed in view of the fact that the Declaration of London

(1908) had been concluded without consultation. It was agreed that consultation should precede instructions for the Hague Conference, that conventions, etc., affecting the Dominions be circulated before being signed, and that Great Britain would approach foreign powers so to alter existing treaties with Great Britain as to allow the Dominions to be excepted therefrom if they wished. This was subsequently done in the case of commercial treaties with Sweden, Norway, Denmark, France, Costa Rica, Colombia, and Switzerland. It was also resolved, and carried out, to appoint two more lords of appeal for colonial cases and the number of overseas judges to be members of the judicial committee of the privy council raised to seven. With regard to emigration the colonial secretary declared that no more workers could be spared from Great Britain. The British Nationality and Status of Aliens Act, 1914, was redrafted to suit a resolution of the conference, and similar legislation passed in Canada, Newfoundland, in Australia (1921), and South Africa (1926), to give recognition to empire citizenship. Action was also taken with regard to cables, and a royal commission on the resources and trade of the empire with a view to improving intercolonial trade was appointed and reported at length by 1917. Shipping equality was also discussed and representatives from the four dominions signed the International Radiotelegraphic Convention in London, 1912.

The next Imperial Conference was postponed owing to the Great War, but various Imperial developments on similar lines are interesting. At Mr. Lloyd George's suggestion an Imperial war cabinet of the British cabinet with the addition, on a basis of equality, of the Dominion premiers and a representative from India was formed and held sessions in 1917 and 1918. In the latter session it was affirmed that Dominion prime ministers could communicate direct at will with the prime minister of Great Britain and could appoint a visiting delegate to attend the war cabinet meetings. Simultaneous Imperial War Conferences were held, with the colonial secretary as chairman, which resolved in favour of Imperial preference, recognized the "Dominions as autonomous nations of an Imperial Commonwealth," and their right, with India, "to have an adequate voice in foreign policy and foreign relations," all this compatibly with local autonomy, and proposed to embody these in a post-war conference. An Imperial Mineral Resources Bureau was set up, India was given the status of a Dominion and reciprocity of treatment agreed upon, while the question of double income taxation was mooted. The Imperial War Graves Commission was also set up. The conference of 1918 also reviewed Imperial economics and set up a committee on raw materials, minerals, petroleum, and dyes, while post-war supervision of shipping, an Imperial news service, transatlantic cable, and an intercolonial parcels delivery service were agreed upon and an Imperial Court of Appeal, naturalization, Imperial migration, statistics, and demobilization discussed. Specified conditions were laid down for reciprocity in the matter of Indian emigration. Imperial co-operation in the peace negotiations followed preliminary discussions in London, and two delegates each from Australia, South Africa, Canada, and India, with one from New Zealand and five for the British Empire, formed the British Empire delegation which used the panel system in meetings and ultimately signed the Peace Treaty as six separate powers, all of whom became original members of the League of Nations.

The Overseas Settlement Committee was formed in 1918 and state-aided emigration encouraged, while the 1919 budget gave a one-sixth Imperial preference on tea, cocoa, sugar, and tobacco, while the Mineral Resources Bureau was incorporated by a royal charter.

In 1920 Imperial statistical, entomological, and forestry conferences were held, and in 1922 an Imperial customs conference as well, while the Imperial Shipping Committee under Sir H. Mackinder issued a number of reports. The findings of the royal income-tax commission on double income taxation within the empire were embodied in the 1920 Finance Act and co-ordinated by legislation with Australia and New Zealand. A beginning was also made to carry out the 1920 report on high-power wireless stations.

The Imperial Conference of 1921 held in London under the chairmanship of Mr. Lloyd George (Newfoundland alone not being represented) considered in detail Imperial foreign policy and concomitant subjects, empire settlement and citizenship, defence and communications, and shipping. This was a useful preparation for the Washington Conference at which Canada, Australia, New Zealand, and India were represented and participated in the limitation of naval armaments, the Quadruple Pacific Treaty, and the Nine-power treaty *re* China conventions. The Dominions were also represented at the International Conference at Genoa and the technical conference at The Hague in 1922.

In 1922 the Empire Settlement Act granted one and a half, for 1922–3, and three millions subsequently for empire settlement. Legislation on status embodied resolutions of the previous conference. A conference on an empire patent (1922) was also held.

In 1923 an Imperial Conference was held concurrently with the Imperial Economic Conference (under the president of the board of trade), at both of which the Irish Free State was represented. An understanding was reached on the main heads of foreign policy, and treaty negotiation, signature, and ratification discussed. The status of high commissions was fixed and various matters of defence discussed.

At the Imperial Economic Conference (1923) the colonies and protectorates were represented

as well as the self-governing Dominions, and resolutions passed in favour of Imperial preference, overseas settlement, financial co-operation for Imperial development, better Imperial communications and defence, while a permanent Imperial economic committee was advocated. The first and the last of these resolutions alone were not accepted by the Labour government of 1924 and parliament did not pass the preferential tariff proposals. In 1923 a British Empire Forestry Conference had been held in Canada and an Imperial Mycological Conference in 1924. The London Reparation Conference of 1924 followed from a discussion in 1923 of the United States' offer to participate in an inquiry. The Singapore naval base was negatived by Mr. MacDonald in 1924, but accepted by Mr. Baldwin, while Mr. MacDonald's suggestion to discuss foreign policy was negatived by Mr. Baldwin.

Neither Great Britain, Canada, Australia, New Zealand, South Africa, India, nor the Irish Free State would accept in 1924 the protocol for the pacific settlement of international disputes put forward by the fifth assembly of the League of Nations. In 1925 preferential tariffs were granted without raising existing duties and colonial state enterprises rendered immune from taxation; the Imperial Institute was reorganized, progress made in wireless communication with the outer empire, and an Empire Marketing Board set up with a grant of half a million. An Imperial Entomological Conference was also held (1925). The Dominions were kept informed of negotiations during 1925 of the Treaty of Locarno, and in the mutual Guarantee of London provision was made for the self-exclusion of the Dominions and India on the receipt of notice.

The chief work of the Imperial Conference of 1926 was done by a committee of prime ministers and heads of delegates under Lord Balfour on the general principles to govern inter-Imperial relations. Recognition was made of "autonomous communities within the British Empire, equal in status, in no way subordinate one to another, in any aspect of domestic or external affairs, though united by a common allegiance to the Crown and freely associated as members of the British Commonwealth of Nations."

The title of the king was changed to "George V by the Grace of God, of Great Britain, Ireland, and the British Dominions beyond the Seas, King, Defender of the Faith, Emperor of India," while the governor-general in a Dominion was recognized as being the representative of the Crown rather than of the government at Westminster, and no longer the formal channel of communication, the Dominion premier now having direct access. In foreign relations, Locarno was approved and the protocol *re* a permanent court of international justice and compulsory arbitration were discussed.

Special committees were appointed on some of the main topics, e.g., League of Nation mandates, shipping, and general economic sub-committees, e.g., on films and research, were set up.

Parliamentary papers embodying conference reports: 1887, cd. 5091; 1894, cd. 7553; 1897, cd. 8596; 1902, cd. 1299; 1907, cd. 3523; 1911, cd. 5745 and 8462, 5746–52, 7347; 1917, cd. 8566; 1918, cd. 9177; 1921, cd.; 1923, cd. 1987 and 1988; E. Con. 1923, cd. 1990 and 2009; 1926, cd. 2768 and 2769; Dominions Office and Colonial Office List, 1927; R. Jebb, "The Imperial Conference," 2 vols., 1911.

[H. R.]

Impressment. The practice of impressment, or compelling men to serve in the navy, seems to date back to a very early period of our history. It is said to have been in full force in the reign of John, that is, from the time of almost the first English king who was possessed of a regular royal fleet. Towards the end of the same century we find Edward I empowering William de Leybourne to *impress* men, vessels, and arms for the manning of his fleet. So, too, we read in the Black Book of the Admiralty that if a mariner who had been pressed for the king's naval service ran away he should undergo a year's imprisonment. The same penalty for the same offence may be traced in the legislation of later sovereigns, Richard II (1378), Henry VI (1439), and Elizabeth (1562–3), showing that this method of manning the royal vessels was in full force during these centuries. Towards the middle of the sixteenth century we come across what seems to be a serious attempt to make it criminal for a man to take steps for eluding impressment. In 1555 (2 and 3 Philip and Mary, xvi, 6), a very harsh law was passed against the Thames bargemen, according to which if any watermen "shall willingly, voluntarily, and obstinately hyde themselves in the tyme of prestying into secret places and out corners," they should suffer a fortnight's imprisonment and be debarred from following their calling for another year. A more generous enactment some seven or eight years later (1562–3) attempted to restrain the arbitrary character of impressments by enjoining that "no fisherman haunting the sea should be taken by the queen's commission to serve her highness as a mariner on the sea," without the commissioners having first consulted two neighbouring justices of the peace. Still more indulgent was the spirit displayed in a statute of 1695, according to which the lord high admiral was empowered to grant letters "to any landsmen desirous to apply themselves to the sea services and to serve in merchant shipps which shall be to them a protection against being impressed for a space of two years or more." The provisions of the act of 1555, with somewhat altered details and increased penalties, were, however, re-enacted after a lapse of one hundred and fifty years under Queen Anne (1705). Under George II the impressment question was once more taken up and its stringency modified (1739–40). By a statute

passed in this reign it was decreed that all persons above fifty-five and under eighteen years of age should be exempt from impressment; and an attempt to encourage men to adopt a sailor's life was made at the same time by a clause which granted freedom from the above liability to all sailors who chose to demand it for two years from the time of their first going to sea. An act of William IV's reign improved the position of the impressed sailor still further by limiting his term of service to five years—unless in a case of urgent necessity when the admiral might enlarge it by six months (1835). By this time, however, the practice of impressment, which had been very extensively used during the great wars in the opening years of the century, had been rapidly losing ground, and its place is now altogether supplied by voluntary enlistment. Impressment is, however, still legal, though the Naval Enlistment Act of 1853 has, perhaps, the effect of limiting the liability to serve to seafaring men.

J. R. Hutchinson, "Press Gang Afloat and Ashore," 1913. [T. A. A.]

Incident, The (1641), is the name given to a supposed plot to assassinate the Earls of Hamilton and Argyll during the visit of Charles I to Scotland in the summer of 1641. Although a parliamentary inquiry was instituted, the circumstances still remain shrouded in mystery; and it is scarcely possible to do more than guess at the real nature of the affair. It is said that the scheme was Montrose's, and that Charles I himself was privy to it; but there seems to be no foundation for the statement. Ludovick Lindsay, Earl of Crawford, was one of its most prominent authors.

P. Hume Brown, "History of Scotland," 1911.

Income Tax. The history of the income tax as a recognized means of supplementing the other financial resources of the State dates from the time of William Pitt's premiership, when (in 1799) a bill was passed imposing a graduated tax on all incomes above £60 a year. This tax continued to be levied till the end of the continental war, with the exception of a slight break for part of the years 1802 and 1803; and by the year 1806 had reached the rate of 10 per cent. It was not renewed after 1816 till the time of Sir Robert Peel's second administration (1841), when it was levied for three years at the rate of sevenpence in the pound, a deduction of £150 being allowed on all incomes. Time after time it was then renewed—but always for a limited period only, till in 1853 arrangements were made for its gradual extinction in seven years. Then, however, the Russian war intervened, and instead of being reduced it was doubled. From this time it has become a regular item in the revenue; and it has now almost entirely lost its original character of a special war-tax, though an increase in its rate still remains the readiest means of meeting the expenses of a war. In 1907 differential treatment was applied to earned and unearned incomes, a lower rate being imposed on the former. Since then further allowances for family obligations and relief in other special cases have been allowed, several changes having been introduced as a result of the report of the Royal Commission on the income tax in 1920. In 1910 a super-tax was imposed on incomes in excess of £5,000. The effect of the War of 1914–18 has been to bring down the super-tax limit to £2,000, increasing until 6s. in the pound is charged on all in excess of £30,000. The ordinary income-tax rate reached its highest point in 1918 when it stood at 6s.

Seligman, "The Income Tax"; Rees, "A Short Fiscal and Financial History, 1815–1918"; Acworth, "Financial Reconstruction, 1815–1822"; Buxton, "Finance and Politics."

Independents. [Congregationalism.]

India. History.—The history of the British connexion with India dates from the days when Vasco da Gama rounded the Cape, and sighted the shores of Hindustan, on May 17, 1498. Indian products began to find their way to Europe first through the hands of the Portuguese, and then through the Venetians, who carried on their Eastern trade by way of Egypt and the Red Sea, thus anticipating the important route of modern times. On December 31, 1600, a charter was granted to "the Governor and Company of the Merchants trading unto the East Indies," entitling them to exclusive trade with the countries between the Cape of Good Hope and the Straits of Magellan. The first vessels dispatched returned home with cargoes of cinnamon, cloves, and pepper, and realized 95 per cent. profit on the capital invested. It was soon evident that the English would have to defend themselves against the jealousy of the Portuguese and Dutch, and a new charter was granted, with stringent provisions against "interlopers." In 1612 Captain Best repulsed a vastly superior Portuguese fleet, landed all his goods at the Surat factory, and obtained a confirmation of a commercial treaty between the Mogul emperor and the British.

During the following years subordinate agencies were started at Gogra, Ahmedabad, Cambay, and Ajmer, and at various places in the Indian archipelago. This led to numerous broils with the Portuguese and Dutch, which culminated in a massacre by the Dutch at Amboyna, in 1623. For this outrage the Dutch had to pay £3,615 as compensation; but from that date until the great naval wars, which began in 1793, they became supreme in those parts, and practically monopolized the trade of the Indian archipelago. In 1634 the company obtained a *firman* from the Great Mogul for permission to trade in Bengal, whence the Portuguese were expelled. Five years later Fort St. George, or Madras, was founded, and in 1661 Bombay was ceded to the British Crown as part of the dowry of Catherine of Braganza, and was subsequently transferred by Charles II to the East India Company. The separation of Bengal from

Madras, 1681, was followed by Charles I's grant of the right of war and peace. Rival companies tried to prevent the renewal of the company's charter, but largesse and Godolphin tided the difficulties by 1708, when the rival Whig company was absorbed.

Our earliest territorial possession in India properly so-called was Madras, which was founded by Francis Day and purchased from the Raja of Chandragiri for an annual rent of about £500 to the representatives of the Mogul Empire. On the death of Aurungzeb (q.v.), in 1707, southern India broke up into a number of minor states. In 1744 war broke out between the French and British, and two years later Madras surrendered to a French squadron under La Bourdonnais. Indecisive hostilities followed, but the Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, in 1748, restored Madras to the British. Their first successes had, however, inspired Dupleix with the ambition of founding a French empire in India, under the shadow of the Mohammedan powers. The British and French favoured the claims of rival candidates to the throne of Arcot. A war ensued, the chief incident of which was the capture and subsequent defence of Arcot in 1751 by Clive. For some years it continued, and culminated in 1760 in a final struggle, which was crowned by the decisive victory obtained by Colonel (afterwards Sir Eyre) Coote at Wandewash over the French. Pondicherry and Ginjee subsequently capitulated, and the French were expelled from Hindustan.

In Bengal, in 1740, Ali Vardi Khan, a usurper, but the last of the great nawabs of Bengal, ruled over Bengal, and in his days the Mahratta horsemen began to ravage up to the walls of Calcutta. The "Mahratta ditch" (q.v.) was constructed to keep them off. Ali Vardi Khan's grandson, Shuja-ud-Dowlah (q.v.), a youth of ferocious temper, marched on Calcutta with a large army in pursuit of an escaped kinsman who had aggrieved him, and thrust the remnant of the British who failed to fly at his approach into the "Black Hole," or military prison of Fort William. Out of 146 who were imprisoned therein during that fatal night in June, only 23 survived. Clive and Admiral Watson promptly sailed from Madras to the Ganges, recovered Calcutta, and induced the nawab to conclude a peace advantageous to the company. But the outbreak of hostilities between the British and French found Shuja-ud-Dowlah ranged on the side of the latter. Clive by a daring attack routed the nawab's force at Plassey (1757) (q.v.). Mir Jafar (q.v.), Clive's nominee, was placed on the viceregal throne at Murshidabad for vast sums of money, while the nawab made a grant to the company of the landholders' rights over the district of the Twenty-four Pergunnahs, an extent of 882 square miles around Calcutta.

In 1758 Clive was appointed the first governor of all the company's settlements in Bengal. He defeated the Shahzada, and finally crushed French influence throughout the nizam's territories. The return of Clive to England was followed by the dethronement of Mir Jafar and the substitution in his place of Mir Kasim (q.v.), his son-in-law, who provoked hostilities with the company. A massacre of Englishmen and sepoys at Patna and a sepoy mutiny, quelled by Major Munro, were followed by the battle of Buxar, 1764, which brought the ruler of Oudh and the Mogul emperor to the feet of the British.

The following year Clive (now Baron Clive of Plassey, and for the second time governor of Bengal) proceeded to Allahabad, and restored Oudh to the Nawab Vizir on payment of half a million sterling. The diwani, or fiscal administration of Bengal, Bihar, and Orissa, and the territorial jurisdiction of the Northern Circars were granted to the company, a puppet nawab was maintained on an allowance at Murshidabad, and tribute paid to the emperor. Thus the British received the revenue and maintained the army, while the criminal jurisdiction was vested in the nawab. Clive reformed the company service by increasing salaries from the revenues of the salt monopoly and by prohibiting private trade and the acceptance of presents, which had previously led to much venality.

Lord Clive left India for the last time in 1767. By Lord North's Regulating Act (1770), the government was reorganized. The company received a loan of a million and agreed to pay the £400,000 yearly to parliament. A supreme court with royal judges was established, the governor's council was appointed by the Crown, and the governor of Bengal was made governor-general of India. Two years later Warren Hastings (q.v.) assumed the governorship, the interval having been marked by a disastrous famine (1770), which is believed to have carried off one-third of the inhabitants. Warren Hastings abolished the dual system of government, removed the exchequer from Murshidabad to Calcutta, and appointed British collectors to see to the collection of the revenues and the administration of justice. He also created the nucleus of a police. He was, however, much thwarted in his reforms by the wars forced on him by native princes, by the incessant pressure from home for money, and the constant opposition of his colleague in council, Philip Francis. Hastings reduced the large allowance paid to the nawab, he resold to the Vizir of Oudh the provinces of Allahabad and Kora, formerly assigned by Clive to the Emperor Shah Allum, now forfeited, as Hastings contended, by the seizure of the emperor by the Mahrattas, and withheld the tribute of £300,000 from the puppet emperor. British troops were also hired to the Vizir of Oudh to enable him to put down the Rohilla Afghans. Warren Hastings also improved the financial position of the company by the so-called plunder of Cheyte Singh and the Begum of Oudh. For these and other alleged acts of oppression he was impeached in the House of Lords, and after seven years acquitted. Warren Hastings was practically ruined by the cost of the defence, and left

dependent on the charity of the court of directors.

By the Treaty of Surat, concluded in 1775, Ragunath Rao ceded Salsette and Bassein in consideration of being recognized as sovereign at Poona. Hastings disapproved of the treaty, but on the outbreak of the first Mahratta War dispatched energetic officers across the peninsula, who conquered Gujarat, and captured the rock fortress of Gwalior. The reverse sustained by the Bombay force, however, equalized matters, and the Treaty of Salbai practically restored the *status quo*. Meantime Hyder Ali of Mysore (q.v.) fell upon the British possessions in the Carnatic, and ravaged the country up to Madras. Sir Eyre Coote hastened to the scene, but the contest was a tough one, and the peace concluded with Tippoo (q.v.), Hyder's son and successor, was based on a mutual restitution of all conquests.

Dundas's bill of 1783 was followed by Fox's India Bill, by which the company's authority was transferred to seven commissioners appointed by parliament (vacancies to be filled by the Crown), while the commerce and property of the company were administered by a subordinate council of directors nominated by the court of proprietors. This was rejected, but Pitt's India Bill passed in 1784 by which a board of control to supervise the political activities of the company was established as a ministerial department, while the appointment of the chief officers of the company had to receive royal sanction. Commerce and patronage, however, were left entirely to the company.

In 1786 Hastings was succeeded by Lord Cornwallis as governor-general. The settlement of the land revenue of Bengal was introduced by him in 1789 to stabilize the company's finances but made permanent in 1793, thus fixing the land tax at a low rate, preventing increased revenue with the increasing value of the land.

The second Mysore War of 1790–2 was undertaken by Lord Cornwallis with the Nizam of the Deccan and the Mahratta confederacy as allies. It resulted in the partition of half of Tippoo's dominions among the allies, and the payment of three millions sterling as indemnity.

Lord Mornington (Marquis Wellesley) during his rule enunciated the guiding principle that the British must be the one paramount power in India, the gradual development of which policy culminated in the proclamation of Queen Victoria as Empress of India in 1877. The presence of French battalions in the native states, and French intriguers in the islands of Mauritius and Bourbon, as well as in Hindustan itself, suggested to Wellesley the idea of frustrating all possibility of a French invasion of India by crushing their hopes there. The Mogul Empire was quite broken up, so the task of establishing our supremacy in northern India was at first easy. By the Treaty of Lucknow a large tract of territory was ceded to the British by the Nawab Vizir of Oudh, in lieu of a subsidy for British troops, thus extending British rule as far as the heart of the North-West Provinces. The Nizam of Hyderabad, to the south, was easily dealt with; his French battalion at Hyderabad was disbanded, and the nizam bound by treaty not to take any European into his service without the consent of the British government, a clause of universal application nowadays in the treaties with native states. Tippoo, Sultan of Mysore, was next crushed, his intrigues being rewarded by the capture of his stronghold of Seringapatam, where he died fighting (1799) and the partial partition of his territory among the nizams, the Mahrattas, and the British. The central portion was erected into a separate state (Mysore) under a descendant of the Hindu rajas whom Hyder Ali had dethroned. Wellesley then deliberately set out to bring the remainder of the native states into the subsidiary system. This led to the second Mahratta War (1802–4) and the cession of all territory north of the Jumna and the establishment of British protection over the emperor and Orissa, while Berar was handed over to the nizam. By the end of Wellesley's administration the North-West Provinces had been added to British India, the peshwa reduced, and the Madras Presidency formed.

Lord Wellesley was succeeded by Lord Cornwallis, now an old man, whose policy during his second and short tenure of office was to practise economy and relieve the financial pressure caused by prolonged military operations. The same policy was followed by Sir G. Barlow (1805), but on Lord Minto's arrival (1807) more resolute counsels prevailed, and though enjoined to abstain from drawing the sword, he managed to consolidate Wellesley's conquests. The islands of Mauritius and Java were occupied and friendly missions were dispatched to the Punjab, Afghanistan, and Persia. Lord Moira, afterwards Marquis of Hastings, was in power for nine years (1814–23), during which period two important wars were waged against the Gurkha mountaineers, or inhabitants of Nepal, subdued in 1815, and against the Pindaris and Mahrattas. In 1817 Hastings completely crushed the Pindaris of Central India, and the territory of the peshwa was annexed to the Bombay Presidency. Lord Amherst's administration (1823–8) was marked by the first Burmese War waged to repulse the aggressive King of Ava. After the loss of 20,000 lives and an expenditure of 14 millions in two years, by the Treaty of Yandaboo were ceded the provinces of Arakan and Tenasserim to the British, the king retaining the valley of the Irawadi. Another important event was the capture of Bharatpur (q.v.), which had baffled the army of Lord Lake in 1805, and which, protected by its impenetrable massive mud walls, was regarded as impregnable.

Administration.—The history of the British as benevolent administrators ruling with a single eye to the good of the natives may be said to have begun with Lord William Bentinck. He restored equilibrium to the budget, crippled by

the Burmese War, by various important financial measures, and abolished *suttee*, or widow-burning, and the *thugs*, or hereditary assassins. In 1833 the East India Company's charter was renewed for twenty years, but on condition that the company should abandon its trade monopoly and permit Europeans to settle in the country, while a legal member, not a servant of the company, was added to the council. Other events of Lord William Bentinck's administration were the appointment of a commission to codify the law, the placing of the native state of Mysore under British rule (1830), and the annexation of Coorg, with the consent of the inhabitants.

After a brief interregnum, during which Sir Charles (afterwards Lord) Metcalfe held the viceroyalty, Lord Auckland (1836–42) began his rule, which is conspicuous for the memorable Afghan War, caused by an attempt to extend British influence in the north-west by using the Afghan prince as a weapon against French and Russian penetration. [Afghan Wars (1).]

The following year saw the conquest of the Amirs of Sind by Sir Charles Napier. Under Sir Henry (afterwards Lord) Hardinge, the Sikh War resulted in the recognition of Dhuleep Singh as the infant raja and the establishment of the Punjab as a British residency.

Probably, however, the most important results ensued from the administration of Lord Dalhousie (1848–56). Though sincerely desirous of peace, and of advancing the moral and material condition of the country, Dalhousie found himself compelled to fight two wars and to annex extensive territory in the Punjab, Burma as well as Nagpur, Oudh, and other minor states. At the same time he founded the Public Works Department with a view to creating the network of roads and canals now covering India. He opened the Ganges Canal, the largest irrigation work in India, and turned the sod of the first railway. He promoted steam communication with England via the Red Sea, and introduced cheap postage and the electric telegraph. After the second Sikh War, during which the Sikh army was wellnigh destroyed at Gujarat, the Punjab became a British province, and, thanks mainly to the successful labours of the two Lawrences and Colonel (afterwards Lord) Napier, became so contented and prosperous that the Indian Mutiny failed to turn its populace into rebels. The second Burmese War (1852) arose out of the ill-treatment of some merchants at Rangoon, and resulted in the annexation of the valley of the Irawadi, under the name of the province of Pegu, since which time British Burma has made the most astonishing strides in material development. Dalhousie, on the ground of persistent native misrule, also annexed Oudh and several other native states, including Nagpur and Suttara. His successor was Lord Canning, a year after whose accession began the Indian Mutiny. The causes of this great convulsion are still obscure, but probably may be traced to the excitable feelings of a fanatical though subject race alarmed at the sight of important annexations, such as those which have inevitably accompanied the development of the British power. The outbreak at Meerut occurred on May 10, 1857, and the mutinous sepoys hastened to Delhi, which thus became the centre and rallying-point of the rebellion. The Punjab was held by Lawrence, but the Cawnpore garrison fell to Nana Sahib, while Lucknow, fortified by Sir H. Lawrence, was relieved first by Havelock, and finally by Sir Colin Campbell, afterwards Lord Clyde. The people of Oudh and Rohilkhand, who had risen *en masse*, were next attacked and vanquished by Campbell, while in Central India Sir Hugh Rose (afterwards Lord Strathnairn) conducted an equally successful campaign against the Rani, or Princess, of Jhansi, and Tantia Topi [Indian Mutiny].

This mutiny led to the extinction of the East India Company, for it was felt that the administration of India was now a national matter. In 1853 its position had been rendered anomalous by the substitution of open competition for patronage. An act was passed, to give effect to the assumption of the government by the Crown (1858). The company existed as a medium for distributing stock, but was finally extinguished in 1873. On July 8, 1859, peace was proclaimed. The cost of suppressing the mutiny had, however, been so serious that James Wilson, a distinguished financier, was sent to Calcutta to balance the budget. He reorganized the customs, imposed an income tax and licence duty, and created a State paper currency.

Lord Elgin's short rule (1862–3) was succeeded by that of Sir John Lawrence, who saw the Bhutan War, the ensuing annexation of the Duars, and the Orissa famine of 1866. The same year was marked by a serious commercial crisis which injured the rising tea industry in Bengal, and caused widespread ruin in Bombay. Lawrence returned in 1869. Lord Mayo's brief tenure of office was occupied with several useful measures, among which the creation of an agricultural department and of a system of provincial finance are important. He initiated the reform of the salt duties and developed the material resources of the country by roads, railways, and canals. He was assassinated in the Andaman Islands (1872). Lord Northbrook, who followed (1872–6), successfully contended with a famine in Lower Bengal by organized State relief. The tour of the Prince of Wales (afterwards Edward VII), 1875–6, was followed by the proclamation of Queen Victoria as Empress of India (January 1, 1877) at a durbar of unusual pomp, held on the Ridge above Delhi. This scene of rejoicing was followed by a disastrous famine throughout the Deccan and other parts of the Madras and Bombay Presidencies, which, despite the best efforts of the government, resulted in a loss of over five million lives.

The Afghan War of 1878 led to the temporary occupation of Kabul and Kandahar by the

British [Afghan Wars (2)]. The appointment of the Marquis of Ripon in the place of Lord Lytton in 1880 was followed by the evacuation of Kandahar and other Afghan positions. Ripon's measures included a large extension of Lord Mayo's system of provincializing the finances, which has been attended with the happiest results, a scheme for the enlargement of native self-government, varied according to the requirements of the different provinces, and a law, known as the Ilbert Act, which has removed one of the disabilities under which native civilians laboured in regard to their powers of trying Europeans. In 1884 a commission was appointed, and the north-western frontier of Afghanistan delimited. An outbreak in Chitral in 1895 necessitated a large military expedition to relieve the garrison, and two years later a large number of troops was dispatched to quell the rising of the tribes along the whole border from Chitral to Baluchistan. A plague broke out in 1896. In 1897 an earthquake devastated Assam, and in the same year a famine affected an area of about 570,000 square miles with a population of 130,000,000. In 1900 occurred another famine, affecting tracts containing a population of 85 millions; and at one time over six millions were in receipt of relief. In 1905 a severe earthquake occurred in Northern India, causing great loss of life and damage to property. During the winter of 1905–6 the Prince and Princess of Wales (afterwards King George V and Queen Mary) made an extensive tour through India. By the partition of Bengal—effected in 1905, reconstituting the provinces of Bengal and Assam—the Bengali-speaking population found themselves divided into two provinces under separate governments. Considerable opposition to this division was manifested by the Bengali, and meetings were held in favour of boycotting British goods. In 1908 the unrest assumed such a violent character that the laws relating to the Press and to explosives were very considerably strengthened, and special prosecutions under these laws were carried out in 1909.

The twentieth century has seen the growth of a number of native movements which have voiced dissatisfaction with existing governmental methods and which are in themselves the expression of self-determining instincts in the progress of India. These movements have to some extent been met by constitutional and administrative experiments which have failed to satisfy the varying demands, the logical outcome of which is complete native autonomy. Disinclination to relinquish the white man's burden coupled with commercial and philanthropic fears have retarded the government's surrender of authority which necessity will probably cause at no distant time. Indians demand complete autonomy, and, with the application of Western methods of politics and propaganda by the educated classes to the masses of India, there is little doubt but that this demand will have to be met. The history of this movement begins perhaps in the first session of the unofficial Indian National Congress of 1885, which urged native representation in government. Lord Cross's Indian Councils Act (1892) provided for the addition of nominated non-officials to represent provinces in the governor-general's council and for the nomination by various municipalities, universities, and trading associations of eleven out of the twenty members added to the provincial legislatures of Madras and Bombay. In 1891 the permanent civil service was reorganized. The Imperial Indian Civil Service was recruited in England and natives *could* compete, while both the provincial and subordinate services were definitely opened to Indians. An educational report, followed by the reform of the universities (1904), preluded the Morley-Minto reforms, and the Japanese successes in the war with Russia, coinciding with the advent of Liberals to power in Great Britain, greatly stimulated democratic movements in India. The Indian National Congress of 1907 issued the moderates' manifesto demanding the status enjoyed by Canada. An outburst of political crime resulted in a policy blended of repression and concession that was not understood by the natives and regarded as a sign of weakness. The permissive Indian Councils Extension Act of 1909 introduced the elective element into the provincial legislative councils, and one Indian was put upon the viceroy's executive council and others upon the councils of Bombay and Madras, while two were appointed to the council at the India office. The Indian immigration question then became important and led to embittered feeling. South Africa (1913) prohibited Indians from trading, farming, or even from holding land in the Orange Free State, while Canada refused to admit Indians. Indians felt that the rest of the British Empire was joining against them, while the Imperial government would neither help them nor put them upon an equality of status so as to fight their own battle. From this began the policy of passive resistance. India's participation in the fighting and auxiliary services during the Great War, and her consequent representation in the councils and conferences of the empire, increased her claim to a benevolent attention on the part of popular statesmen. Montagu in 1917 enunciated the four principles to guide British policy in India as (1) an increasing association of Indians in every branch of the administration; (2) a gradual development of self-governmental institutions with a view to the progressive realization of responsible government in India as an integral part of the British Empire; (3) an emphasis upon the gradual nature of these changes; (4) which must be determined by the government and not by the people of India, the responsibility for whose welfare and advancement rests with them. This Montagu-Chelmsford Report advocated a system of government for India known as Dyarchy. In a modified form it was enacted

by the coalition government in 1919 after the united claim on the part of both Moslems and Hindus for complete self-government, much later that year. Under this system the legislatures of the eight important provinces were given large elective majorities, while the provincial executive was divided into two separate departments. The first consists of a governor and two officials who are responsible for the "reserved" departments of administration, law and order, justice, land, forests, and the collection of revenue. The second consists of the governor and ministers responsible to the legislature and charged with the "transferred" business of education, health, agriculture, excise, and local affairs. Both depend on the legislature for laws and supplies, but in cases of necessity the governor can override the popular house. The central government remains undivided in function, responsible to the secretary of state for India, and has complete control over army, railways, customs, and post office. There are two chambers, a legislature chiefly elected, and an executive of the viceroy and his executive council, themselves responsible to the British parliament. The departments are divided among the members of the council, the viceroy assuming those of foreign affairs and the political department, while home affairs by custom rests with the leader in the House of Assembly. The legislature consists of the governor-general, a council of state with an elected majority (in which provision is made for communal or sect representation), and a legislative assembly of 140, of which 26 are officials and at least 100 elected. Special interests are represented by nomination. Bills affecting the public debt, religion, defence, and foreign policy are reserved for the viceroy's sanction, while the viceroy can actually enact a bill vetoed by one chamber.

The present position is one of uncertainty. The absence of complete autonomy and the wide discretionary nature of the British executives' power are not compatible with popular demands. A deadlock in Bengal resulted in the assumption of government by the executive. If Indian co-operation succeeds, however, there is no doubt that wider powers will be given to the popular elements of government. A revision of the Government of India Act (1919) is due in 1929.

GOVERNORS-GENERAL OF INDIA

Warren Hastings	1774
Sir John Macpherson	1785
Marquis Cornwallis	1786
Sir John Shore	1793
Sir Alured Clarke	1798
Marquis Wellesley	1798
Marquis Cornwallis	1805
Sir George Barlow	1805
Earl of Minto	1807
Marquis of Hastings	1813
Mr. Adam	Jan. 1–Aug. 1, 1823
Lord Amherst	1823
Lord William Bentinck	1828
Sir Charles Metcalfe	1835
Earl of Auckland	1836
Earl of Ellenborough	1842
Viscount Hardinge	1845
Marquis of Dalhousie	1848
Viscount Canning	1856
Earl of Elgin	1862
Sir John Lawrence	1864
Earl of Mayo	1869
Lord Northbrook	1872
Lord Lytton	1876
Marquis of Ripon	1880
Earl of Dufferin	1884
Marquis of Lansdowne	1888
Earl of Elgin	1894
Baron Curzon	1899
Earl of Minto	1905
Baron Hardinge	1910
Lord Chelmsford	1916
Lord Reading	1921
Baron Irwin	1926

SECRETARIES OF STATE FOR INDIA

Lord Stanley (Earl of Derby)	Sept. 1858
Sir Charles Wood (Viscount Halifax)	June 1859
Earl de Grey and Ripon (Marquis of Ripon)	Feb. 1866
Viscount Cranborne (Marquis of Salisbury)	July 1866
Sir Stafford Northcote (Earl of Iddlesleigh)	March 1867
Duke of Argyll	Dec. 1868
Marquis of Salisbury	Feb. 1874
Gathorne Hardy (cr. Viscount Cranbrook)	April 1878
Marquis of Hartington (Duke of Devonshire)	April 1880
Earl of Kimberley	Dec. 1882
Lord Randolph Churchill	June 1885
Earl of Kimberley	Feb. 1886
Sir R. A. Cross (cr. Viscount Cross)	Aug. 1886
Earl of Kimberley	Aug. 1892
H. H. Fowler (Viscount Wolverhampton)	March 1894
Lord George F. Hamilton	July 1895
St. John Brodrick (Viscount Midleton)	Oct. 1903
John Morley (Viscount Morley)	Dec. 1905
Earl of Crewe (Marquis of Crewe)	Nov. 1910
Viscount Morley	March 1911
Earl of Crewe	May 1911
(Sir) Austen Chamberlain	May 1915
E. S. Montagu	July 1917
Viscount Peel	March 1922
Sir S. Olivier (Baron Olivier)	Jan. 1924
Earl of Birkenhead	Nov. 1924

PERMANENT UNDER-SECRETARIES OF STATE FOR INDIA

Sir George Russell Clark	Sept. 1858
Herman Merrivale	April 1860
Sir Louis Mallet	Feb. 1874
Arthur Godley (Baron Kilbracken)	Sept. 1883
Sir Richmond Ritchie	Oct. 1909
Sir Thomas W. Holderness	Oct. 1912
Sir F. W. Duke	Jan. 1920
Sir Arthur Hirtzel	June 1924

HIGH COMMISSIONERS FOR INDIA

Sir W. S. Meyer	Oct. 1920
J. W. Bhore	Oct. 1922
Dadiba Merwanjee Dalal	April 1923
Sir Atul C. Chatterjee	Jan. 1925

V. A. Smith, "The Oxford History of India from the Earliest Times to 1911," 1919; Sir C. P. Lucas, "Historical Geography of the British Colonies," vol. vii by P. E. Roberts, pt. i, 1916, and pt. ii, 1920; Sir A. Lyall, "The Rise and Expansion of the British Dominion in India," 1910; Sir W. Lee Warner, "The Native States of India," 1910 and 1921; Sir W. W. Hunter, "History of British India," 2 vols., 1899–1900; H. Dodwell, "Dupleix and Clive," 1920; Sir V. Lovett, "History of the Indian Nationalist Movement," 1921; Sir W. W. Hunter (ed.), "Rulers of India Series, 1890–97," 27 vols.; Ramsay Muir, "The Making of British India, 1756–1858," 1917; Sir C. Ilbert and Lord Meston, "The New Constitution of India," 1923; Sir C. Ilbert, "The Government of India," 1915 and 1922; B. K. Thakore, "Indian Administration to the Dawn of Responsible Government, 1765–1920," 1922; H. H. Dodwell, "A Sketch of the History of India from 1858 to 1918," 1925; "Imperial Gazetteer of India"; Malleson, "History of the French in India"; Sir J. Kaye and Col. Malleson (ed.), "The Indian Mutiny, 1857–8," 6 vols., 1897; G. N. Curzon, "British Government in India," 2 vols., 1925; V. A. Smith, "Early History of India," 1924; C. M. P. Cross, "Development of Self-Government in India, 1858–1914," 1922. [H. R.]

Indian Mutiny, The (1857–8). The causes of the Indian Mutiny are difficult to estimate, but it may be safely asserted that it was to a large extent due to the very rapid progress which European civilization had of late years been making in Hindustan, a civilization which threatened to swallow or assimilate all the native institutions of the country. Under Lord Dalhousie (1848–56) the Punjab and Oudh had been annexed, and it might well seem to an Indian mind that the British were bent on entirely subduing the whole of Hindustan, regardless of the dictates of faith or justice. About the same time a rumour was in circulation which limited the term of British rule to one hundred years from the date of the battle of Plassey (1757). The sepoy troops had learnt to know their own worth, and having fought battles and won victories under British generalship, conceived that their success was solely due to their own valour, and fancied that they held the destiny of India in their own hands. Added to this, in the deposed King of Delhi, Bahadur Shah, there was an ever-festering canker of rebellion and centre of disaffection which was just now rendered more dangerous than ever by Lord Dalhousie's threat to remove the Mogul's family from its old seat at Delhi. Finally, to set in flame all the smouldering ashes of discontent, there came the story that the cartridges of the new Enfield rifles which were being introduced among the native troops were greased with the fat of beef or pork, and were thus rendered unclean for Mohammedan and Hindu alike. The rebellion broke out with incendiary fires at Barrakpur in January 1857. The sepoys here conceived that the new cartridges were being distributed with the sole object of destroying their caste, and on February 25 they broke into open mutiny. Though they were restrained from violence and disbanded, these men carried the evil report through Oudh and Bundelkhand, inflaming the minds of the people. On May 16 a proclamation was issued by Lord Canning, denying the reports and warning the people against them. On May 9 the mutiny broke out at Meerut, being preceded by incendiary fires. The 11th and 20th Regiments of Native Infantry and the 3rd Cavalry rose, massacred their officers, and marched off to Delhi. The people of that city rose at once and butchered the Europeans. Meanwhile Nana Sahib was proceeding through Oudh and the North-West Provinces fanning the flame. In Oudh the mistakes of Mr. Jackson had made the government unpopular, and Sir Henry Lawrence, the new commissioner, was unable to remove the impression. In May risings took place at Ferozepur, at Lahore, and Peshawar, but were put down with severity by Sir John Lawrence and his subordinates, who armed the Sikhs, and with their help reduced the sepoys. The Punjab thus remained faithful, and Lawrence was able to send a strong body of Sikhs to aid in the siege of Delhi. On the 17th the commander-in-chief prepared to advance on Delhi, and on June 10 Sir Henry Barnard, his successor, advanced to within four miles of the town. Meanwhile, all through Oudh, the Doab, and Bundelkhand the rebellion broke out accompanied by massacres. In Rajputana and Malwa the native princes for the most part remained faithful, but Sindhia's and Holkar's body-guards mutinied, and the widowed Rani of Jhansi headed an outbreak in her annexed principality. At Cawnpore the mutiny broke out under Nana Sahib on June 5 and ended in a ghastly massacre. At Lucknow the foresight of Sir Henry Lawrence enabled the British garrison to hold out against the rebels till relieved by Outram. But the great point of anxiety was Delhi, where all the mutinied sepoy regiments were assembling in a final effort to restore the ancient dynasty of the Moguls. On June 8 Sir Henry Barnard invested Delhi, and on June 13 an unsuccessful attempt was made to capture the city by blowing the gates open. On July 17 Archdale Wilson took the command; on September 6 a heavy siege-train arrived, and on the 20th, after a severe struggle, Delhi was won [Delhi, Siege of, 1857]. Meanwhile Havelock had marched into Cawnpore (July 17), after defeating the Nana, but only to find the prisoners massacred as at Jhansi [Cawnpore]. Leaving Neill to punish the rebels, he endeavoured to advance to the relief of Lucknow, but was compelled to retire, August 13. On September 16, however, a grand army marched on Lucknow (q.v.), and on the 25th Havelock and Outram entered the besieged Residency with their reinforcements. On September 10 Brigadier Greathed, by a forced march, surprised the mutinous troops from Rajputana and Agra and routed them. Similar successes were obtained in Malwa, Berar, and elsewhere, and these were crowned in November by the final relief of Lucknow, achieved by Sir Colin Campbell (November 1857), who had arrived in India as commander-in-chief in August. Meanwhile the Gwalior contingent, under Tantia Topi, had advanced on Cawnpore and driven General Windham into his entrenchments, and it was only by a hurried march that Campbell could come to his assistance before the bridge over the Ganges was broken down. By the end of the year 1857 the rebellion in Bengal had been to a great extent stamped out, and the future war was restricted to Oudh, Rohilkhand, parts of Bundelkhand, and Central India. In Dacca, Mhow, Indore, Ferruckabad, and elsewhere, order had been restored; Outram was holding his own against the garrison of Lucknow, and Saugor, faithful to the last, would serve as a centre for operations in Central India. At the beginning of 1858 Mohammed Bahadur Shah, the last of the Moguls, being convicted of treason and murder, was transported to Burma. During January and February Sir Colin Campbell occupied himself with clearing Oudh and Rohilkhand. In March he made for Lucknow, and after a severe struggle wrested the city from the

enemy's hands (March 21). On May 6 Sir Colin Campbell succeeded in crushing the revolt in Rohilkhand, but the rebel leaders and many of their followers escaped. Meanwhile the Bombay division, under Sir Hugh Rose, had advanced steadily into Central India to the relief of Saugor, and soon defeated the rebels at the pass of Muddunpur. General Roberts and Whitlock were marching triumphantly through Malwa and Bundelkhand; on April 1 Sir H. Rose defeated Tantia Topi, who was advancing on Jhansi, and two days later he stormed and took the fort of Jhansi. On May 7 he attacked and routed the united armies of Tantia Topi and the Rani of Jhansi, and on May 23, after a severe struggle, he assaulted and captured the strong fort of Kalpy. Tantia Topi now proceeded to Gwalior and organized an insurrection against the authority of Sindhia; but on June 17 Sir Hugh encountered and defeated the rebel force outside Gwalior, and on the 18th stormed and captured the city. Brigadier Napier pursued the enemy, and routed them again at Alipur, thus ending the campaign. General Roberts had meanwhile stormed and taken Kotah, and the rebellion was now practically at an end, and the time come for vengeance and reconciliation.

It was undoubtedly the splendid organization of the Punjab under Sir John Lawrence that contributed mainly to the ultimate success of the British arms; and had this district shared in the revolt instead of, thanks to the firmness of its ruler, sending assistance to the British forces before Delhi, it is difficult to see where the disasters would have stopped. But Sir John Lawrence, from the very commencement, bridled the mutinous sepoys in the Punjab with a stern hand, and the Sikhs were too grateful for the blessings of British rule to rise against their benefactors. The most important political result of the Indian Mutiny was the transference of the entire administration of Hindustan from the East India Company to the Crown.

Sir J. Kaye, "Sepoy War, 1864–76"; G. B. Malleson, "History of the Indian Mutiny," 1891; T. R. E. Holmes, "History of the Indian Mutiny," 1883 and 1913; Sir G. W. Forrest, "The Indian Mutiny," 1904–12. [S. L.]

Indulgence, The Declaration of, (1) was issued by Charles II in 1672, probably at the instigation of Shaftesbury and Clifford. It represented the king's determination to mitigate the severity of the Clarendon Code (q.v.) by an exercise of his Dispensing Power (q.v.). It declared a suspension of "all and all manner of penal laws in ecclesiastical matters against whatsoever sort of nonconformists or recusants." On February 19, 1673, the declaration was violently denounced in the Commons, and the opposition which it roused was sufficient to induce the king to revoke it on March 7, on the advice of Colbert. The direct result was the Test Act (q.v.). The victory lay with parliament, whose successful resistance had vindicated the Established Church and dealt the royal suspending power a severe blow. (2) was issued by James II in 1687, declaring that "as he would not force the conscience of any man himself, so neither would he allow any man to force the conscience of another." By this he hoped to show favour to the Roman Catholics without offending his Protestant subjects, whom he promised to keep in full possession of all the Church estates they had acquired at the Reformation. In order to disguise, at all events in some degree, that the real objects of this indulgence were the papists, he promised full freedom of worship at the same time to moderate Presbyterians and Quakers. All the penal laws against the Roman Catholics were suspended, and the king declared himself resolved for the future to employ the best men in his service irrespective of their creed (February and June 1687). In April next year James ordered the declaration to be republished, and sent an order to the bishops that they should bid the clergy of their several dioceses read it from their pulpits after divine service, on the Sundays, May 20 and 27. It was their refusal to do this that led to the trial of the Seven Bishops (q.v.).

Frank Bate, "The Declaration of Indulgence, 1672," 1908.

Indulph, King of Alban (954–62), was the son of Constantine and succeeded Malcolm, the son of Donald, in 954. It was in his reign that Dunedin or Edinburgh was surrendered to the Scots by the English—a surrender which marked the first extension of the kingdom of Alban south of the Forth. Indulph's reign is further noteworthy for the descent of the Norwegian pirates. He is said, according to one account, to have been slain in battle with the invaders, but, according to another, he died at St. Andrews. Probably he retired to a monastery, and entrusted his kingdom to Dubh the son of Malcolm, who was his lawful successor on the tanistic principle.

P. Hume Brown, "History of Scotland," 1911; C. S. Terry, "History of Scotland," 1924.

Industry, English. The following short list of books is designed to indicate the principal works on the history of industrial policy and of industrial method available to the less advanced student. The bibliographies under the headings Economic History, Commerce, and Agriculture should also be consulted.

General: Cunningham, "Growth of English Industry and Commerce"; Unwin, "Industrial Organization in the Sixteenth and Seventeenth Centuries"; De Gibbins, "Industrial History of England"; Salzman, "English Industries of the Middle Ages"; Ashley, "The Economic Organization of England"; Hammond, "Rise of Modern Industry"; Moffit, "England on the Eve of the Industrial Revolution"; Clapham, "Economic History of Modern Britain"; Knowles, "Industrial and Commercial Revolutions"; Hammond, "The Town Labourer"; Mantoux, "The Industrial Revolution"; Hutchins and Harrison, "History of Factory Legislation."

Special Aspects: Heaton, "Yorkshire Woollen and Worsted Industries"; Lipson, "History of English Woollen and Worsted Industries"; Morris and Wood, "The Golden Fleece"; Daniels, "The Early English Cotton Industry"; Chapman, "The

Lancashire Cotton Industry"; Ashton, "Iron and Steel in the Industrial Revolution"; Hamilton, "The English Brass and Copper Industries"; Lloyd, "The Cutlery Trades"; Lewis, "The Stannaries"; Kirkaldy and Evans, "History and Economics of Transport."

Ine, or Ina, King of Wessex (688–726), was descended from Ceawlin through Cenred, and succeeded to the throne on the abdication of Ceadwalla. He was one of the greatest of the West Saxon kings, and succeeded in reducing Kent, Sussex, and Essex to obedience. He also fought many battles against the Britons or Welsh, and extended the West Saxon kingdom as far as the Exe, building the burh of Taunton to protect his new frontier. We find him fighting against the Welsh of Glamorgan, and against Ceolred the Mercian king, with whom he fought a drawn battle at Wodnesbeorg (715) (Woodborough ?). The latter part of his reign, however, does not seem to have been so prosperous. His wars with the Britons were less successful than before, and he was troubled by rebellions of members of the royal house, the leader of whom was Aldbert, who was eventually defeated and slain by Ine. Ine himself resigned the crown in 726 and went to Rome, where he soon died. He was great, not only as a warrior, but as a legislator, and made a collection of laws, seventy-six in number, which, with the exception of those of the Kentish kings, are the earliest known to us among the Anglo-Saxons. He likewise divided Wessex into two dioceses, placing the new bishop at Sherborne in Dorset; he moreover founded and endowed several monasteries, and rebuilt and enlarged the abbey at Glastonbury.

"Anglo-Saxon Chronicle"; Bæda, "Ecclesiastical History"; Attenborough.

Infangtheof was the right of trying and punishing a thief caught "hand-having or back-bearing" within the limit of the franchise to which the right belonged. It was one of the rights of jurisdiction most commonly granted in Anglo-Saxon times.

Ingoldsby, Sir Richard (*d.* 1685), was closely related to Oliver Cromwell, and served with considerable distinction in the Parliamentary army. He was one of the High Court of Justice appointed to try Charles I, but did not attend any of the sittings, and though his signature appears on the warrant for execution, he declared that he was forced to affix it by violence, his hand being guided by Cromwell. He afterwards took part in the campaign in Ireland; in 1652 he was made a member of the council of state; in 1654 and 1656 he sat in Cromwell's parliament, and was made one of the members of the Upper House in 1657. He was a great favourite of Richard Cromwell, after whose resignation he was appointed one of the Committee of Safety. He was active in promoting the Restoration, and was in command of the force sent against Lambert after he had escaped from the Tower. He received a pardon from Charles II, and was created a knight of the Bath in 1661. He sat in the four parliaments of Charles II, but took no very prominent part in public affairs.

Inkerman, The Battle of (November 5, 1854), was fought during the Crimean War. Early in the morning the Russian army, which had lately received large reinforcements, made a sortie from Sebastopol. The chief point of attack was the plateau of Inkerman, where the British forces lay, and so dense were the mists that the troops were hardly aware of the enemy's advance till he was close upon them. There was little time for any regular plan of operations on the British side, and they were at a strong disadvantage compared with the Russians, who had received definite instructions before starting. The result was that the engagement became more of a hand-to-hand encounter than a regular battle. At last the French general, Bosquet, who had divined from the first that the attack was destined for the British troops and not against his own, came to their aid, and fell upon the Russians with such fury as to drive them down the slope, and thus decide the battle.

A. W. Kinglake, "Invasion of the Crimea," 1863–87.

Inquest. Recognition by sworn inquest, i.e., the discovery of matters of fact by inquiry from sworn witnesses, is a custom of very ancient standing in England, and was the origin of the modern jury. A process of inquiry by government officers from witnesses from the district concerned first appears clearly in the capitularies of the Frankish kings. To them it possibly came from the regulations of the Theodosian code, which prescribed a special method of investigation by imperial officers in matters touching the fisc. From cases in which the king was concerned, the method was occasionally extended in the Frankish empire, but only by special permission, to the suits of churches and private persons. This system was found working by the Norman conquerors of northern Gaul, and became a part of the Norman jurisprudence. But it was still exceptional in private suits, and persons who wished their own cases to be tried by inquest had to gain the duke's consent. From Normandy it was apparently introduced by the Conqueror into England. Some authorities have maintained that an analogous institution existed in Anglo-Saxon England, but the evidence is inconclusive. The Domesday survey is a gigantic example of the employment of the sworn inquest to draw up a rate-book of the kingdom for the use of the central administration; and several writs of Rufus, Henry I, and Stephen are extant, ordering inquests through men of the county or hundred, to determine the rights of churches. It is the merit of Henry II to have made what had been "an exceptional favour" an ordinary part of English legal procedure. By the Grand Assize he established the more equitable method of

inquest in cases concerning the ownership of land, as an alternative to trial by battle, which was a Norman innovation, and justly hated in England. The three processes of darrein presentment, mort d'ancestor, and novel disseisin provided similar means of settling disputes as to advowsons, and the claims of heirs and dispossessed persons. The Assize of Clarendon (q.v.) saw the extension of the principle to the sphere of criminal justice, with the establishment of the jury of presentment. In the Assize of Arms (q.v.) recognition by jury was employed to determine the liability of each individual; and in the Ordinance of the Saladin Tithe (q.v.) inquest by sworn jurors was used for the assessment of taxation. [For later history see JURY.] In ordinary modern use the word is almost confined to the inquest held by a coroner with regard to an unexplained death. This is one of the few of the originally numerous duties attaching to the mediæval office of coroner which have survived to the present day. [CORONER.]

W. S. Holdsworth, "History of English Law," 1922; Sir F. Pollock and F. W. Maitland, "History of English Law," 2nd edn., 1911. [W. J. A.]

Inscriptions, CELTIC, are chiefly confined to a number of rough stone monuments, upon whose edges the inscriptions are cut in characters of a peculiar type, consisting entirely of long and short lines. This character is styled Ogam or Ogham. The largest number of these Ogam inscriptions have been found in Ireland—almost exclusively in Munster—but a few have also been found in South Wales, in North Wales, and in Devonshire and Cornwall. Others occur in Scotland, and especially in Fife, Aberdeenshire, and Sutherland, and some even in the Shetland Islands. Of these the Irish are very imperfectly deciphered, and the Scottish still more so, but most of the Welsh have been satisfactorily investigated. These are nearly all bi-lingual, and a Latin translation or paraphrase makes the work of interpretation the easier. For though Irish MSS. of the fourteenth century give a systematic account of the character, yet the ravages of time, and the imperfections of the system, make it no easy task to decipher them. It is even doubtful whether some of the Scottish Ogams are of Celtic origin. The date of these inscriptions can only be vaguely ascertained. Probably most of the Welsh are about the fifth and sixth centuries; but it seems most likely that the character was invented at a much earlier date, for it is hard to believe that so imperfect an alphabet would have been adopted when the Roman letters were known. It is, indeed, strange that Ogam should have survived until the ninth or tenth century. It has been conjectured that Ogam is in a way derived from the Phœnician alphabet. A late Irish legend attributes its invention to a mythic Ogma. Rhŷs regards the word as etymologically akin to ὄγμος and *agmen*, and as a derivative of a root which is used in the senses of "a leading, a line, a row, writing, letters, and ultimately literature, or knowledge."

The historical value of the Ogam inscriptions is entirely indirect. They are nearly all mere sepulchral inscriptions of the name, and perhaps the father's name, of some forgotten chieftain. But philologically their interest is very great. Careful comparison shows that the language of these inscriptions is of the Goidelic rather than of the Brythonic type—Irish rather than Welsh. They testify to the presence of Goidels in South Wales and Damnonia, spots from which nearly all traces of them have now vanished, either Irish immigrants, or the survivals of an earlier population driven westward by the Brythons, just as the Brythons themselves were at a later date driven westwards by the English. Thus they have thrown new light on the early ethnology of Britain as well as on the study of Celtic philology. Besides the Ogams, there are other Celtic inscriptions written in the ordinary Latin character, or in that modification of it to which the name of the "Irish alphabet" has been given. But the bulk of the inscriptions of the Britons, centuries after the withdrawal of the Roman legions, were written in Latin.

Rhŷs, "Welsh Philology"; Hübner, "Inscriptiones Britanniæ Christianæ"; Westwood, "Lapidarium Walliæ."

Inscriptions, ROMAN. Roman rule in Britain began late and ended early, and the area of full Romanization was limited to the narrow confines of the south-eastern plain. As a result the Roman inscriptions in Britain are comparatively few in number, and limited in the variety of their subjects, but their historical, if not their philological, importance is none the less considerable.

Epigraphists divide inscriptions into two main classes—inscriptions in the strictest sense written on other objects to indicate their purpose, and those which are themselves the objects, and inscribed on stone or hard metal to make them durable. The former class (*tituli* in Latin) are divided into sepulchral inscriptions (*tituli sepulchrales*); dedicatory inscriptions (*tituli sacri*); honorary inscriptions (*tituli honorarii*), or inscriptions on statues erected to mortals, either after death or during their life, but not on their tombs, in which class are included *tituli operum publicorum*, *viæ publicæ*, the records of the names of those erecting public buildings, the inscriptions on milestones, boundary stones; and lastly, the comprehensive class of inscriptions arranged in the *Corpus* under the head *instrumentum*, which includes, for example, inscriptions on weights and measures, household articles, the *tesseræ*, or little tokens with names of individuals or dates upon them, the inscriptions stamped on blocks of metal, very numerous in a mining district like England, or on military weapons, and the leaden marks which, perhaps, were borne by soldiers as countersigns, and have been found in

Britain only. Of the inscriptions made for their own sakes, which are called *instrumenta* or *leges* —treaties, laws, local decrees, agreements of private persons, may be quoted as examples.

Most of the foregoing classes of inscriptions have been found in Britain, though certain classes are rare. Few inscriptions of the first century remain. "They are as scarce," according to Hübner, "as those of the republican period in the older portions of the empire." They include an inscription to Nero, found at Chichester, and a few leaden balls, marked with the names of Claudius, Britannicus, Nero, etc. Milestones are extant of the time of Hadrian and the Antonines. A few military inscriptions complete the record. During the next century fairly abundant inscriptions are found in the south-eastern part of the island, and especially in the great towns, such as Camulodunum (Colchester); Londinium (London); Regni (Chichester); Aquæ-Sulis (Bath). Though Eboracum had become a great Roman station so early as the reign of Trajan, few inscriptions of earlier date than the latter part of the second century are found in the land of the Brigantes. Still farther north, zones of inscriptions mark the site of the two Roman walls. But north of this district, and among the hills of Wales, the almost total absence of real Roman inscriptions attests the incompleteness of the Roman conquest. In the latter country it is only in a few garrisons, such as Isca (Caerleon), or Deva (Chester), or Segontium (Carnarvon), that they are at all abundant, and here none are earlier than the end of the second century. Many third-century inscriptions, both in the north and west, indicate the frequency of the Roman expeditions to those regions. It is, however, remarkable that few inscriptions of the "provincial emperors," such as Carausius and Allectus, remain. Great names, such as Diocletian and Constantine, are but scantily represented. There are few important Christian inscriptions of the fourth or fifth century. The sepulchral inscriptions of Wales and Damnonia are not strictly Roman. The Greek inscriptions are very few. As to the historical value of the Roman inscriptions in Britain, it is hard to generalize. They vary little in their information; a victorious legion, the death of a commander, the performance of a vow, a tribute to the memory of a departed relative, are the subjects generally commemorated. Yet it has been possible to illustrate from them some characteristics of the provincial administration and military history of Britain, and from the frequency or infrequency of their occurrence to draw conclusions as to the nature of the Roman occupation in any given locality. In many ways the inscriptions illustrate or vivify the historical knowledge which written authorities give us. They throw light on the religion and the customs of Roman Britain, and furnish some important clues as to the extent to which the Latin language had penetrated among the various ranks of the Romano-Celtic population. The value of their contribution to our knowledge of the Roman period is abundantly evident in the works of such modern scholars as the late F. J. Haverfield. [Romans in Britain.]

The Roman inscriptions in Britain are collected by Emil Hübner in the seventh volume of the Berlin "Corpus Inscriptionum Latinarum." Hübner's epigraphical map of Britain at the end of the volume indicates the localities in which they have been found in most abundance. The same scholar's article on *Roman Inscriptions* in the "Encyclopædia Britannica" may be referred to for an account of these inscriptions generally. Some of the inscriptions of historical interest have been printed in the "Monumenta Historica Britannica." Much of the available material is, however, still scattered in periodicals or in the proceedings of learned societies; and in the form of monographs in the various sections of the "Victoria County History." See also F. J. Haverfield, "Romanization of Roman Britain," 1923, and "The Roman Occupation of Britain," 1924; R. G. Collingwood, "Roman Britain," 1923.

"Institution of a Christian Man," The, is the name of a work written by Cranmer and other bishops, after a series of consultations ending in July 1537, and merely stamped with the king's approval. (It has sometimes been said that Henry VIII himself was the author.) It consists of an Exposition of the Creed, the Seven Sacraments, the Ten Commandments, the Lord's Prayer, the Angel's Salutation to Mary, and of the doctrines of Free Will, Justification, and Good Works. It concludes with an authorized prayer for departed souls.

Instrument of Government, The, is the name given to a paper constitution of forty-two articles called "the Government of the Commonwealth," by which the Protectorate of Cromwell was established (December 1653). The executive power was vested in the protector and a council of thirteen to twenty-one persons appointed for life. Until the meeting of parliament fixed for September 3, 1654, the protector, with assent of the council, could make ordinances to have the power of laws. After this, the legislative power was vested in the parliament alone, and, though bills were to be submitted to the protector for his assent, he had no power to veto them if they were themselves in accordance with the constitution. Parliaments were to be called of necessity every three years, and when called could not be dissolved for five months, except by their own consent. The representative system was reformed, in accordance with the plan proposed by Ireton, and amended by the Rump. Scotland and Ireland were each represented by thirty members, while the number of members for England and Wales was reduced from five hundred to four hundred. The county representation was readjusted, many rotten boroughs were disfranchised, and important places like Leeds, Manchester, and Halifax received representatives. At the same time, two classes of electors were disfranchised:—(1) All Roman Catholics and those concerned in the Irish rebellion were disabled for ever; (2) all persons who had been engaged in war against the Parlia-

ment since January 1642, except such as had given signal testimony since then of their good affection, were disabled from electing or being elected for the next parliament and the three following. By Article xii it was expressly inserted in the writs that the persons elected should not have power to alter the government as vested by the Instrument in a single person and a parliament. Accordingly, when parliament, assembled in September 1654, wished to debate the constitution, and settle the limits of the protector's power, Cromwell, whilst drawing a distinction between "circumstantials," which they might alter, and "fundamentals," which they must leave untouched, forced them to sign an engagement not to propose the alteration of the government in that particular. Gardiner says of the Instrument of Government that it was "the first of hundreds of written constitutions which have since spread over the world, of which the American is the most conspicuous example, in which a barrier is set up against the entire predominance of any one set of official persons, by attributing strictly limited functions to each."

S. R. Gardiner, "Constitutional Documents of the Puritan Revolution"; C. H. Firth, "Cromwell," 1890.

Insurrection Acts (Ireland). The first (1787) enacted the Riot Act for Ireland, constituted felony (to be punished with death) all attacks on clergy or churches, the administering of unlawful oaths, seizure of arms, and other similar offences. It also inflicted a punishment of fine, imprisonment, or the whip on all who conspired to deprive the clergy of their tithes. In 1796 a similar act was passed, but with terms, if possible, still more stringent than the first; and though it excited the wonder of the English ministry, it passed without difficulty. The third (1807) gave the lord-lieutenant power, if the magistrates in special session declared a county disturbed, to proclaim it. By so doing, trial by jury was suspended, and anyone out at night after dark became liable to seven years' transportation, unless he were able to give a satisfactory explanation. The act of 1807 remained in force till 1810. In 1814, 1815, 1816, 1817, 1822, and 1824 it was renewed, and a similar act was passed in 1833.

"Intercursus Magnus," The, or "Great Intercourse" (February 24, 1496), was a treaty signed between Henry VII and Burgundy, providing for freedom of trade between the two countries, laying down detailed rules to govern their commercial intercourse, and prohibiting each contracting party from harbouring the rebels of the other. One important result of the treaty was the expulsion of Perkin Warbeck from Burgundy.

Text in A. F. Pollard, "Reign of Henry VII," ii, 322.

"Intercursus Malus," The (April 30, 1506), was a commercial treaty concluded between Henry VII and the Archduke Philip of Flanders. It established freedom of trade, but the preferential terms which the English merchants obtained by it rendered it an engagement distasteful to Flanders. Disputes soon began to recur, and the system of mutual boycott which the Intercursus had been designed to destroy was soon in operation again.

Text in A. F. Pollard, "Reign of Henry VII," ii, 285.

Interdicts, Papal, may be defined as local excommunications. They deprived a certain district of all the privileges of Christian worship and ceremonies. The proclamation of an interdict put the country out of the pale of the Church. During the time that a country lay under an interdict, all public religious services ceased; churches were closed, and the sacraments suspended. To this general rule there were a few exceptions. On Sunday a sermon might be preached in the churchyard, and on Good Friday the cross was exhibited to the people in the same place; the dead might be buried, but without the full rites of interment; infants might be baptized; and the dying were allowed to communicate. But, beyond this, all the services of the Church ceased; the bell neither rang nor tolled; the solemn processions of the Church were discontinued; neither Virgin nor saint could be worshipped at their own shrines. Monasteries, however, preserved the right of holding their own services; but these had to be performed with closed doors, and no strangers might be present. The most famous interdict in English history was that proclaimed by Innocent III in March 1208, over all England. It was brought about by John's obduracy in refusing to recognize the papal nominee, Stephen Langton, as Archbishop of Canterbury, and it was not remitted till the king had made full submission, in May 1213.

Interest. Two principles seem in the Middle Ages to have been at work in mitigating the extent to which the usurer might take advantage of the distresses of his debtors: first, that of the mediæval Church, which, inheriting the doctrine of the Jewish Scriptures, has unhesitatingly condemned usury in all its forms and maintained that men should lend freely; and, secondly, that of the Roman Empire, which, while recognizing the necessity of paying interest on borrowed moneys, attempted to limit abuse by fixing a legal maximum percentage, beyond which payment could not be enforced. Among the Romans the rate at one time was 12 per cent. per annum, but it was reduced by Justinian to 4. It could not be expected that among the Teutonic tribes this question should have formed part of their original common law, and hence in the Middle Ages usury was not so much regarded as an offence against the law as a sin; and it was one of the great merits of the mediæval Church that it set its face steadily against this abuse at a time when no king had the self-denial, and no other court sufficient strength, to protect the poor from the oppression of the rich. The objections were that money did not breed

money (Aristotle's view) and that usury was forbidden by the Scriptures. Accordingly, usury became a recognized offence in the spiritual courts; and thus we find Alexander III writing to the Archbishop of Canterbury that he should compel all lenders, whether ecclesiastical or others, to restore their pledges without usury. But despite the censures of the Church and the laws of Edward III, according to which the goods of a living usurer belonged to the Church, those of a dead one to the king (1341), the practice never died out, though in many cases the actual interest was disguised under the name of expenses. Complaints were made by the Commons under Richard II of the prevalence of this offence, but the king could only reply that it was the fault of the ecclesiastical courts, who did not use their own powers. As yet there was no thought of the State's taking the question in hand. It was a question of morality, and not of law. Some hundred years later, when the incapacity of the Church to deal with this subject became clearer, parliament at last took the matter up. Even under Henry III the Statute of Merton (q.v.) had forbidden usury to be charged on infants for debts incurred by their parents, and we have just seen the enactment of Edward III as regards the goods of deceased usurers. But it was not till Henry VII's reign that the State, following the old Roman principle and recognizing the legality of interest, fixed a rate, above which all charges should be unlawful. In 1487, at the instigation of Archbishop Morton, a law was passed directly aimed against the "dampnable bargayns groundyt in usurye, contrarie to the laws of naturell justis," and empowering the lord chancellor and justices of the peace to inflict a penalty of £100 on all transactions that savoured of this kind (3 Hen. VII, c. 6). Eight years later it was enacted that if the lender received back more than he had lent, he should forfeit half (11 Hen. VII, c. 8). The tendency of these laws is, as may at once be perceived, to restrict rather than to encourage usury. Under Henry VIII all former acts on the subject were repealed in 1545, and it was enacted that after January 31 next no more than 10 per cent. should be charged, on pain of the lender's losing threefold the debt and suffering imprisonment (37 Hen. VIII, c. 9). This was a clear breach with canon law, which recognized no quantitative distinction between interest and usury. Its effect, whatever was intended, can only have been to stop all loans at less than 10 per cent., and that it had this result is evident by the enactment of Northumberland in 1551–2, which pronounced *all* usury to be unlawful, declared that the former law had not been intended for the maintenance of usury, and lamented that, since its passing, usury had been daily used and practised in the realm. Under Elizabeth this act was repealed, "because it hath not done as much good as it was hoped it should." The maximum rate of 10 per cent. was reintroduced (1571). Usury, perhaps, in its simplest form, had decreased, but the old evil had only taken new forms, and had "by shifts increased and abounded to the utter undoing of many gentlemen, marchauntes, and others." The old law had erred by making no distinction in the kind of offences, and punishing all alike. Accordingly Henry VIII's act of 1545 was revived for five years. It seems, from the wording of the new statute, that men were still nominally liable to prosecution in the spiritual courts for taking any interest whatever (13 Eliz., c. 8). Under James I (1621) it was enacted that, because of the general fall in the value of land and prices of merchandise, only 8 per cent. should be allowed from June 24, 1625. This enactment was to last seven years, and the penalty of its infringement was to be treble the amount lent. Here again we see the double feeling at work—the conflicting sentiments of the injustice of all usury, and the expediency of allowing it under restrictions; for a clause was added to this bill declaring that its terms were not to be so expounded as to allow the practice of usury in point of religion or conscience. But there is no longer any mention of ecclesiastical courts; though, on the other hand, the expenses of scriveners who might negotiate a loan are jealously defined. On the Restoration, it was enacted that as previous experience had justified the lessening of the legal rate of interest from 10 to 8 per cent., it would be expedient to reduce it to a nearer level with that of the nations with whom we chiefly traded, and from henceforth it was to run at 6 per cent. Under Queen Anne, on the conclusion of the War of the Spanish Succession, it was still further reduced to 5 per cent., on the plea of its being good for trade and to the interest of the landowners, on whom the expenses of the war had mainly fallen. Another reason assigned for this reduction was that the great interest which could be secured for money invested at home had rendered people unwilling to embark in foreign trade. This remained the legal rate of interest till the reign of Queen Victoria, when all the previous laws for its regulation (they are listed in the schedule to 17 and 18 Vict., c. 90) were swept away in the year 1854.

Sir W. J. Ashley, "Economic History," 1894; W. S. Holdsworth, "History of English Law," vol. viii, 1925; R. H. Tawney, "Introduction to Wilson's 'Discourse on Usury,' 1925"; "Palgrave's Dictionary of Political Economy," ed. H. Higgs, vol. ii, 1923.

Interregnum is a term commonly applied to (i) the interval which elapsed between the execution of Charles I (January 30, 1649) and the restoration of Charles II (May 8, 1660), during which England was governed as a republic. It embraces, therefore, both the government of the Commonwealth and the Protectorate of Cromwell and his son Richard. [COMMONWEALTH; CROMWELL.]

(ii) A second interregnum of great constitutional importance occurred between the "abdication" of James II, which was held to have

taken place on December 23, 1688, the day on which he dropped the great seal into the Thames, and the offer of the crown to William and Mary on February 15, 1689. [Revolution; William III.]

Inverkeithing, The Battle of (1317), was fought in Fifeshire, between the Scots, under the Earl of Fife, and the English. Fife was at first driven back, but his men, being rallied by William Sinclair, Bishop of Dunkeld, at last drove the English back to their ships.

P. Hume Brown, "History of Scotland," 1911.

Inverlochy, The Battle of (February 2, 1645), resulted in the victory of Montrose and the Royalists over the Covenanters led by Argyll. Inverlochy is near Fort William, in the south of Inverness.

Inverness was most probably at one time the capital of the Pictish kingdom. It was granted a charter by William the Lion, and sacked in 1429 by Alexander of Harlaw, Lord of the Isles. In later days it possessed a strong castle, erected by the Earl of Huntly (c. 1460). In 1562 this castle was taken by the Regent Moray from the insurgent followers of the Earl of Huntly, and nearly a century later was garrisoned by Cromwell (1651). In 1689 it was pillaged by Claverhouse, and in 1746 was taken by the Jacobites, but recovered by the Duke of Cumberland after the battle of Culloden.

J. Cameron Lees, "History of the City of Inverness," 1897.

Inverness, John Hay, titular Earl of (1691–1740). [Hay.]

Inverury, The Battle of (May 22, 1308), was fought on the Don, in Aberdeenshire, and resulted in a complete victory for Robert Bruce over his enemy, the Earl of Buchan, and the English commanded by Mowbray.

Iona (or Hii), an island situated to the west of Mull, is famous as the place where St. Columba (q.v.) landed (May 12, 563) on his departure from Ireland, and as the spot he selected for his monastery. For 150 years Iona, the cradle of the Scottish Church and of Scottish letters, was the centre of the national Church of the Dalriad Scots. From it all Pictland was evangelized and Christianity was established in Northumbria and Middle England. In 716, owing to the zeal of Adamnan, its abbot and the other members of the monastery conformed to the Roman views both as regards the date of Easter and the shape of the tonsure. There appears, however, to have been another party which still adhered to the old way. From 795 onwards Iona was repeatedly ravaged by the Danes; in 818 the monastery, already once restored by Adamnan, was rebuilt by the abbot Diarmid, who deposited therein the shrine of Columba, which had been removed to Kells by Abbot Cellach. The monastery was again rebuilt in the eleventh century by St. Margaret, but its importance was now rapidly declining. In 908 St. Andrews was formally recognized as the primatial see of Scotland, and from this recognition dates the disappearance of Iona's insular primacy. In 1203 a new monastery and a nunnery were founded by Benedictine monks, by whom the Celtic community was either expelled or absorbed.

Adamnan's "Life of Columba."

Ionian Islands, The, are situated in the Mediterranean, off the west coast of Greece. They are seven in number—Corfu, Cephalonia, Zante, Cerigo, Santa Maura, Paxos, and Ithaca. In 1797 they were taken from the Venetians by the French, and confirmed in French possession later in the year by the Treaty of Campo Formio. In 1800 they were erected into an independent "Septinsular Republic" under the joint protection of Turkey and Russia. By the Treaty of Tilsit (July 1807) they once more became French. Four of the islands, however, were captured by British arms between 1809 and 1814, and in 1814 the seven were placed under British protection and administered by British high commissioners until 1864, when they were incorporated in the kingdom of Greece. The chief British lords high commissioners were Sir Thomas Maitland (1814–23), Sir Frederick Adam (1823–32), Lord Nugent (1832–5), Sir Howard Douglas (1835–41), C. A. Mackenzie (1841–3), Lord Seaton (1843–9), W. E. Gladstone (1859), and Sir Henry Storks (1859–64).

W. F. Lord, "The Lost Possessions of England," 1896; "Souvenirs de Lamare-Picquot, 1807–14," 1918. [A. C. F. B.]

Iraq is a mandated kingdom in Asia Minor formed by the former Turkish districts of Baghdad, Basrah, and Mosul. The mandatory power is the British Empire. British troops entered the country in November 1914 on the outbreak of war with Turkey, and the long Mesopotamian campaign, beginning with the occupation of Basrah (November 22, 1914), culminated in the fall of Baghdad in July 1917, after the defence and surrender of Kut (q.v.—April 1916). The Anglo-Iraqi treaty of 1922 was ratified in December 1925, and the mandate extended to twenty years. In 1926 the vexed question of the Mosul frontier between Iraq and Turkey was definitively settled, the Mosul district being incorporated in Iraq.

S. H. Longrigg, "Four Centuries of Modern Iraq," 1926.

Ireland. The early history of Ireland is wrapped in an obscurity which the researches of scholars into the evidence afforded by archæology, inscriptions, and etymology are only beginning to dispel. Valuable contributions to the study of the subject have been made of recent years by Professor Macalister in his "Ireland in Pre-Celtic Times"; Sir John Rhŷs in his "Studies in Early Irish History"; and by Professor Eoin MacNeill in his "Phases of Irish History" and "Celtic Ireland."

Legend tells of five successive immigrations from the East, of incessant wars between the invaders, and of the final triumph of the

Milesians (Celts or Gaels) who arrived in Ireland about 350 B.C. Niall of the Nine Hostages (A.D. 379–405) is the first real historical personage that we meet with in early Irish history. He established a kingship over all Ireland, and from him sprang the Ui Neill of Ulster and Meath, who held the high-kingship for several hundreds of years. The two most important events which took place in Ireland before the coming of the Normans were the conversion of pagan Ireland to Christianity by St. Patrick and the invasion of the Northmen. St. Patrick is said to have begun his labours in the year 432. He won over the tribal kings, founded religious communities, notably at Armagh, and organized a Church. The greatness of his work consists in the fact that he brought Ireland into touch with Latin civilization and so paved the way for the ecclesiastical cultural movement which earned for her later the description of the "Island of Saints and Scholars" (see "Life" by Professor Bury and "Cambridge Mediæval History," ii. 502–8). From the middle of the third century to the close of the fifth, both the northern and southern Irish planted colonies in Britain. The former settled in North Wales, Man, and Scotland; the latter in South Wales, Devon, and Cornwall. About the middle of the sixth century the migratory spirit revived in a new form. The Irish monks carried their missions to various parts of Europe. Monasteries were founded at Bobbio and St. Gall, St. Columba helped to christianize northern England and Scotland. At home, the Irish schools were visited by foreign students, who, while the rest of Europe was being overrun by the barbarians, fled to Ireland as an asylum, bringing their art and literature with them.

The remarkable Irish cultural movement which resulted from this contact with foreign influences received a serious set-back as the result of the Danish invasions. The Norwegians first pillaged the Irish coast in the year 795. They were succeeded by the Danes (852), who at first raided the country and then effected permanent settlements at the chief seaports. The end of the tenth century brought a change. The invaders under their king, Ivar, occupied Limerick and conquered part of Munster. In the struggle that followed a native ruler appeared, who for a time seemed destined to unite his countrymen into a nation. Brian Boruma, of the Munster tribe of the Dalcassians, routed the Danes near Tipperary in 968. Six years later he succeeded his brother Mahon on the throne of Munster. In 989 he made war on Malachy II, the titular over-king of the Ui Neill dynasty. After thirteen years of fighting and negotiation, Malachy submitted. The victory of Glen Mama had quelled a desperate revolt of Leinster and the Dublin Danes. Brian was at last supreme. For twelve years (1002–14) he ruled Ireland strongly and well. Then the Dublin Danes again rebelled. They sought and found allies amongst all the Scandinavians of the west. The battle of Clontarf was the last desperate conflict of the pagan Northmen with the Christian Irish. It was fought on the banks of the Tolka, near Dublin, on Good Friday, 1014. The enemy was driven into the sea, but the old king was slain by the "apostate deacon" Brodir as he prayed for his people. The Danes were not absolutely banished from Ireland as the result of this battle, but they failed in their main object, which was to establish a kingdom. They performed a permanent service for the country, however, in originating the commercial life of the towns. (See Eleanor Hull's "History of Ireland," chaps. 3 and 4.) Brian's death was a great misfortune for Ireland. He had destroyed the traditional supremacy of the Ui Neill; his own house was unable to make good their claims. Long and ruinous wars between the O'Neills, the O'Briens, and the O'Conors of Connacht continued to the Norman invasion.

Over a hundred small kingdoms of some sort existed in early Ireland whose boundaries loosely corresponded to those of the modern baronies. Some of the old Irish kingdoms (*tuatha*) were free, i.e., they gave no tribute nor owned any allegiance to an overlord, others were subject to the conquering over-king of the district. In the seventh and eighth centuries the various classes of kings were formally classified in writing. There was the king of Ireland, the king of a Fifth (the *Four Great Fifths* were the provinces into which ancient Ireland was divided), and the king of a great *tuath* which had lesser kingdoms under it. The king, who was elected, had to be of the royal kindred or fine; all his duties were carefully defined in the written law tracts. He had to consult the *airecht* or assembly of nobles, and also the *œnach*, the periodic gathering of the body of freemen to whom he owed his election. The chief, who lived in a dwelling fortified by stockades and earthworks, had some of the tribe lands set apart for his own use, and exacted tributes in cattle and services from his people. He also lent out cattle on hire. The order of old Irish society was intensely aristocratic. The noble class or *nemith* were naturally the most privileged. The *flaiths* were the landowning nobles, then in order of importance came the freemen (*féni*) holding property of various kinds, and finally the *findirs*. These last were of the ancient stock of the country and had sunk to the position of serfs. The social position of craftsmen, bards, etc., was carefully defined. Each had his "honour-price" which carried with it a definite penalty or compensation in case of crime or offence. The Brehons were the hereditary lawyers and judges. They interpreted the tribal customs to the people. Each *tuath* was a complete community with a king (*rí*), nobles, freemen, law courts, armies, assemblies, and fairs. In her "History of the Old Irish State to 1014" Mrs. J. R. Green deals shortly with the old Irish political arrangements, embodying the results of recent research. The

subject is one of considerable complexity, and students must await a further study of the Brehon laws for full elucidations of particular points.

Life in ancient Ireland was naturally rural, there being no cities or towns before the coming of the Northmen. There were large forest areas which abounded in game, deer, boar, and wolves. Oats were the chief crop, but wheat, barley, and rye were sown. The chief wealth of the country consisted in its cattle, by the value of which all else was measured. The food of the Irish was very simple, consisting mainly of cheese, milk, oaten cake, and butter. Houses were built of wattles or hewn timber. Dress consisted of a loose woollen shirt covered by a tight tunic. A shawl fastened by a brooch hung from the left shoulder. The chief exports were hides and frieze, which were largely exchanged for English slaves at Bristol and for French wines at Poitiers. The native artists excelled in copying and illuminating books and in working the precious metals. Many beautiful specimens of early Irish work may be seen in the Dublin museums and elsewhere. Giraldus Cambrensis, the historian of the Norman Conquest, who had hardly a good word to say of the Irish people, praised their love of music and skill in harp-playing. There must have been variations in social customs at different periods of Irish history, but the chief features were much the same at the end of the sixteenth century as they had been at the time of the Norman Conquest. Two of the most striking customs which persisted into Elizabeth's reign were those of tanistry and fosterage. The *tánaiste* was the successor appointed to the chieftainship during the lifetime of the reigning chief, who had thus no more than a life interest in his land. Fosterage was the practice of sending children to be educated with the family of another member of the clan. The English lawyers and administrators approved of neither. Tanistry conflicted with feudal ideas of landholding; while fosterage was a dangerous method of promoting tribal alliances.

In the year 1169 Robert Fitz-Stephen and Maurice Fitz-Gerald landed in Wexford, as nominal allies of Dermot McMorrogh, a deposed king of Leinster. The more famous "Strongbow," Richard de Clare, followed the next year. The conquests they made were so easy and so rapid that Henry II feared they would establish an independent Norman state across the Channel. To prevent the danger, he came himself to Ireland in 1171. Many native chiefs acknowledged his supremacy; many did him feudal homage in ignorance of the obligations they incurred. The conflict thus introduced between the Brehon law of the tribes and the feudal law of the English is the true explanation of the subsequent relations of the two races. Henry acted under colour of a bull of the English pope, Adrian IV. He was at first well received by the churchmen. The brutality of John (1185) estranged both clerks and laymen. The Norman power spread without consolidating. The Crown discouraged the growth of strong principalities, and without strength order was impossible. The Irish could isolate the scattered settlements at pleasure, by seizing the passes through the woods and the hills. The foreigners fought amongst themselves, and called in Irish aid. They were compelled to serve their king in his wars with France and Scotland. Estates passed by marriage into the hands of English absentees. They were ill guarded, and retaken by the tribes. The barons themselves in the wild districts bowed before the Celtic revival. They abandoned their feudal pretensions, and acted as native chiefs. (The best account of the Norman Conquest and settlement of Ireland has been given by Mr. Goddard Orpen in his "Ireland Under the Normans," 4 vols.)

By the beginning of the fourteenth century the English power had sunk to a low ebb. It was ruined by the Scottish invasion of Edward Bruce. For two years he wasted Ireland. At length, "after eighteen successive victories," he was defeated and slain by the viceroy near Faughart (1318). But he had exterminated the English yeomen, the sinews of the settlement. In 1333 William and Edward de Burgo, the heads of a great Norman house, the sons of an English viceroy, deliberately renounced their allegiance, divided the lordship of Connacht between them in defiance of the English rule of succession, and adopted the Irish "language, apparel, and laws." Their example was followed by many. Large territories in Ulster and Leinster were reoccupied by the O'Neills and the McMorroghs. The flight of the English population was vainly forbidden by law. In 1367 the Statute of Kilkenny (40 Edward III) recorded the conscious impotence of its authors. They had ceased to dream of conquests. Their ambition was to preserve the shrunken remnant of their dominions from the insidious encroachments of the Celt. The natives were rapidly assimilating the colonists to themselves. The statute attempted by savage penalties to isolate the English from the contagion, and to put a stop to the adoption of the native dress, language, and customs. In 1374 the great constitutional question, which, four centuries later, cost England an empire, arose in the Irish parliament. The viceroy tried to force the colonists to send representatives to England, with power to assent to taxation on their behalf. He was firmly and successfully opposed. A few years later the Kavanaghs and the O'Briens levied blackmail on Dublin Castle.

King Richard II was at last provoked to vindicate the power of the Crown. He crossed the sea with a great army, but the Irish "mocked him with their light submission," so that "he enlarged not the English borders the breadth of one acre of land" (1395). Four years later he returned. A march through the Kavanaghs' country reduced his forces to a rabble. He fled from Dublin to meet Henry of Lancaster.

For a century the colony continued to dwindle. Parts of four shires formed the English dominion, and these were full of native Irish. (The only complete history dealing with this period is Professor Curtis's "Mediæval Ireland, 1110–1513.")

The Wars of the Roses were disastrous to the settlers. They were Yorkists to a man. They formally acknowledged Duke Richard as their viceroy, in defiance of the English attainder. They solemnly asserted the independence of their parliament. They followed the pretender Simnel into England. They were decimated at Sandel Castle and at Stoke. To Henry VII the Anglo-Irish were more dangerous than the Celts. The only important Irish measure of his reign was that which made the colonial parliament completely subject to the council, and extended all existing English statutes to the colony (Poynings' Act, 10 Henry VII, c. 4). For the first fifty years of the Tudor rule the Leinster Geraldines were the true lords of the settlement. Their rebellion in 1534 brought a new force into Ireland. All over Europe the old feudal monarchies had been succeeded by despots, who embodied the national forces and the national will. Henry VIII was the first king of England who could strike with the whole force of the State. He resolved to let the Anglo-Irish feel the blow. A disciplined force and a train of artillery reduced the Geraldine castles. The king was master of the island. He desired to rule his new kingdom well. But the greed of his servants, and his unhappy determination to thrust English manners upon the Celts, inevitably led to resistance and repression. The secularization of the Church lands was not unpopular. Many abbeys were granted to the chiefs "as the means to make them rather glad to suppress them." The doctrinal changes on the other hand provoked a bitter opposition. No open outbreak occurred, but on the accession of Mary the old order was triumphantly restored. [Church of Ireland.]

The garrison of English landholders, the bulwark of Protestantism in Ireland, was by a curious irony introduced in the name of Philip II of Spain. King's and Queen's Counties were "planted" by statute in 1556. The third chapter of the same act authorized the chancellor to dispatch commissioners throughout the island "to set out shires and counties," that is, to substitute English for Irish law without regard for vested rights. The disputed succession to the earldom of Tyrone brought matters to a crisis under Elizabeth. Shane O'Neill was the *tánaiste* of his tribe; the bastard of Dungannon claimed by an English patent. A war followed, disgraceful even amongst English wars in Ireland. Shane visited the queen. He was detained, in breach of his safe-conduct, until he accepted terms he could not keep. On his return home, "my lord treasurer's man" tried to poison him. In 1566 the war was renewed. The new lord deputy Sidney fought O'Neill by the hands of his native rivals. The O'Donnells defeated him near Lifford; the Scots of Antrim murdered him. His death was followed by an act of 1569 making all Ireland shire-land, and thereby depriving many chiefs of benefits expressly secured to them by indenture with the Crown. Ten years later the Desmond rebellion (1579) was quelled by a war of extermination. The plantation system was definitely adopted. The policy of the government was not to subdue, but to destroy. Women and infants were regularly murdered. A well-planned famine removed the fugitives who escaped the sword. Munster was a desert, fit at last for the civilization of the Raleghs and the Spensers. Half a million of acres were bestowed on English adventurers, on condition that they should plant their vast estates with English farmers. The condition was never fulfilled. The starving Celts crept from the woods and glens to outbid the strangers. But one province did not satisfy the English. Hugh O'Neill, the English Earl of Tyrone, the son of the bastard of Dungannon, was reluctantly driven into war. Bred at the English court, and conscious of the English power, he tried to combine the impossible parts of an Irish chief and an English noble. His tribe accepted him as their leader in 1593. The next year he was summoned before the council, and, to the queen's great indignation, suffered to return. His course could be no longer doubtful. He contrived to unite all the Ulster tribes beneath his banner, and he sought for aid from Spain. In 1598 he routed Bagnall at the Yellow Ford, and roused Munster. For three years he harassed without engaging the enemy. At length, in September 1601, a strong Spanish force landed at Kinsale. If Hugh could join them, his triumph was secure. They were blockaded by veteran troops. Hugh was betrayed and beaten (December). In the following March he made peace on almost the same terms he had himself proposed in 1587. But although O'Neill had held his own in the field, he could not resist the "war of chicane," which at once began against him. He and his ally, O'Donnell of Tyrconnel, the representatives of the old royal house of the Ui Neill, were forced to fly. Their lands were confiscated and "planted," and the tribesmen treated as tenants-at-will under the Crown. This flagrant injustice led directly to the outbreak of 1641. The "subtle ravage" of the lawyers, and the growing Protestantism of the government, which now, for the first time, had a large Protestant population at its back, gradually forced even the old Anglo-Irish Catholics into a close union with the Celts. Strafford claimed all the estates of Connacht for the Crown, on the plea that the Chancery officers had neglected to enrol the patents of the owners. The Irish gentlemen offered £120,000 for quieting their titles. The offer was accepted, the money was paid, and then the viceroy announced that he would not observe the conditions.

Meanwhile the religious tension was increasing. A Catholic revival had spread over Europe. In England the Puritans were rising into power. On October 22, 1641, a rising occurred in Ulster. In December the English Commons resolved to extirpate popery in Ireland. Then the rebellion spread. The lords justices were careful not to limit it; the wider the rebellion, it was said at the time, the wider would be the forfeitures at their disposal.* The struggle was very horrible. The colonists were everywhere expelled, and often murdered. The Irish chiefs did what they could to humanize the war; the English leaders encouraged the ferocity of their men. The divisions of the Irish Royalists gave Cromwell an easy victory. The act of devastation was perfected by the Saints. Nearly half the population perished in eleven years. When the war was over, many hundreds of boys and of marriageable girls were sold into slavery. Thirty or forty thousand men enlisted in foreign service. Three provinces were confiscated, and parcelled out amongst the soldiers and the creditors of the Parliament. By the peace of 1648, Charles I promised to restore the Irish Catholics to their estates. In 1650 Charles II confirmed the engagements of his father. He changed his mind when he was king. He "considered the settlement of Ireland as an affair rather of policy than justice," and "thought it most for the good of the kingdom, advantage of the Crown, and security of his government, that the loss should fall on the Irish." By the Acts of Settlement and Explanation he confirmed to the Cromwellians the estates of his father's last supporters. Before the rebellion two-thirds of the fertile soil belonged to the Catholics. Under the Act of Settlement two-thirds remained to the Protestants. The War of the Revolution gave the final blow to the old race. They saw in it a chance of undoing the wrongs of the last thirty years. Their ablest leaders, backed by D'Avaux and Louvois, desired to establish Ireland as a separate kingdom, under French protection. The king landed in March 1689. The parliament met in May. Poynings' Act and the Acts of Settlement and Explanation were repealed. The Cromwellians and their heirs were dispossessed, as wrongful possessors, but *bona fide* purchasers for valuable consideration were to be reprised. To provide for these reprisals, the estates of the English colonists who supported the Prince of Orange were confiscated. A wholesale Act of Attainder was passed to increase the forfeitures. But the war went against King James. He had neither money nor arms. His troops were ill-disciplined, and his counsels divided. The relief of Derry and the battle of Newtown Butler (q.v.), in 1689, were followed up by the passage of the Boyne, in 1690, and the decisive defeat of Aghrim, in 1691 (q.v.). The capitulation of Limerick was signed, after an heroic defence, on October 3. The flower of the Irish soldiers followed their king into France, to "find their graves in strange places and unhereditary churches." Parliament refused to ratify the Treaty of Limerick (q.v.); fresh confiscations were made; and the national faith was proscribed.

A great development of material prosperity might, perhaps, have reconciled the Irish to the conquest. The English and the Irish parliaments vied in legislation which made prosperity impossible. Trade was crushed by the commercial jealousy of the one; society was sapped by the bigotry of the other. Ireland was already excluded from the Navigation Acts. Acts of 1665 and 1680 had prohibited the importation of Irish cattle and provisions into England. The colonial trade was ruined in 1696; the wool trade with England in 1698; the wool trade with the continent in 1699. Catholics were forbidden by Irish acts to purchase lands, to lend on real securities, to take long or beneficial leases. The Gavelling Act (1703) broke up existing estates. Catholic minors were placed under Protestant guardians. The Courts of Equity assigned a liberal provision to apostate wives and children. The English grantees of confiscated estates were necessarily absentees. They leased vast tracts to Irish Protestants on beneficial terms. The lessee sub-let, sometimes four or five deep. The misery of the cottier was extreme. He paid a rack-rent; he supported his priest; he was tithed by the parson. The steady growth of pasture drove him to the mountain and the bog. Famine and disease were chronic. A vast emigration set in. Before the trade laws and the Test Act, the Presbyterian artisans and yeomen fled to Germany and America. The Catholics served under every European flag save one. At home they were a rabble. "The tendons of society were cut." When the masses came to power they had none to lead. The penal code was so repugnant to human nature, the commercial code was so opposed to the common interest, that their regular execution was impossible. Priests, "whom the laws did not presume to exist," publicly discharged the duties of their office; smuggling became a national industry. The whole population was educated into contempt for the law. They came soon to have a law of their own, enforced by the Houghers (q.v.) and the Whiteboys (1761) (q.v.) with merciless severity. The government was a corrupt oligarchy. The hereditary revenue, which included two-thirds of the taxation, made the Crown independent. The judicial interpretation of Poynings' Act and the Declaratory Act of 1719 ensured the subservience of the parliament. All bills were submitted

* Whether the terrible charge of Carte, Leland, Lord Castlehaven, and Nalson be well founded it is, perhaps, impossible to determine. But it is certain that the measures of the lords justices were eminently adapted to spread the rebellion. It is certain, too, that from the first they looked forward to confiscations. When the seven lords of the Pale revolted, they hastened to point out how "those great counties of Leinster, Ulster, and the Pale" lay now "more open to his Majesty's free disposal, and to a general settlement of peace and religion by introducing of English."

first to the Irish, then to the English privy council. They were suppressed or altered at the pleasure of either. If approved by the two councils, parliament might pass or reject, but could not amend them. The Upper House was largely controlled by the English courtiers who sat upon the right reverend bench. An English act of 1691 excluded Catholics; an English test clause of 1704 excluded Dissenters from the legislature. The Catholics lost the franchise. Protestants exercised it once in a lifetime. The parliament of George II sat for thirty-three years. Two-thirds of the members were returned by boroughs, and the boroughs were in the hands of "Undertakers" (q.v.) and patrons. The Houses met once in two years. The judges were removable at pleasure. The greatest offices were habitually bestowed on English non-residents. A spirit of resistance slowly grew amongst the colonists. The House of Lords vainly protested against the deprivation of its appellate jurisdiction in the Annesley case (1719—q.v.). Three years later the country rose against "Wood's halfpence" (q.v.), and drove Walpole to submission. The struggle "had a most unhappy influence on the state of the nation, by bringing on intimacies between papists and Jacobites, and the Whigs, who before had no correspondence with them." In 1749 the Crown worsted the Houses over an Appropriation Bill. In the next two sessions the contest was renewed, and the government outvoted. The opposition grew, the pension list swelled, the price of the boroughs advanced. Between 1750 and 1754 seats trebled in value. The influence of the middle classes was first felt at the dissolution on the demise of the Crown. Their objects were to control their representatives by an Octennial Act, and to correct the scandals of the pension list. The Peace of Paris added India and Canada to the empire. An increase of the standing army was essential to their safety. Ministers did not dare to make the proposal in England. By the concession of an Octennial Act (February 1768) they secured an increase of 3,000 men to the Irish establishment. The overthrow of the "Undertakers" followed. Lord Townshend and Lord Harcourt attempted by lavish bribes to create a party of "king's friends," dependent only on the Crown. Between 1757 and 1777 the civil list had nearly doubled, the pension list had nearly doubled, and a million had been added to the debt. The American War brought a crisis. In 1778 the impending bankruptcy of Ireland forced Lord North to relax the commercial code in defiance of the English middle classes. The government was too poor to replace the garrisons withdrawn for the colonial war. The country was defenceless, and invasion seemed imminent. The whole Protestant population armed. In December 1778 the Volunteers numbered 8,000; in June 1779, 42,000; in 1781, it is said, as many as 80,000 men. They were for the most part Protestants; they were officered by the Protestant gentry, and they were thoroughly loyal to the English connexion. But they resolved to free their country from the commercial tyranny of England. They began to discuss political questions and to concert their action. In December 1781 came the news of Saratoga and of York Town. In the following February the delegates of 143 Ulster corps met at Dungannon. They asserted the independence of the kingdom, and the right to free trade. They demanded that the judges should be made independent, and the Mutiny Act limited to a single session. They condemned the penal laws, and appointed a committee to communicate with other corps. Their example was everywhere followed. Grattan pressed the demand for independence in the Commons. In April the House addressed the Crown. It adopted in full the constitutional theories of Dungannon. They were accepted in May by the parliament of England. Fox, it has been said, "met Ireland on her own terms, and gave her everything she wanted in the way she herself seemed to wish for it."

But independence was not the sole legislative achievement of the Volunteers. Between 1778 and 1782 many wholesome measures were passed. Almost all the commercial restraints were removed. A Habeas Corpus Act and a limited Mutiny Act became law. The judges were made immovable. The Test Act was repealed. Bills for the relief of the Catholics were carried in 1778, 1782, and 1792. In 1793 the Catholics were enfranchised.

Two grievances remained—the corruption of parliament, and the exclusion of Catholics from its walls. Upon both points the patriots were divided. Charlemont and Flood feared to extend the political power of the Catholics. Grattan was their earnest advocate. All agreed upon the necessity of reform, but Flood alone was ready to overawe the Houses into honesty. The Volunteer convention showed a growing appetite for politics. Charlemont and Grattan were entirely opposed to legislation by menace. Flood's Reform Bill was rejected by a great majority, and the convention was immediately dissolved. For fifteen years Pitt debauched the Irish parliament. Reform or emancipation would alike have been fatal to the union which he presently began to design. It was to redress these evils that the club of United Irishmen was formed by Hamilton Rowan. The persistent opposition of the government, however, drove its members to disloyalty. Sympathy with the French revolution grew active in the north. In 1793 the Convention Act became law. At last, in 1794, Pitt seemed to waver. Lord Fitzwilliam, a known friend of the Catholics, was named viceroy; and the expectations of the Catholics were raised to the highest pitch. Suddenly the viceroy was recalled. The miserable rebellion of 1798 followed. A brief and horrible agrarian rising was suppressed, and punished with the cruelty that comes of fear. The English minister saw his opportunity, and bought the

parliament he had degraded so ably and so long. The union with England was accomplished by the act 39 & 40 Geo. III, c. 67, July 2, 1800, and the Irish parliament ceased to exist a month later. For many years the country was profoundly disturbed. Robert Emmet (q.v.) was hanged in 1803 for plotting a second rebellion. Orange outrages prevailed in the north, and Daniel O'Connell (q.v.) was beginning to marshal the Catholic democracy. He determined from the first to win emancipation without conditions. The Liberal Protestants under Grattan, the Catholic gentry under Lord Fingall, the English Catholics, and a strong party at Rome under Gonsalvi, were prepared to give the Crown a veto on the nomination of Irish prelates, in return for the boon. The bishops themselves favoured the compromise. O'Connell opposed and beat them all. The Catholic Association (1823—q.v.) organized the peasantry through the priests. The Waterford election (1826) proved the power of the movement. The return of O'Connell for Clare in 1829 convinced the Duke of Wellington that he must choose between concession and civil war. The Emancipation Act was passed, the forty-shilling freeholders were disfranchised, and the Catholic Association (q.v.) suppressed. The horrors of the Tithe War led to a severe Coercion Act in 1833, and to the abolition of tithes and the substitution of a land tax in 1838. A Poor Law was passed in the same year, and a Municipal Reform Act two years later. The national schools were founded in 1831–2, and the Queen's colleges in 1845. O'Connell's formidable agitation for repeal marked the second administration of Sir Robert Peel. The prohibition of the monster meeting at Clontarf (October 8, 1843) broke his power. He died at Genoa in 1847. The "Young Ireland" party (q.v.), chiefly composed of Protestant journalists and men of letters, made a foolish attempt at rebellion in 1848. The potato famine of 1846–8, and the Encumbered Estates Court Act, caused a vast exodus to America. A considerable amount of English capital was invested in Ireland, and some years of steady progress ensued. But the enduring existence of social and political discontents was revealed by the Phœnix Conspiracy of 1858. They culminated in Fenianism at the close of the American War. [Fenian Conspiracy.] In 1868 Gladstone became premier and proceeded to legislate for Ireland. The Irish Church was disestablished and disendowed in 1869, and a Land Bill embodying some novel principles became law in 1870. Two years after the Ballot Act (1872), the Home Rule party came into prominence under Isaac Butt. He was soon ousted from his position by Parnell, who availed himself of the distress caused by bad harvests in 1878–80 to organize the formidable Land League movement. By a second Land Act, passed in 1881, Gladstone transformed the whole system of Irish tenures. The Land League was suppressed in the same year, but immediately revived as the National League. Systematic outrages, however, still prevailed over three of the provinces. Offenders against the "unwritten law" were shot or "boycotted," and in May 1882 Lord Frederick Cavendish and Mr. Burke, the chief and under secretaries for Ireland, were stabbed by the "Invincibles" in the Phœnix Park. In 1885, nearly ninety Nationalists having been elected to parliament under the reduced franchise, Gladstone, followed by the great bulk of the Liberal party, embraced the cause of Home Rule. His bill was rejected in 1886, his government being succeeded by one pledged to maintain the Union intact. But he returned to power in 1892 and introduced a second bill, which passed the Commons but was thrown out by the Lords.

Home Rule was postponed once more. A Local Government Act in 1898, however, assimilated the administration of Ireland to that of Great Britain, and a new Land Act was passed in 1903 (and amended in 1904) to the advantage of both vendor and tenant. During the next five years the chief events of political importance in Ireland were the royal visit of Edward VII and Queen Alexandra (1903–4) and the Irish Universities Act (1908).

The Home Rule question became dominant in 1910, when the parliamentary elections left the Liberal and Conservative parties practically equal, and so made the Liberal government dependent on the support of the Irish Nationalists under John Redmond (q.v.). Ireland itself was divided in opinion among the Nationalists (Home Rule party), the Sinn Fein party (q.v.) under Arthur Griffith, the Republican party founded by James Connolly, and a Unionist minority, mainly Protestant in religion, under Sir Edward Carson. Despite the Unionist protest at Craigavon, Ulster, in September 1911, a Home Rule Bill was introduced by Mr. Asquith in April 1912, and repeatedly rejected by the Lords amid continued protests against it from the Ulster Unionists, who established a provisional government under Sir Edward Carson (September 1913) and adopted an attitude of defiance, enlisting and arming companies of Volunteers. The Republicans on their side began to enrol the National Volunteers as a challenge to Ulster; and hopes of a peaceful solution dwindled when Mr. Asquith's proposal for a compromise excluding Ulster from the scope of the bill for five years was rejected by both sides in March 1914, and followed later in the month by the Curragh incident (q.v.). The transport of arms to Belfast, and the passage of the Home Rule Bill through its third reading on May 25, augured ill for Irish tranquillity. John Redmond did indeed make an earnest gesture of peace on the outbreak of the Great War, and the operation of the Home Se le Bill, which received the royal assent in ptember, was postponed; while Northern nd Southern Ireland sank their differences in a campaign of recruiting for the British army during 1915. But the War was viewed by the Sinn Fein party and the Irish Republican

Brotherhood as an opportunity to secure their demands. On Easter Monday, 1916, the Irish Republic was proclaimed in Dublin, and all the principal buildings seized by the rebels, who counted on the active assistance of Germany. The rebellion was short-lived, however; the Volunteer stronghold surrendered unconditionally to government troops on April 29, and 15 of the leaders were court-martialled and shot. During 1916 another attempt at a compromise on the basis of excluding Ulster from the Home Rule Act was undertaken by Mr. Lloyd George, without success. A fresh proposal in 1917 for an all-Ireland conference was accepted by all parties except Sinn Fein, which would be content with nothing short of Irish independence; but the conference was unable to reach an agreement. The Conscription Act of 1918 could not be enforced, and the 73 Sinn Fein members elected to parliament in that year refused to take their seats and set up instead the Assembly of Ireland (Dail Eireann) under the presidency of Eamon de Valera (q.v.). The two governments—British and Irish—at once began a duel which was to last for three years. It was marked in 1919 by the efforts of Sinn Fein to raise the Irish question at the Versailles Conference and in Washington, by raids and shootings in Ireland, "special military areas" being proclaimed wherever an officer of the Crown was shot, and by the last Home Rule Bill, introduced with a view to providing two parliaments in Ireland, one for Ulster and one for the rest of the country. The bill received scant support. The next year, 1920, was signalized by the activities of the "Black and Tans," authorized by the British government in April, the campaign of Sinn Fein reprisals, and the Act for the Better Government of Ireland (December). But feeling was rising everywhere in favour of a cessation of hostilities. In May 1921 a conference took place between Sir James Craig (Lord Carson's successor in Ulster) and de Valera (the leader of Sinn Fein), and a path to peace was opened which led, after the burning of the Dublin Customs House and its records by the Irish Republican Army (May 25), to the acceptance by Northern Ireland of the Home Rule Bill of 1919. The Northern parliament was opened on July 7. On July 8 a truce was signed between North and South. On September 30, de Valera sent envoys to London to settle the future condition of Southern Ireland. The Irish Free State finally came into being as a British Dominion by a treaty signed on December 6, according it fiscal autonomy and providing that Northern Ireland should be allowed to ratify or reject the treaty at will within one month. [IRELAND, NORTHERN; IRISH FREE STATE.]

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[J. W. F.] [C. M.] [A. C. F. B.]

LORD-LIEUTENANTS AND LORD DEPUTIES OF IRELAND.

Hugh de Lacy	1172
Richard, Earl of Pembroke	1173
Raymond le Gros	1176
Prince John	1177
Lord Justices, no Lord Deputy	1184
Hugh de Lacy (1189)	also 1203 and 1205
Meyler Fitz-Henry	1199 and 1204
Geoffrey de Marisco	1215–1232–1233
Piers Gaveston	1308
Edmund le Botiller	1312
Roger de Mortimer	1316
Thomas Fitzgerald	1320
John de Bermingham	1321
Earl of Kildare	1327
Prior Roger Outlow	1328 and 1340
Sir John d'Arcy	1332
Sir John de Cherlton	1337
Sir Raoul de Ufford	1344
Sir Roger d'Arcy, Sir John Moriz	1346
Walter de Bermingham	1348
Maurice, Earl of Desmond	1355
Thomas de Rokeby	1356
Almeric de St. Amand	1357
James, Earl of Ormonde	1359
Lionel, Duke of Clarence	1361
Gerald, Earl of Desmond	1367
William de Windsor	1369–1374
Maurice, Earl of Desmond; James, Earl of Ormonde	1376
Edmund Mortimer, Earl of March	1380
Robert de Vere, Earl of Oxford	1385
Sir John Stanley	1389 and 1398
James, Earl of Ormonde	1391
Thomas, Duke of Gloucester	1393
Roger de Mortimer	1395
Reginald Grey, Thomas de Holland; Lords Justices	1398
Thomas of Lancaster	1401 and 1408
Sir John Stanley and Sir John Talbot	1413
James, Earl of Ormonde	1420
Edmund de Mortimer	1423
Sir John Talbot	1425
Sir John Grey	1427
Sir John Sutton	1428
Sir Thomas Stanley	1431 and 1435
Lord de Wells	1438
John, Earl of Shrewsbury	1446
Richard, Duke of York	1449
George, Duke of Clarence	1461
Earl of Worcester	1470
John de la Pole, Earl of Suffolk	1478
Gerald, Earl of Kildare	1483

John de la Pole, Earl of Lincoln 1484
Jasper Tudor, Duke of Bedford 1488
Henry, Duke of York (afterwards Henry VIII); his deputy, Sir Edward Poynings. . . . 1494
Gerald, Earl of Kildare 1496–1504
Earl of Surrey 1521
Henry, Duke of Richmond 1529
Thomas, Earl of Sussex 1560
Robert, Earl of Essex 1599
Lord Mountjoy 1603
Lord Falkland 1623
Lord Strafford 1629
James, Marquis of Ormonde. . . . 1643 and 1648
Oliver Cromwell 1649
Henry Cromwell 1657
Duke of Ormonde 1662
Lord Roberts 1669
Lord Berkeley 1670
Earl of Essex 1672
Duke of Ormonde 1677
Earl of Clarendon 1685
Earl of Tyrconnel 1687
Lord Sydney 1690
Lord Capel. 1695
Earl of Rochester 1700
Duke of Ormonde 1703
Earl of Pembroke 1707
Earl of Wharton 1709
Duke of Ormonde 1710
Duke of Shrewsbury 1713
Duke of Bolton 1717
Duke of Grafton 1721
John, Lord Carteret 1724
Lionel, Duke of Dorset 1731
Duke of Devonshire 1737
Earl of Chesterfield 1745
Earl of Harrington 1747
Duke of Dorset 1751
Duke of Devonshire 1755
Duke of Bedford. 1757
Earl of Halifax 1761
Earl of Northumberland 1763
Earl of Hertford 1765
George, Viscount Townshend 1767
Simon, Earl of Harcourt 1772
John, Earl of Buckinghamshire 1777
Frederick, Earl of Carlisle 1780
Duke of Portland 1782
Earl Temple 1782
Robert, Earl of Northington 1783
Duke of Rutland 1784
Marquis of Buckingham (Earl Temple) . . . 1787
John, Earl of Westmoreland 1790
William, Earl Fitzwilliam 1795
John, Earl Camden 1795
Marquis Cornwallis 1798
Earl of Hardwicke 1801
Duke of Bedford. 1806
Duke of Richmond 1807
Earl Whitworth 1813
Earl Talbot 1817
Marquis of Wellesley 1821
Marquis of Anglesey 1828
Duke of Northumberland 1829
Marquis of Anglesey 1830
Marquis of Wellesley 1833
Earl of Haddington 1834
Marquis Normanby 1835
Earl Fortescue 1839
Earl de Grey 1841
Lord Heytesbury 1844
Earl of Bessborough 1846
Earl of Clarendon 1847
Earl of Eglinton 1852
Earl of St. Germans 1853
Earl of Carlisle 1855
John, Lord Wodehouse (Earl of Kimberley) . . 1864
Marquis of Abercorn 1866
John, Earl Spencer 1868
Duke of Abercorn 1874
Duke of Marlborough 1874
Earl Cowper 1880
Earl Spencer 1882
Earl of Carnarvon 1885
Earl of Aberdeen 1886
Marquis of Londonderry 1886
Earl of Zetland 1889
Lord Houghton (the Earl of Crewe) . . . 1892
Earl of Cadogan 1895
Earl of Dudley 1902
Earl of Aberdeen 1905
Vacant 1916
Lord Wimborne 1917
Viscount French 1918
Viscount Fitzalan 1921

Ireland, Northern, a partially self-governing part of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, was constituted in 1920 by the Government of Ireland Act. The first parliament met in Belfast on June 7, 1921, and was opened by the king on June 22, Sir James Craig (q.v.) being the first prime minister. At the outset the government of Northern Ireland made it clear that it would not consent to union with the Irish Free State (q.v.), and decision on this point was left to it by the Irish Free State (Agreement) Act of 1922, which provided also that, if Northern Ireland voted for separation, the boundary between north and south should be fixed by a mixed commission. Another act of the same year restricted the operation of the Government of Ireland Act to Northern Ireland and established a governor and a privy council for Northern Ireland. Fiscal separation from the Free State was achieved in April 1923, and the boundary question was finally settled on December 3, 1925. Northern Ireland is administered by a governor, a Senate, and a House of Commons. The governor, acting in the name of the king, gives or withholds assent to bills passed by the two Houses, subject to certain limitations. The Senate consists of 26 members and the House of Commons of 52. The initiation of money bills is vested in the Commons. All executive power continues to reside in the king, but is exercised by the governor. [A. C. F. B.]

Ireland, Duke of. [Vere, Robert de (1362–92).]

Ireton, Henry (1611–51), was educated at Oxford, and on the outbreak of the Civil War joined the Parliamentary party, and fought at Gainsborough, Newbury, and Naseby. In January 1647 he married Cromwell's daughter Bridget. He was active in putting down the Royalist risings in 1648, and was one of the most energetic members of the High Court of Justice which condemned Charles I to death. He was nominated in the council of state in 1649, but his name was struck out by parliament. When Cromwell went over to Ireland Ireton was appointed second in command, and on Cromwell's recall he was made lord deputy, which office, says Ludlow, who was his colleague, "he conducted with great ability, and with unbounded devotion to the public service." Parliament settled £2,000 a year on him, but he refused to take it. He died of the plague, and was buried in Westminster Abbey; but his remains were dishonoured at the Restoration with those of the other "regicides," and hung in chains at Tyburn.

Irish Church. [Church of Ireland.]

Irish Free State, The (Saorstat Eireann), was created on January 15, 1922,

with the status of a British Dominion, on the ratification by the parliament of Southern Ireland (Dail Eireann) of the Irish Peace agreement signed in London on December 6, 1921. The first president was Arthur Griffith. A provisional government of 8 members was immediately set up under the chairmanship of Michael Collins (q.v.) and a new police force (the Civic Guard) inaugurated. The immediate difficulties in the path of the new State were the hostility to it maintained by the Republicans under de Valera (q.v.) and the refusal of Northern Ireland under Sir James Craig (q.v.) to adopt a policy of reunion. The first of these precipitated civil war in July 1922, when the Republicans were defeated at the June elections. Within a month Griffith and Collins had been killed, and the presidency passed to Mr. Cosgrave (q.v.), under whose direction the dail assembled in Dublin in September to draft a constitution which was ultimately ratified by the Imperial parliament on December 6. The Free State constitution embodies the democratic principles of adult suffrage, referendum, and initiative. By December the state of the country had reached an extreme of terrorism; trial by jury had become futile, and outrage and looting were universal. Northern Ireland refused to join the Free State, and the latter was accordingly constituted a separate Dominion under the governor-generalship of Mr. T. M. Healy. By May 1923 order was restored and de Valera signalled his followers to abandon hostilities. The Free State developed a customs system along the Ulster border, formally entered the League of Nations, and sent its president to the Imperial Conference in London (1923). Nevertheless 1924 was an unfortunate year. Resistance to the State was still threatened; the harvest of 1923 had been bad; finances were at a low ebb despite the loan of £10,000,000 raised in December 1923; a mutiny occurred in March among certain officers of the army who demanded a voice in the administration of public affairs; taxation was heavy and the customs barrier was unpopular; while the general tendency towards centralized and bureaucratic administration was distrusted. This unhappy state of affairs was in part alleviated by the successful budget of 1925, and by the settlement in London of the outstanding boundary dispute with Northern Ireland (December 3, 1925) which confirmed the existing boundary.

A. C. White, "The Irish Free State," 1923.

[A. C. F. B.]

Irish Land Acts. [Land Legislation, Irish.]

Irish Repeal Agitation is the name given to the movement headed by Daniel O'Connell (q.v.) for the repeal of the English and Irish Union. From his first appearance in public life, O'Connell displayed a steady hostility to the Act of Union. His activity was long absorbed in the great struggle for emancipation, but he consistently avowed his purpose of using emancipation as a step to repeal. The Catholic controversy had two abiding results: it substituted the power of the priests for the power of the landlords in Ireland, and it gave an immense impetus to the system of organized agitation in English politics. When the act became law, O'Connell applied the machinery which carried it to the promotion of repeal. The agitation was suspended in 1831, renewed after the Coercion Act of 1833, and again suspended on the accession of Lord Melbourne to power in 1835. The Emancipation Act had been in force for six years, but Catholics were still systematically excluded from office by the government. O'Connell believed that the new premier would admit them to the equality they demanded, and upon those terms he was prepared to drop the question of repeal. His expectations were not altogether disappointed. The Whig administration carried many just and useful reforms, and dispensed its Irish patronage between the rival creeds. But in the end O'Connell's support was fatal to his allies. Sir Robert Peel returned to office in 1841. The repeal agitation was at once revived. It was conducted by a "Repeal Society," modelled on the lines of the Catholic Association (q.v.). The ecclesiastical organization of the popular Church, which necessarily permeated every corner of the land, was again the basis of a political movement. The subscribers were classified according to the amount of their payments, which were collected by the priests. Repeal wardens administered the several districts. The great agitator himself controlled the whole. The educated Catholics had dissevered themselves from O'Connell early in the emancipation contest. They held utterly aloof from repeal. Their conduct gave a last blow to their political power. The Repeal Society manipulated elections, prepared gigantic petitions, and, above all, devoted itself to the promotion of "monster meetings." These enormous gatherings proved in O'Connell's hands the most striking feature of the agitation. It is credibly reported that at Tara (August 15, 1843) he addressed an audience of 250,000 men. On October 1 there was a demonstration at Mullaghmast, in Kildare. Arrangements were made to hold another at Clontarf on the 8th. The government were seriously alarmed. The Clontarf meeting (q.v.) was prohibited by proclamation on the 7th. Ample military measures were taken to enforce obedience. The action of the government, as O'Connell afterwards complained, had made a massacre imminent. Such an event would probably have strengthened his position; but he shrank from bloodshed. By strenuous exertions he succeeded in inducing his followers to disperse. The repeal movement virtually ended with the Clontarf proclamation. O'Connell was tried for conspiracy, and convicted on February 12, 1844. The judgment was reversed by the House of Lords on Sep-

tember 4. The agitation completed the division of classes in Ireland, and made the minority feel that the Union was essential to their existence.

B. Ward, "Sequel to Catholic Emancipation," 1915.

[J. W. F.]

Irish Society. The. Under James I a committee was formed by twelve of the London city companies, to colonize the confiscated lands of O'Neill and O'Donnell in Ulster (1609). The Ulster plantation, with Londonderry and Coleraine as chief towns, was the result (1613). The charter was taken away in 1637, but restored, though with some changes, in 1670. This corporation still owns much land in the north of Ireland.

Iron Age. [Archæology.]

Ironsides. [Roundhead.]

Isabella of Angoulême (*d.* 1246), second wife of King John, was the daughter of Almeric, Count of Angoulême. She was betrothed to Hugh of Lusignan, Count of la Marche, but in 1200 John, who had in 1199 put away his first wife Hadwisa of Gloucester on the plea of consanguinity, proposed to marry her. She was accordingly removed by stealth from the custody of her affianced husband and married to King John in August 1200. The marriage contributed in no small degree to the loss of John's continental possessions. After John's death Isabella returned to Angoulême, and in 1220 she married her former lover, Hugh of Lusignan, whom she induced to transfer his allegiance from the French king to her son Henry III. This step resulted in the war in Poitou, in which Henry and his stepfather were beaten and the latter was compelled to make submission to Louis IX. Isabella fled in 1244 to the abbey of Fontevraud, "where," says Matthew Paris, "she was hid in a secret chamber, and lived at her ease, though the Poitevins and the French, considering her the cause of the disastrous war, called her by no other name than Jezebel, instead of her rightful appellation of Isabel." At Fontevraud she remained until her death in 1246.

Isabella, wife of Edward II (1292–1358), was the daughter of Philip IV of France. She was betrothed to Prince Edward in 1303, and the marriage took place in 1308. Her husband's attachment to Gaveston (q.v.) alienated her from him, and towards all his confidential ministers she displayed a settled aversion. She seems to have been popular with the baronial party, and on several occasions mediated between them and her husband. She seems also to have commanded the loyalty of the citizens of London. In 1302, however, the insult offered to her by Lady Badlesmere, who refused her hospitality at Leeds Castle, Kent, was the cause indirectly of the temporary downfall of the baronial party, and the defeat of Lancaster at Boroughbridge. The ascendancy of the Despensers over Edward in the year following his triumph furnished Isabella with a new grievance, and drove her once more into the arms of the opposition. It is doubtful whether she had formed any intimacy with Mortimer previously to her journey to France in 1325, although some writers have asserted that it was by her means that he effected his escape from the Tower. A dispute having arisen between Edward II and his brother-in-law, the French king, Isabella was sent over to France to arrange the matter in 1325. Having induced the king to send over Prince Edward to join her, she openly declared her intention of returning to England to deliver her husband from the hands of the Despensers. Many of the excited and discontented barons had assembled at the French court, and with their aid, and the troops she obtained from Hainault, she got together a sufficient force to enable her to venture on invading England. She landed in September 1326, near Harwich, where she was joined by many of the nobles. Her party gradually gathered strength as she marched westward against the king. Edward surrendered, the Despensers were executed, and shortly afterwards the king was deposed and Prince Edward placed on the throne (January 1327). From this time till the end of 1330 the queen and her paramour, Mortimer, were supreme. Edward II was, in all probability, put to a cruel death, the greater part of the royal revenues were placed in the queen's hands, and all attempts to give the young king a real share in the government were defeated. The terror which these two confederates had managed to establish was seen by the way in which the death of Edmund, Earl of Kent, the uncle of the young king, was encompassed. But a formidable opposition was now forming under the leadership of the young king himself. Edward, acting in alliance with some of the barons, suddenly seized Mortimer at Nottingham (October 1330), and had him speedily tried and executed. The queen was excluded from all further share in the government, and compelled to pass the remainder of her life in comparative retirement at Castle Rising and other royal manors, on a yearly allowance of £3,000. [Mortimer, Roger.]

T. F. Tout, "The Place of Edward II in English History," 1914.

Isabella (*d.* 1409) was the daughter of Charles VI of France, and at the age of eight, in 1396, became the second wife of Richard II. By this marriage an end was put for a time to the war between the two countries. After her husband's deposition she returned to France (1401), but for some time resolutely refused to marry again, retaining her belief that Richard was still alive, and attempting more than once to join him. In 1406, being convinced of his death, she married Charles, Duke of Orleans. [Richard II.]

Isabella (1332–79), the eldest daughter of Edward III, was betrothed to Count Louis

of Flanders in 1347. This marriage, however, was distasteful to the young noble, and he escaped into France to avoid fulfilling the contract. Eighteen years later (July 1365) she was married to Enguerrand de Coucy, who had, in the previous year, come to England as a hostage for King John of France. Her husband was made Earl of Bedford soon after the birth of his first child (1366). De Coucy, in the course of the next few years, went over to the French side and eventually parted from his wife, whom he left in England in 1376. She died in 1379.

Isabella (1214–41), the second daughter of King John, was married to the Emperor Frederick II in the year 1235, after negotiations had been set on foot for her marriage with Alexander II of Scotland (1220), and even with Henry, King of the Romans (1225), the son of her future husband. In 1238 the new empress gave birth to a son, who was named Henry, after his uncle Henry III. Isabella was kept in strict seclusion by her husband, and spent most of her time alone at Noenta. In 1241, however, she met her brother Richard on his return from the Holy land, though not without considerable difficulty. Isabella died at Foggia towards the close of the same year. Henry III's grief for his sister's death was so great that he gave the large sum of £208 6s. 8d. to his almoner to be distributed among the poor in one day for his sister's soul. Her son Henry, in later years, became titular "King of Jerusalem," but died in 1254 at the age of sixteen—"a victim, as is generally supposed, to the traitorous artifices of his brother Conrad."

Island Scots, The, seem to have settled in Ireland some time during the reign of Henry VIII. These Redshanks, as they were often called, were most of them Highlanders, and they issued forth from their Ulster fastnesses for the sake of plunder. The efforts of the Earl of Sussex as lord deputy, and of Ormonde, were insufficient to repress them. Their chief, MacDonnel, was as a rule the close ally of the terrible O'Neills; but in 1565 Shane O'Neill attacked them and defeated them at Ballycastle, killing their chiefs. In revenge for this defeat, Oge MacDonnel, the brother of the slain chief, caused Shane, when a suppliant in his camp, to be brutally murdered (1567). During the whole of the troubles of Elizabeth's reign, and until 1619, the Island Scots held Antrim and Down.

R. Bagwell, "Ireland Under the Tudors," 1885–90.

Island Voyage, The, is the name given to the disastrous expedition to the Azores undertaken by Essex and Ralegh in 1597.

Isles, Lords of the. The Lords of the Isles claimed their descent from Somerlaed, Regulus of Argyll, who towards the middle of the twelfth century obtained possession of half of the Sudreys (q.v.). [Hebrides.] Douglas has quoted a letter, dated 1292, bidding Alexander de Insulis Scotiæ to keep the peace within his bounds of the isles till the next meeting of parliament. The same authority mentions an indenture, dated 1334, by which Baliol yielded to John of Isla the isles of Mull, Skye, Islay, and other islands, while that nobleman in return became the liegeman of the king. In 1341, however, John made his peace with David II. In 1356 Edward III treated with him as an independent prince, and in the treaty for the liberation of King David (1357) the truce between England and Scotland included John of the Isles and all the other English allies. Though some years later John of the Isles (*d.* 1386 ?) bound himself to answer for all taxes the king might impose on his dominions, yet he was to all intents and purposes an independent prince, and was the first to assume the title of Lord of the Isles. He was succeeded by his son Donald, who, claiming the earldom of Ross in right of his wife, invaded the Lowlands, and was defeated at Harlaw (q.v.), near Aberdeen (1411). His son Alexander, who succeeded to his father about 1420, was forced in 1429 to beg pardon for the rebellion he raised against James I, "attired in his shirt and drawers and kneeling before the high altar of Holyrood Church." Alexander's son John, who was Lord of the Isles from 1449 to 1498 (?), joined in the Douglas rebellion of 1451; and in 1462–3 made a treaty with Edward IV of England, and assumed the title of King of the Hebrides. In 1475 he was attainted and his lands were declared forfeit, but next year he made his peace with the Crown, receiving recognition as a lord of parliament, but surrendering his earldom of Ross. From this time the glory of the lordship disappeared; the title was indeed resumed by a John of Islay under James V, but it was only an empty vaunt. The real power on the western coast passed from the Macdonalds to the Campbells, though the former long kept up a kind of royal state in Skye.

P. Hume Brown, "History of Scotland," 1911; C. S. Terry, "History of Scotland," 1924.

Islip, Simon (*d.* 1366), Archbishop of Canterbury (1349–66), began his career in the king's service as a royal chaplain and secretary, and on the death of Bradwardine was appointed to the metropolitan see at the special request of Edward III. He is famous as an ecclesiastical reformer, and did much to remedy some of the crying abuses in the Church, and to check the demoralization occasioned by the Black Death. It was during his primacy that the famous Statutes of Provisors and Præmunire were passed to limit the abuses of the papal power in England. The conduct of this archbishop on several occasions merits great praise; especially so in the case of the Flagellants, who in the early days of his office were swarming into England. These he found on inquiry to be mere enthusiasts, and not men of loose lives; hence he left their frenzy to die of its own

accord, and would not encourage it by persecution. In 1359 we find him ordering prayers throughout the kingdom for the success of Edward III's French expedition.

Italy, Relations with. As Italy has only comparatively recently become a single state, its relations with England are very hard to define. In a sense, all the relations of England with Imperial and papal Rome come within this question. The literary and civilizing influences which the home of ancient culture has constantly exercised on mediæval England have a still more direct claim for treatment. But the mere political relations of the various governments of Italy and England only necessitate a cursory consideration. The states of mediæval Italy were too small, too self-centred, and too remote to have many direct political dealings with the distant and barbarous English. Some of the more important transactions will be found under Empire, Relations with; Papacy, Relations with, etc. The close friendship of the Normans of England with the Normans of Naples, especially as instanced in the effect upon each other of the systems of government of Henry II and William the Good —the long struggle of Henry III to get Naples for his son Edmund of Lancaster—the influence of Italian lawyers and financiers on Edward I—the want of faith of Edward III to his Florentine creditors—our commercial dealings with Venice, are, if we leave literary connexions out of sight, perhaps the most important examples of direct relations between the two countries during the Middle Ages. The struggles of Henry VIII to enter into the European system which was formed almost in consequence of the break-up of the political system of mediæval Italy—his political alliance with the pope and the Venetians—his efforts to exclude both French and imperial influences in turn, are of small importance when compared with the influence of the New Learning on the spiritual and intellectual life of the country, or even the indirect political influences of Italian examples of tyranny in an age when Thomas Cromwell learnt his methods of government from the "Prince" of Machiavelli. Despite the cessation of all religious dealings in consequence of the Reformation, and of most political dealings as the result of the subjection of Italy to the Austro-Spanish house, the literary and civilizing—too often the corrupting—influence of Italy on England was never stronger than during the Elizabethan age. All writers, from Harrison to Ascham and Shakespeare, testify to its importance. Yet, hardly excepting the constant intercourse with Venice—whose diplomatists still embodied the results of their objective study of our affairs in their dispatches and *Relazioni*—our political dealings with Italy were unimportant. This is especially the case during the seventeenth century, a period peculiarly barren in its foreign relations. James I's sympathy for Father Paul and the Venetians—Cromwell's intervention on behalf of the Vaudois of Piedmont—the travels of Duke Cosimo III of Tuscany in England during the reign of Charles II—the marriage of James II with Maria of Modena—are fair instances of the sort of relations that existed between the two countries. After the Revolution of 1688 had again made England a great European power, our political dealings with Italy became more important. The assistance which from time to time England gave to the rising power of Piedmont excited great indignation on the part of the Austrians. There are, for example, the Treaties of Worms (1743) (q.v.) and Aachen (1748), and the consequent rupture between Austria and Great Britain. The vigour which compelled Don Carlos of Naples to abandon his allies during the same war may also be mentioned as illustrating the natural hostility of Britain to the Bourbon kings of Naples. Yet British fleets protected the Neapolitan partners of the Family Compact (q.v.) when, in evil days for monarchy, the French Directory and the Empire successively drove them from the mainland. Nelson's unfortunate dealings with Naples and the gallant incursion which led to the victory of Maida are conspicuous instances of British relations with that monarchy. The gradual emancipation of nineteenth-century Italy, associated as it is with the name of Garibaldi, has constantly found warm sympathy from British public opinion, though the colder support of British diplomacy drove Cavour to seek in Napoleonic France a strange ally in a struggle for national liberty.

J. P. Trevelyan, "Short History of the Italian People," 1920; W. C. Hazlitt, "The Venetian Republic," 1915; Countess M. Cesaresco, "Liberation of Italy," 1902, and "Cavour," 1898. [T. F. T.]

J

Jacobites, The (from *Jacobus*, the Latin for James), were the adherents of the Stuart cause after the Revolution of 1688. The expulsion of James II had been effected with surprisingly little difficulty; but the unpopularity of the new government, the crushing taxation which the great war involved, the party triumph of the Whigs, the presence of James in Ireland, and the reaction which always succeeds revolution, had produced in a very short time a formidable party of friends of the exiled house. The Tories and High Churchmen began to realize that the Revolution could be justified only on Whig principles, when, despite the efforts of William III, the Whigs assumed the control of the administration. The very churchmen who had led the opposition to a popish king became the founders of the schism of the Non-jurors (q.v.). They and the Catholics could not be other than avowed Jacobites. But among the nominal adherents of William there was a class of what a prominent Whig called "Non-juring swearers," whose acquiescence in

the Revolution was at best formal, whose more active section might be relied upon to join a Jacobite revolt, and whose passive section would, at least, welcome the restoration of the exiled dynasty. A large section of the Tory party fell within the latter category. "Several in England," writes a Jacobite agent, "wish the king well who would not risk their estates for him. If he came with ten thousand men, not a sword would be drawn against him." Thus there were, besides the avowed Jacobites, the Non-jurors, and the Catholics, a very large class of Jacobite sympathizers. There were, moreover, a large number of prominent statesmen who, in an age of loose political morality, did not scruple to secure a safe retreat for themselves in the event of the restoration of King James. Many of the great Whig and Tory leaders—Russell, Leeds, Shrewsbury, Godolphin, Marlborough—carried on an active intrigue with the banished king. Besides the above classes, there was a nucleus for organization in the exiled court of St. Germain, whence many a subtle and experienced intriguer set forth to win back for the king his lost throne. The active support of the French could be depended upon; and, besides the English Jacobites, they could rely, in Scotland, on the bulk of the Highland clans, more jealous of the Whig clan of the Campbells than zealous for divine right, but ever ready to revive the glories of Montrose and Dundee. The persecuted Episcopalian sect in the Lowlands were Jacobites to a man; and, after the Darien episode (q.v.) had rekindled the national animosity of Scotland against England, the Jacobite emissaries were not without hope even that Whigs and Presbyterians might be impelled by patriotism to support the old line of Scottish monarchs. In Ireland, after the failure of James II's forces and the triumph of the English, there was little chance of any Jacobite movement. Religious and national sentiment brought the Irish to the side of James. The penal code (q.v.) and the Protestant ascendancy made revolt impossible. Still, something could be hoped for if England were to rise.

When the appeal to arms had proved unavailing in Scotland and Ireland, and a French landing had been made impracticable by the victory of La Hogue, a series of plots and conspiracies—aimed against the life and throne of William—kept up the activity of the Jacobite party. Of these, the Assassination Plot (q.v.) was the most famous. But such atrocities only had the effect of weakening the Jacobite cause. Combined with the sturdy bigotry of James and his traitorous dependence on the foreign enemy of England, they alienated the bulk of the Tory party, on whom the hopes of the exiled house really depended. Even the Jacobite party split up into Compounders (q.v.), who were anxious only for a conditional restoration with constitutional guarantees, and the Non-Compounders, who, in blind adherence to the theories of divine right and passive obedience, thought it downright Whiggery to impose terms on the Lord's anointed. The prevalence of Non-Compounding views at St. Germains, and the refusal of James to abdicate in his son's favour or bring him up a Protestant, completed the alienation of the Jacobites from English popular sentiment. The Peace of Ryswick (q.v.) was, for a time, fatal to their hope of French aid. The passing of the Act of Settlement (q.v.) in a Tory parliament marks the lowest point of their fortunes. Under Queen Anne the Jacobite policy was changed. The death of James was a great help to it. His son, James III, as he styled himself—the Chevalier de St. George, or the Old Pretender, as others styled him—was at least personally innocent; and his recognition by Louis XIV, and the renewal of hostilities with England, revived the hopes of the party. But most was expected from the development of the High Church Toryism, of which Dr. Sacheverell was the popular exponent. The Scottish Jacobites might, indeed, under cover of hostility to the Union, assail the queen's throne; but the English Jacobites directed their main efforts to secure the succession on her death, to avail themselves of Anne's notorious affection for her family and dislike of the House of Brunswick, and even to obtain, by peaceful means, a repeal of the Act of Settlement. The ministry of Harley and Bolingbroke put all the resources of the State in the hands of the Jacobite intriguers. The army was newly modelled under the Jacobite Ormonde. All possible means were taken to secure the proclamation of James on the queen's approaching death. But the quarrel of Harley and Bolingbroke, the new attitude of the Whigs in Church matters, the *coup d'état* which made Shrewsbury treasurer, and the premature death of the queen, frustrated the well-laid plan. George I peacefully ascended the throne. The Tory ministers were impeached, imprisoned, exiled. The death of Louis XIV, and the anxiety of the Regent Orleans to be on good terms with England, was the culminating disaster. Bolingbroke was now the Pretender's secretary of state. His hopes died when the old king expired; but either James was too obstinate or the news came too late to stop the revolt in the Highlands, which was the outcome of the intrigues of the last few years.

In such gloomy circumstances the first great Jacobite rising—the affair of 1715—began; the offspring of levity or despair, after the death of Anne and Louis XIV had made any external assistance impossible. Ormonde made a gallant but ineffectual attempt to land in Devonshire; but there, as elsewhere, the planned revolt of the friends of James was prevented by the vigour and activity of the new government. The arrest of six Tory members of parliament deprived the Jacobites of leaders. The University of Oxford and the western counties were dragooned into loyalty; only in Northumberland was a rising effected

in England, and the choice of Forster as its leader was fatal to its small hopes of success. Meanwhile more formidable risings had broken out in Scotland. On October 12 Lord Kenmure proclaimed King James at Moffat. Foiled at Dumfries, but joined by Lords Nithisdale, Wintoun, and Carnwath, with two hundred horse, he crossed the border and joined Forster's "handful of Northumberland Foxhunters." But the Highland revolt alone possessed any real importance. This was led by the Earl of Mar, who, after accepting George I, had suddenly hurried north and raised his standard in Braemar on September 6. A large number of the clans joined him; and, despite his personal incompetence and failure to surprise Edinburgh Castle, he entered Perth, detached Brigadier Macintosh to join Kenmure and Forster, and ultimately advanced against Argyll, appointed to command King George's forces in Scotland. On November 13 the battle of Sheriffmuir (q.v.), near Stirling, was fought, and Mar was compelled to retreat northwards. The landing of the Pretender at Peterhead could not revive the falling cause. James and Mar re-embarked for the continent, and the insurgent army was dispersed. The southern rebels, after a fruitless march southward to Preston, in Lancashire, surrendered at that town to the royal forces. The chief prisoners were tried and executed. The last hope of the Jacobites was destroyed by the dismissal of Bolingbroke. The expulsion of the Pretender from France ratified the alliance of England and her old enemy. So little formidable were the Jacobites now that Harley's impeachment was dropped; and, though the intrigues of Alberoni and the plot of Bishop Atterbury (q.v.) for a while revived interest in the cause, the long ministry of Walpole, his policy of conciliation and peace, and the similar disposition of the French government, postponed the hopes of the Jacobites for a generation. In 1742 the fall of Walpole revived political intrigue, and the renewal of war with France gave the Jacobites fresh hopes of French aid. In Prince Charles, the Young Pretender, the party found a more gallant and romantic leader than James, his father. Undeterred by the disastrous storm which wrecked the French transports and ruined the projected invasion in 1744, Charles landed near Moidart, with seven followers, on July 25, 1745. Joined by Lochiel and other important chieftains, Charles found little difficulty in gathering a great army of the clans, and was accepted as prince by the greater part of the Highlands. Sir John Cope, the English commander, abandoned his strong position at Corry Arrack and left the road to the Lowlands open. At Perth the Duke of Perth and Lord George Murray joined the Pretender's cause. After the "Canter of Coltbrigg," in which the regulars fled in disgraceful panic from the irregular Highland hordes, Edinburgh was occupied by Charles. On September 20 the battle of Prestonpans inflicted on Cope the defeat he had avoided at Corry Arrack. After a brief period of inaction and gaiety, Charles started in November on an invasion of England. He besieged and conquered Carlisle, and, helped by the inactivity of Marshal Wade, marched far into the heart of England. At Manchester some slight feeling in the Pretender's favour was manifested; but as a rule the population, though not very zealous for an unpopular and foreign monarch, were perfectly indifferent to the cause of the Jacobites. On December 4 Charles entered Derby, but the division of his followers, and the vastly superior forces of Wade and Cumberland, necessitated a retreat. Meanwhile the Lowlands of Scotland had quietly renewed their allegiance to George II when the backs of the Highlanders were turned. Followed closely by a superior army, Charles retired hastily to Glasgow; but strengthened by new Highland reinforcements, he gave battle on January 23, 1746, to General Hawley at Falkirk (q.v.). The wild charge of the Highlanders again won the day; but they dispersed to their homes with the booty, and Charles, deserted on every side, was driven to bay on Culloden Moor (q.v.) on April 16. Cumberland, with 12,000 regular troops, made short work of the dispirited clansmen. The revolt was over. The Highlands were subdued thoroughly, and for the first time. The abolition of the heritable jurisdictions destroyed the power of the chiefs, and for ever put an end to Highland revolts. Charles, after many adventures, escaped to France.

The very success of the "'45" demonstrated the hopelessness of a Jacobite reaction. The national, religious, and political principles of the vast bulk of the nation made it impossible. The age was not one favourable for lost causes or chivalrous hallucinations. The party which adhered steadfastly to obsolete political doctrine, which found in France its constant supporter, and in Catholicism its congenial creed, could make no way in eighteenth-century England. Charles himself visited London in 1750, if not on later occasions; but he soon gave up politics for drink and debauchery. The brilliant successes of Pitt reconciled his party to the new administration. The accession of George III was gladly availed of as an excuse for a return to their allegiance. The new Tory party was purged from all suspicion of Jacobitism. Under George III that party became triumphant. The downfall of the Whigs was the downfall of the last hope of the Jacobites. But years before that, none but a few theorists of divine right, or the fanatics of Non-juring, hoped for a Jacobite restoration.

Biographies of Prince Charles Edward by A. C. Ewald, 1875, and J. C. Hadden, 1913; and of Prince James Edward by M. Haile, 1907, and H. D. Roome, 1904; C. S. Terry, "The Chevalier de St. George," 1901 and 1915; W. K. Dickson, ed. "Jacobite Attempt of 1719," 1896; Sir R. Gadell, "Sir John Cope and the Forty-five," 1899; A. B. Tulloch, "The Forty-five," 1896; W. Duke, "Lord George Murray and the '45," 1927. [T. F. T.]

Jacquetta, or Jacqueline, **of Luxemburg** (*d.* 1472), was the daughter of the Count of St. Pol, and was married in 1433 to John, Duke of Bedford. The match occasioned a rupture between Bedford and Philip of Burgundy, whose consent as overlord of the bride's father had not been asked. After Bedford's death she became the wife of Sir Richard Woodville, and by him was the mother of Elizabeth Woodville, the queen of Edward IV.

Jaenbert, Archbishop of Canterbury (763–91), is chiefly famous for his vigorous opposition to the scheme of Offa of Mercia for raising the see of Lichfield to metropolitan rank and transferring to it the primatial authority of Canterbury. In 786 Offa, with papal approval, carried his plan into execution and Jaenbert was compelled to surrender a large portion of his province to Higbert of Lichfield, retaining jurisdiction only over the sees of London, Winchester, Rochester, Selsey and Sherborne. He was the first Archbishop of Canterbury of whose coins specimens have been preserved.

Jalalabad, The Siege of (1842), took place during the first Afghan War. On March 11, 1842, Akbar Khan made his appearance before Jalalabad, and advanced to the attack of the town with his whole army. The garrison, however, sallied out and drove him ignominiously from the field, upon which he turned the siege into a blockade. On April 1 the troops sortied, and swept into the town 500 sheep and goats they had seen grazing in the plain. Akbar now pitched his camp within two miles of the ramparts, to cut off foragers. On April 6 General Sale determined on an assault on the enemy's encampment. The troops issued from the gate at dawn, and were received with a flanking fire from one of the ports. This was gallantly stormed. The advance guard under Captain Havelock moved on, repelled two charges of Akbar's splendid cavalry, and drove them into the camp. The enemy were dislodged from every point, and pursued to the river, with the loss of their guns, equipage, and ammunition.

Sir J. Kaye, "Afghan War," 1864–76.

Jamaica, the largest of the British West Indian islands, was discovered and named St. Jago by Columbus in 1494, though the native name of "Jamayco," the island of springs, persisted. It was first colonized by the Spaniards in 1509 from Hispaniola, the town of St. Jago de la Vego being founded by Diego Colombus in 1523 and the Arawâk inhabitants being subsequently exterminated. Spanishtown was plundered by an English fleet in 1596 under Sir Anthony Shirley and held to ransom by Captain Jackson in 1635. In 1655 the island was captured by Cromwell's West Indian expedition, the Spaniards expelled, and attempts made systematically to colonize it. Port Royal, however, was for long the buccaneer base for attacks upon Spain. The Treaty of Madrid (1670) confirmed the English title, which a French invasion of 1694 unsuccessfully disputed, while until 1740 the Maroons, originally slaves who had fled from Spanish masters to live as bandits in the mountains, made security impossible. The last Maroon revolt was crushed in 1795, and by 1842 they had acquired all the rights of British subjects. In 1782 a Franco-Spanish invasion was prevented by Rodney and Hood's naval victory, and in 1806 Admiral Duckworth defeated a projected French invasion. Soon difficulties with the slaves began. Introduced in numbers to work sugar plantations after the foundation of the Royal Africa Company in 1672, attempts to improve their status by the British government and the emancipation campaign provoked ill-feeling among the colonists, who talked of secession to the United States of America. The slave revolt of 1831 was crushed with severity, but an Emancipation Act was passed through the assembly in the face of much opposition, changing the slaves into apprenticed labourers. A parliamentary committee sat, and its report was followed by the abolition of apprenticeship in 1839. Another revolt was crushed with severity in 1865, followed by the abolition of the constitution. From 1655 to 1661 the island had been ruled by a military council, which settled troops on the land. Charles II confirmed D'Oyley as governor, but granted an elected council of twelve in 1661. The new governor, Windsor, in 1662 was to rule with a nominated council and a legislative assembly of 30, municipal institutions were granted, and the colonists proclaimed to have the ordinary rights of British citizens. In 1680, taking their stand upon this, the assembly successfully withstood the Crown's attempt to apply the principle of Poynings' Law to Jamaica and to tax the island, and so vindicated its own legislative independence. In 1728 the question was settled; in return for a fixed revenue of £8,000 the Crown confirmed the body of Jamaican laws and its legislative independence. After forcing emancipation upon the assembly, the Imperial government took control of all West Indian prisons, whereupon the assembly refused to transact business. Lord Melbourne's motion to suspend the constitution for five years led to his resignation, and the crisis ended in a compromise. After a deadlock in the legislature over finance, in 1854, a new constitution was adopted, which preserved the assembly, and gave a majority to the unofficial element in the legislative council to which was granted the right of initiating all except financial measures. The council's executive functions were transferred, however, to a separate privy council, while an executive committee, of 3 assembly and 1 legislative council members, became virtually a responsible ministry paid by the Crown.

After the rebellion of 1865 the legislature abolished its own representative constitution in

favour of strong government. Jamaica was thereupon constituted a Crown colony with a single nominated legislative chamber until 1884, when an elective element was introduced into the legislative council (9 being elected while 4 officials and another were nominated). Unanimity of 6 of the elected members could secure control of finance. A nominated executive council of 8, some of whom were not officials, was also added and called a privy council. The legislative council now consists of the governor, 5 officials sitting ex-officio, 10 nominated and 14 elected members. Local government was introduced in 1885. The Morant and Pedro Cays, annexed in 1882, the Caymans (1862), and the Turks and Caicos Islands (q.v.) (1873) are dependencies of Jamaica. In 1921 the Hon. E. Wood on a colonial office mission made constitutional recommendations now being discussed.

E. Long, "History of Jamaica," 3 vols., 1774; G. W. Bridges, "Annals of Jamaica," 2 vols., 1827–8; W. J. Gardner, "History of Jamaica to 1872," 1873 and 1909; Bryan Edwards, "The History of the British Colonies in the West Indies," 4 vols., 1806; Hon. E. F. L. Wood's Report, Parliamentary Paper, cmd. 1679 of 1922; F. Cundall, "Bibliotheca Jamaicensis," 1895; and Supplement, 1908; "Studies in Jamaican History," 1900; "Historic Jamaica"; "The Handbook of Jamaica"; R. Blome, "A Description of Jamaica," 1678. [H. R.]

James I, King of Scotland (*b.* 1394, *s.* 1406, *d.* 1437), the second son of Robert III, was captured, when only eleven years old, by an English ship whilst on his way to the court of France to receive his education there (1406). On his father's death, in the same year, he was acknowledged King of Scotland, the regency being undertaken by the Duke of Albany, to whose machinations his capture and subsequent long captivity have (though without definite justification) been ascribed. Whilst a prisoner in England James, naturally a man of great ability, received an education which eminently fitted him to play the part of king, and made him one of the most accomplished princes of his age. After the death of Albany (1420) negotiations for his release were begun which at last ended in his return home, where he was crowned at Scone, May 1424. Before he left England James I had married Joan Beaufort, daughter of the Earl of Somerset, and cousin of Henry V. The effect of his English education was soon apparent on his return to Scotland; his first act was to put to death the Regent Murdoch of Albany for abusing his power (1425), a step which was quickly followed by the reconstitution of the Scottish parliament, the reformation of the statute law, and a general valuation of all property for the purposes of taxation. In 1427 James seized and imprisoned the Lord of the Isles and sundry other turbulent Highland chieftains at Inverness, and declared his intention of putting down the acts of lawlessness which were so common. In 1436 he sent his daughter to France to be married to the dauphin, afterwards Louis XI, thus cementing the connexion which already existed between Scotland and the French court. Meanwhile, the king's reforms, his attempts to diminish the power of the great nobles, and the necessity of imposing taxes, gave rise to a conspiracy against him. On the night of February 20 or 21, 1437, he was brutally murdered, in the abbey of Black Friars at Perth, by a band of conspirators headed by Sir Robert Graham. This murder was amply avenged by his queen, whom the assassins had spared in their hurry. James I has been acclaimed as the "ablest king Scotland had yet known." That he was a man of energy and determination there can be no doubt, but recent historians admit that his rapacity, improvidence, and personal ambition cannot be gainsaid. His reputation as a poet similarly appears somewhat tarnished in the cold light of modern research. "Christe's Kirk on the Green" has now been definitely dissociated from his name, and doubts have even been thrown on the authenticity of the "King's Quair." James retains, however, his claim to an abiding place in the constitutional development of the kingdom, while his legislation testifies to the fact that his rule, if despotic, was also paternal.

P. Hume Brown, "History of Scotland," 1911; C. S. Terry, "History of Scotland," 1920; R. S. Rait, "Parliaments of Scotland," 1924; and biography by J. J. Jusserand, 1896.

James II, King of Scotland (*b.* 1430, *s.* 1437, *d.* 1460), was the son of James I, whom he succeeded at the age of seven. After his coronation at Holyrood he was immediately conveyed by his mother to Edinburgh Castle for safety. The chief power in the realm was shared between Sir Alexander Livingstone and Sir William Crichton. The queen, alarmed at the pretensions of the latter, contrived to escape to Stirling (1439) and placed herself under the protection of Livingstone. Crichton, however, succeeded in seizing the young king, who himself did not begin to rule for some years. In 1449 James married Mary, daughter of the Duke of Gueldres, and his marriage led to his emancipation from tutelage. The Livingstones were overthrown in 1450, and James, two years afterwards, in a fit of passion, stabbed with his own hand William, Earl of Douglas, who had been for some time past in more or less open rebellion to the royal authority. The king was now at war with the house of Douglas, whose estates were declared forfeited to the Crown (1455). As a result the royal power was immensely increased, and for the rest of his short reign the king was virtually absolute. In 1460 James, who was of a fiery and warlike nature, crossed the English border at the head of a large army to lend aid to Henry VI. He undertook the reduction of the castle of Roxburgh, where he was killed by the bursting of a cannon, August 3, 1460. He was on the whole a good king. We are told that "in the time of his later days, his realm was in quiet, prosperous estate,

in no fear of outward enemies, and he kept his nobles in loving and noble obedience, and the commons in good peace." His ability, perhaps, comes out more clearly than elsewhere in his method of dealing with the Douglas rebellion. When the Earl of Douglas made alliance with the Earl of Crawford, James succeeded in enrolling a third noble, belonging to a rival house—the Earl of Huntly—on his own side; and even contrived to split up the great family of the Douglases by winning over one of its chief members, the Earl of Angus, to the royal party (1452–5).

P. Hume Brown, "History of Scotland," 1911; C. S. Terry, "History of Scotland," 1920.

James III, King of Scotland (*b.* 1451, *s.* 1460, *d.* 1488), was the son of James II, whom he succeeded when nine years old. The queen-mother retained the chief power, being assisted in the government by Kennedy, Bishop of St. Andrews, till, in 1466, the young king was carried off to Edinburgh by the Boyds, after which event the head of this family (Sir Alexander Boyd) became guardian of the kingdom. In 1469 James married Margaret, daughter of Christian, King of Denmark and Norway, receiving as her dowry the Orkney and Shetland Isles. About this time the Boyds fell into discredit. They were deprived of the estates which the royal bounty had conferred upon them, and the head of the house was forced to flee into England, while his son, the Earl of Arran, who had married the king's sister, escaped to Denmark. In 1476 the Highlands were reduced as a result of the submission of the Lord of the Isles, and his earldom of Ross was annexed to the Crown. So far James's reign had been singularly fortunate, but his popularity now rapidly waned. He was suspected of causing the death of his brother, the Earl of Mar, while in 1479 his other brother, Albany, was compelled to seek refuge in France. Later Albany went to England and entered into a plot with Edward IV to establish himself upon the Scottish throne. Meanwhile James's partiality for favourites of low tastes, notably two, named Cochrane and Rogers, gave rise to a conspiracy against him on the part of the Scottish nobles, who seized and hanged several of them at Lauder (1482), where the king had halted on an expedition to defend the border against the projected invasion of Albany. James was seized and carried to Edinburgh, where, however, he was soon set at liberty, at the request of his brother, with whom he had now become reconciled. Albany, however, continued his treasonable practices, and in 1484 was again compelled to flee to France, where he died the next year. In 1488 a new and formidable revolt was organized against James by the great lords and nobles. The king's unsuccessful attempt to arrest the ringleaders at a parliament at Edinburgh added fuel to the flames, and James had to flee to the north. There he raised a large army and attacked the rebellious lords at Sauchie Burn (q.v.), near Stirling. He was, however, defeated, and fled for refuge to Beaton's Mill, near Bannockburn, where he was stabbed by an unknown hand (June 1488). James III was ill-fitted to be the ruler of Scotland, and seems to have been a man of avaricious and cowardly disposition. He was charged with drawing his chief friends from the lowest ranks of society; but how far this accusation is true is doubtful. The "mason" Cochrane was probably in reality the architect of the noble buildings which, about this time, began to adorn Scotland; while Rogers the "musician" may have been no mere performer of other men's music, but a great composer. Great as were his defects, James had a share of the culture of his race. He was a lover of letters, music, painting, and architecture, and a patron of the arts.

P. Hume Brown, "History of Scotland," 1911; C. S. Terry, "History of Scotland," 1920.

James IV, King of Scotland (*b.* 1473, *s.* 1488, *d.* 1513), succeeded his father James III, after the battle of Sauchie Burn 1488 (q.v.), and at once found himself compelled to guard against a plot formed for the purpose of seizing his person by Henry VII, with the aid of Lord Bothwell. In 1495 James hospitably received Perkin Warbeck at his court, and the following year sent an expedition across the borders on his behalf. This, however, came to nothing, and shortly afterwards James contrived to get rid of his visitor. In 1497 Henry began to make overtures of peace to Scotland, and in 1502 James IV married the Princess Margaret of England, and joined the English and Spanish alliance. In 1512 a dispute arose with England out of the capture of some Scottish vessels in the Downs; the French alliance was vehemently pressed upon the king by the Queen of France, who appointed him her knight to maintain her own and her country's cause against their common English enemy. Urged by her entreaties and his own wrongs, James determined to undertake the disastrous campaign which ended in his total defeat, and was followed by his death at Flodden Field (September 9, 1513). The king left behind him the character of a brave soldier and a just administrator, though his private life is open to severe blame. "For his political government and due administration of justice, which he exercised during the time of his reign, he deserveth to be numbered among the best princes that ever reigned over that nation." To James IV must be ascribed the establishment of the first efficient navy possessed by Scotland, and the settlement of the Highlands, by distributing garrisons throughout the turbulent districts. With regard to the first of these two achievements, letters of marque were given to two Scottish sea-captains, Sir Andrew Wood (q.v.) and Sir Andrew Barton (q.v.), who cleared the coast of English pirate vessels, and carried on their depredations

against England and other nations. We are told that towards the close of the reign the Scots navy consisted of no fewer than thirteen vessels, one of which, the *Michael*, was the marvel of its day for bulk. The settlement of the Highlands was facilitated by using the influence of two great families—the Huntlys and the Argylls—who, though Lowland in their origin, had by marriage or other means been gradually acquiring immense possessions and influence in the Highland districts; and this influence James did not scruple to manipulate, so far as he could, for the purposes of strengthening the royal authority in those remote parts.

Gladys Temperley, "Henry VII," 1917; A. F. Pollard, "Henry VIII," 1902; C. H. Williams, "England Under the Early Tudors," 1925; P. Hume Brown, "History of Scotland," 1911; biographies by E. Stair-Kerr, 1911, and I. A. Taylor, 1913.

James V, King of Scotland (*b.* 1512, *s.* 1513, *d.* 1542), the son of James IV and Margaret of England, succeeded his father after the fatal battle of Flodden (q.v.). As he was not quite two years old, the regency was entrusted to his cousin, the Duke of Albany, who was invited over from France—of which country he was admiral—to undertake this office at the request of the Estates of the Realm (1515). The queen-dowager, who had married the Earl of Angus almost immediately after her first husband's death, was soon obliged to yield up her son, whom she had carried off for safety to Stirling Castle. Within a year of his first landing the regent had crushed all attempts at rebellion, and very soon left Scotland, after having placed French garrisons in several of the strongest fortresses. In Albany's absence Angus seemed likely to secure the chief power, had he not offended his wife, who urged the absent regent to return (1521). At last, after various fluctuations, and the interference of Wolsey, the young king was installed in Edinburgh as king, and the regency taken away from the Duke of Albany (1524). But despite the apparent pacification, the great nobles, Angus, Argyll, and Errol, were struggling for power among themselves, and the young king was kept in close duress, till, in 1528, he managed to escape to Stirling. James now took the government into his own hands, and Angus was driven into England. The details of domestic government, the reduction of the lawless borderers and the Highland clans, occupied the next few years of the reign.

In spite of the failure of the proposed alliance with the Princess (afterwards Queen) Mary, and in spite of various border frays, a peace was concluded with England in 1534, though James rejected all proposals for a meeting with Henry VIII, believing that his safety would be endangered. In 1536 the king, whilst at the court of France on a visit undertaken with the object of marrying Marie, daughter of the Duke of Vendôme, fell in love with and married Madeleine, the French king's daughter. Next year, however, the queen died, and James married Mary, daughter of the Duke of Guise (June 1538). On his return home the king had begun to occupy himself with domestic affairs, and succeeded in alienating a great number of the nobility by confiscating many estates which had passed into their hands during his minority. Towards the close of his reign he roused Henry VIII to fury by promising to meet him at York, and failing to keep his word through fear. Henry at once declared war on the ground that James was acting treacherously towards England, and the Scottish king could not prevail upon his nobles to cross the border. The disorganization in his army was taken advantage of by the enemy, and the defeat of Solway Moss (q.v.) was the consequence. A few days afterwards (December 16, 1542) the unfortunate monarch died at Falkland, having just before his death received with chagrin the tidings of the birth of a daughter, afterwards the famous Mary Queen of Scots. From his restraint of the nobles, his lavish expenditure, his accomplishments, and his carelessness, he was a favourite with his people, by whom he was long remembered as "the King of the Commons."

A. F. Pollard, "Henry VIII," 1902; P. Hume Brown, "History of Scotland," 1911.

James I, King (James VI of Scotland) (*b.* June 19, 1566, *s.* in Scotland, July 24, 1567, in England, March 24, 1603, *d.* March 27, 1625), was the son of Mary of Scotland by Henry Stuart, Lord Darnley. He was entrusted to the care of the Earl of Mar and of Alexander Erskine, and his principal tutor was the celebrated George Buchanan. In 1578 the regency was taken from the Earl of Morton, and James was henceforth, in name at least, ruler of Scotland. His reign in Scotland was, to a large extent, a quarrel with the clergy and the nobles. In 1582 the general assembly resolved to abolish Episcopacy; and James, who had been seized by some of the nobles at the raid of Ruthven (q.v.), was unable to prevent the measure. In 1585 he came to terms with Elizabeth, and made a treaty with her, consenting to receive a pension. The same year he was besieged by the banished lords in Stirling Castle, and was compelled to pardon them, to dismiss his favourite Arran, and to deprive him of his title and estates. Notwithstanding the execution of his mother (1587) by Elizabeth, done probably with his assent, he co-operated in the preparations against the Spanish Armada in 1588, and in 1589 drew closer his alliance with the Protestant powers by his marriage with Anne of Denmark. A treasonable attempt was made upon him by Bothwell in 1591, and another in 1593, and in the latter year he was seized and imprisoned by that nobleman, but soon released. In 1594 he undertook a campaign against Huntly and Errol, the great Catholic nobles of the north, and, after a victory at Glenlivet (q.v.), reduced them, and compelled them to quit the country. They were, however, allowed to return in 1597. The

breach between James and the Presbyterian clergy had been growing wider for some time, and was increased by the publication of his work, the "Basilikon Doron" (q.v.), and by the appointment of bishops in 1599. In 1600 occurred a somewhat mysterious plot against his life, known as the Gowrie Conspiracy (q.v.). On the death of Elizabeth James immediately set out for England, and was proclaimed king in March 1603, being crowned at Westminster on July 25 following. He assumed the title of King of Great Britain, France, and Ireland the next year. In ecclesiastical matters he immediately manifested his preference for the High Church view. The Puritans were thwarted and punished at the Hampton Court Conference (q.v.), while at the same time the Jesuits and seminary priests were ordered to quit the kingdom (February 1604). The anger caused among the papists by these stringent measures led to the abortive Gunpowder Plot (q.v.). James almost from the first year of his reign was involved in disputes with his parliament, chiefly turning on the questions of money and redress of grievances. In 1604 a dispute on the subject of privilege had terminated in favour of the Commons. The government was extravagantly administered, and the expenses of the court were very great. In order to supply the deficiency in the revenue, Cecil raised loans under the privy seal, and in 1608 issued a Book of Rates, by which the customs on various articles were considerably increased. Notwithstanding, in 1610, the king was obliged to ask the Commons for a large grant, which was made the subject of much bargaining, until finally the parliament was dissolved, without any result having been attained (February 1611). Cecil died the following year. The chief place in the king's favour was now taken by Robert Carr (q.v.), a young Scotsman, who was created Earl of Somerset. In November 1612 the young Prince of Wales, Henry, of whose character high expectations had been formed, fell ill and died. The following year James, still adhering to Cecil's policy of opposition to Spain, cemented the alliance with the German princes by marrying his daughter Elizabeth to the Elector Palatine, Frederick V. Somerset was ruined and degraded by the revelation of his wife's murder of Sir Thomas Overbury (q.v.), and the management of affairs was henceforth (1615) in the hands of James's second favourite, George Villiers (q.v.), afterwards Duke of Buckingham. The anti-Spanish policy of Cecil was given up, and James entered into negotiations for peace and alliance with Spain. In 1614 parliament was reassembled, and attempts were made to secure its docility by a body of managers called "Undertakers" (q.v.). These, however, were unsuccessful; and the "Addled Parliament" (q.v.), as it was called, was dissolved before any business had been done. The king now resorted to several emergency means of raising money. Benevolences were collected, patents of peerage sold, and numerous monopolies let out to private individuals. In 1617 Sir Walter Ralegh, who had been in prison since 1603 on a charge of complicity in the plots against the king, was released, and allowed to lead an expedition to Guiana, where he hoped to discover gold mines. The expedition proved a failure, and Ralegh on his return was put to death. This was done in deference to Spanish susceptibilities, and was greatly resented by the people. At the beginning of the Thirty Years' War (1618) the feeling in England was strongly in favour of interference on the part of this country in favour of the Protestant elector. James, however, refused to interfere vigorously, and trusted to his diplomatic skill to mediate between the parties and restore peace. In 1621 another parliament was called. But after impeaching Bacon, the lord chancellor, and inquiring into grievances, a dispute on foreign policy took place between the king and the Commons. James in anger dissolved parliament (January 1622). Negotiations were set on foot for a marriage between Prince Charles and the Spanish Infanta, to effect which Charles and Buckingham went to Spain in 1623. Buckingham, however, quarrelled with the Spanish ministers, and the match was broken off (December 1623). This led to a sudden reversal of the king's policy. War was declared on Spain in March 1624, and Count Mansfeldt was allowed to enlist troops in England for the Protestants in Germany. Negotiations were set on foot for a marriage between Charles and Henrietta Maria, the French princess, but before it was completed James died. "He had many qualities befitting a ruler in such difficult times. Good-humoured and good-natured, he was honestly desirous of increasing the prosperity of his subjects. . . . He was above all things eager to be a reconciler, to make peace where there had been war before, and to draw those to live in harmony who had hitherto glared at one another in mutual defiance. . . . With a thorough dislike of dogmatism in others, he was himself the most dogmatic of men. . . . He had none of that generosity of temper which leads the natural leaders of the human race to rejoice when they have found a worthy antagonist, nor had he, as Elizabeth had, that intuitive perception of the popular feeling which stood her in such stead during her long career" (Gardiner). James wrote a variety of tracts on a number of different subjects. Most of them are absolutely worthless. They were collected in 1616.

Camden, "History of James I"; Goodman, "Court of James I"; "Historie and Life of James the Sext" (Bannatyne Club); Dalrymple, "Memorials and Letters Illustrative of Reigns of James I and Charles I"; Disraeli, "Literary and Political Character of James I"; T. F. Henderson, "James the First and Sixth," 1904; "Political History of England," vol. vii (1603–60); "Political Works" of James I, ed. C. H. MacIlwain, 1918; R. S. Rait and A. T. Cameron, "King James's Secret," 1927.

[S. L.]

James II, King (*b.* October 14, 1633, *r.* February 6, 1685—December 1688, *d.* Septem-

ber 16, 1701), was the second son of Charles I and Henrietta Maria. He was created Duke of York immediately after his birth. He accompanied his father during the Civil War, and he was captured by Fairfax on the surrender of Oxford, but contrived to escape to Holland disguised as a girl, in April 1648. He served with reputation in both the French and the Spanish armies, and was to have taken command of a force for the invasion of England if the rising of Sir George Booth in 1659 had been successful. In 1660 he returned to England with his brother, and was made lord high admiral, subsequently receiving large grants of land in Ireland. In 1665 he took command of the fleet against the Dutch, and showed great ability in the conduct of naval affairs. In 1669 he avowed his conversion to Roman Catholicism, and on the passing of the Test Act in 1673 he was obliged to resign his office of lord high admiral. The Whig party, headed by Shaftesbury, attempted to get an Exclusion Bill passed depriving him of his right of succession to the throne, and so great was the feeling against him that in 1679 he was induced by the king to go abroad, but before long he was recalled and sent as lord high commissioner to Scotland, where he showed such harshness and severity that he had to be recalled in 1680. He was in that year presented by the grand jury of Middlesex, at Shaftesbury's instigation, as a popish recusant, but the judge, by suddenly dismissing the jury, quashed the proceedings. He returned to Scotland shortly afterwards, and remained there till 1682. In 1684 he was restored to his office of lord high admiral, and to his seat in the council, and on his brother's death in the next year succeeded to the crown.

James II commenced his reign by disclaiming any intention of interfering with the Church, and promising a legal form of government; but his acts were not in accordance with his declarations, and his opponents, who in the last years of his brother's reign had found an asylum in Holland, at once began to concert measures for an invasion. Accordingly the Duke of Monmouth landed in England, and the Earl of Argyll in Scotland, but both failed, and the attempt of the former especially was punished with great severity. James was emboldened by his success to proceed with hasty steps in the design which he had formed of restoring Romanism. He had, at the opening of his reign, made arrangements with that view in Scotland and Ireland, and he now ventured to extend them to England. He claimed a power of dispensing with the penal laws, dismissed his parliament when it showed a resolution to oppose him, exhausted every effort to gain converts, called such, as well as Roman ecclesiastics, to his councils, laboured to procure the repeal of the Test Act, and forbade the controversial sermons which the clergy, justly alarmed at his proceedings, felt it their duty to deliver. This injunction was disregarded, and to enforce it a new Court of Ecclesiastical Commission was established, which suspended the Bishop of London from his office, and afterwards perpetrated the most flagrant injustice on both universities. The king induced the judges to give a decision in favour of the dispensing power, and he followed this up by forming a camp on Hounslow Heath, the officers of which were chiefly Romanists. He had already published a Declaration of Indulgence (q.v.), April 1687, and sedulously courted the Protestant Nonconformists; but they in general mistrusted him, and declined to forward the restoration of Romanism by joining in his attack on the Church. Undeterred by this, he ordered the Declaration to be read in all churches, and on seven of the bishops petitioning against the order he sent them to the Tower on the charge of libelling the king. They were put on their trial and acquitted. Just at this juncture a son and heir was born to James, and was considered by the people to be a supposititious child. Meanwhile a number of the leading statesmen of all parties requested James's son-in-law, William of Orange, to come over to England to secure his wife's right to the throne, and protect the liberties and religion of the English people. Accordingly William issued a manifesto, and eventually landed in England on November 5, 1688. James now attempted to retrace his steps. He reinstated the Bishop of London, made such reparation as he could to the universities, and dismissed his most obnoxious counsellors; but he could not regain the confidence of his people. His army melted away, and the prince advanced towards London. James, deserted by most of his friends, sent his queen and infant son to France, and attempted to follow them, quitting Whitehall in disguise on December 11. He was, however, seized at Sheerness and detained at Faversham, whence in a few days he was removed to London and thence to Rochester, and was then allowed to escape to France, landing at Ambleteuse on Christmas Day. He was kindly received by Louis XIV, who warmly espoused his cause, and assisted him with troops in his expedition to Ireland in 1689. Landing at Kinsale, he was received with enthusiasm by the Catholics, and for some time seemed likely to succeed in making himself at all events master of Ireland, but the raising of the siege of Londonderry was a great blow to him, and on July 1, 1690, he was totally routed by William in the battle of the Boyne, after which he fled to France. James spent the remainder of his life at St. Germains, engaged in intrigues for recovering possession of his lost crown, but constantly finding his hopes dashed to the ground. He married first, Anne Hyde, daughter of Lord Clarendon (September 3, 1660), by whom he had two daughters, Mary and Anne, and four sons and two daughters who died in infancy; and, secondly, Mary of Modena (November 21, 1673), who bore him one son and four daughters, who died young, and one son,

James Edward, known afterwards as the Old Pretender.

James II's "Memoirs" (ed. Clarke); "Political History of England," vol. viii (1660–1702); Burnet, "History of His Own Time," ed. O. Airy, 2 vols., 1897–1900. [F. S. P.]

Japan, Relations with, have become important only in recent years. The rapid development of Japan in the latter half of the nineteenth century was watched with keen interest by the British government, which was the first government to assent (1894) to a revision of existing treaties in a manner compatible with the growing position of Japan among the powers. The British Capitulations were abolished. This, the first step towards an alliance, was followed by a rise of resentment in Japan against Russia and Germany for the annexations of Port Arthur (1898) and Kiao-Chow (1897) and the combined intervention which had robbed Japan of some of the fruits of her Chinese War of 1894. Identity of interests between Great Britain and Japan in the Far East at last found expression in the Treaty of Alliance signed on January 30, 1902, which recorded the desire of both parties to preserve the *status quo* and the peace of the Far East, and emphasized their concern for the integrity of China and Korea. Each party undertook (*a*) to safeguard, without aggrandizement, its interests in the Far East, (*b*) to remain neutral if the other contracting party went to war in defence of its interests, (*c*) to come to its aid if any other power joined its enemy, and (*d*) to contract with other powers no arrangements prejudicial to the interests of the other contracting party. The treaty was to last for five years. In 1905 it was renewed, with certain modifications, for a further ten years. Its immediate effect was to confine the Russo-Japanese War of 1904–5 to a duel between the two powers. In 1914 Japan entered the Great War on the side of the allies (August) and speedily cleared the German flag from Kiao-Chow and from the Pacific. At the close of the war she shared the German Pacific territories with Great Britain, obtaining those lying north of the equator, and entered the League of Nations. She played a creditable part in the Washington Conference of 1921 on the limitation of armaments. The Anglo-Japanese alliance here terminated. Japan also took part, with Great Britain and the United States (on the invitation of the last-named), in the Geneva Conference on the Limitation of Naval Armaments (June 1927).

A. L. P. Demais, "The Anglo-Japanese Alliance," 1923; J. H. Gubbins, "The Making of Modern Japan," 1922; W. Murdoch, "History of Japan," 1903–26. [A. C. F. B.]

Java, Expedition to (1811). The subjugation of Holland by Napoleon rendered it important to British interests to occupy the Dutch settlements in the East. An expedition was therefore sent against the Spice Islands in 1809, and Amboyna, Banda, and Ternate were occupied after a feeble resistance. The island of Java alone remained, and an expedition was fitted out against it, consisting of ninety sail, on which were embarked 4,000 Europeans and 4,000 sepoys. Lord Minto accompanied it as a volunteer, and with him went Mr. (afterwards Sir) Stamford Raffles (q.v.), who was well acquainted with the habits, languages, and interests of the inhabitants of the Eastern Archipelago. The fleet anchored in the bay of Batavia (August 4). The capital was occupied without resistance, and the capture of the fortified position of Cornelis gave the whole island to the British. The Sultan of Djocjocarta, however, a native prince, called upon the Javanese to assert their independence, and set up the standard of revolt. Colonel Gillespie conducted a force against Fort Cornelis, which was protected by a high rampart, and batteries mounted with 180 pieces of cannon, and manned by 13,000 men under General Janssens. It was carried by assault, and the fortifications razed. Lord Minto committed the command of the army to Colonel Gillespie, and the government to Raffles, under whose administration it continued to flourish for several years, till Java was restored to Holland at the general peace of 1815.

W. F. Lord, "The Lost Possessions of England," 1896.

Jedburgh, in Roxburghshire, was one of the Scottish strongholds delivered to England in 1174, as security for the fulfilment of the Treaty of Falaise. About the year 1408 it was wrested from the English, by whom it was burnt, a century later (1523), during the invasion under Lord Dacre. In 1544 it was again burnt, by Sir Ralph Evers. Jedburgh was one of the royal burghs, and its abbey was founded by David I.

Jeetgurh (Jeetpur), The Battle of, was fought in India (January 14, 1815). General Wood, having been appointed to take Butwal and penetrate Nepal, took the field in December 1814, after a great deal of delay, and, without any reconnaissance, allowed himself to be brought before the stockade of Jeetgurh, by the treachery of a Brahmin guide. A heavy fire was immediately opened from the redoubt, which was garrisoned by 1,200 Gurkhas, and he was forced to retreat. [Gurkha War.]

Jeffrey, Francis, Lord (1773–1850), was born and educated at Edinburgh. On being called to the bar, he found that he could obtain very little legal business, owing to his being a Whig at a time when Tory influence was so predominant in Scotland. Turning his attention to literature, he became one of a small group of men who, in 1802, planned the publication of the *Edinburgh Review*, of which he very soon became the editor. This periodical, which, before long, took rank as the leading exponent of Whig views, continued under Jeffrey's management till the year 1829. In

1830 Jeffrey was appointed lord advocate, and he subsequently entered the House of Commons as member for Edinburgh. He was entrusted with the Scottish Reform Bill in 1831–2, and in 1834 was made a judge in the Court of Session.

Biography by Lord Cockburn, 1852.

Jeffreys, George, Lord Jeffreys of Wem (1648–89), was born in Denbighshire of a respectable family. After receiving his education at St. Paul's and Westminster Schools, he seems to have entered the Inner Temple, when very young, in 1663. When called to the bar (November 1668) he confined himself for a long time to the Old Bailey and criminal courts, where he speedily rose to the top of his profession. In 1671 he became common serjeant of the City of London. Six years later he was made solicitor-general to the Duke of York, and knighted; while towards the end of the next year he was appointed recorder of London. Having placed his services at the disposal of the court, he was employed in prosecuting those who were accused of being concerned in the Popish Plot (q.v.). The government speedily rewarded him by making him chief justice of Chester and a baronet (1680). Before the close of that year he was reprimanded in the House of Commons for having obstructed the meeting of parliament. This censure was mainly due to the instance of the City of London, on which he attempted to revenge himself by his efforts to destroy its municipal institution. After the trial of Lord William Russell and the offenders connected with the Rye House Plot (q.v.), Jeffreys was made a privy councillor (October) and chief justice of the King's Bench (November 1683). When James II became king he was raised to the House of Lords as Baron Jeffreys of Wem, May 1685, and almost immediately afterwards went to Somerset to try the insurgents who had assisted in Monmouth's rebellion (July 1685). In September he was made chancellor. Jeffreys was next instrumental in obtaining the verdict of the judges in favour of the Dispensing Power (q.v.), and the revival of the High Commission Court. Then followed the Declaration of Indulgence (q.v.). On the landing of the Prince of Orange, when James II left London for Salisbury, Jeffreys was one of the five lords appointed to represent him in his absence. As William's cause prospered daily, the chancellor attempted to escape in a sailor's dress; he was seized by the mob in a Wapping ale-house, and, being secured by the trained bands, was carried before the lord mayor and committed to the Tower, where he died a few months later (April 1689).

Woolrych, "Memoirs of Jeffreys," 1827; H. B. Irving, "Judge Jeffreys," 1898. [T. A. A.]

Jekyll, Sir Joseph (1663–1738), was called to the bar in 1687. In 1697 he was appointed chief justice of Chester, and in the following year was returned to parliament for Eye, and received a knighthood. In 1710 he was one of the managers of Sacheverell's impeachment. In 1717 he became master of the rolls, and in 1725 one of the commissioners of the great seal. In 1733 he astonished the ministry by his vigorous support of Walpole's excise scheme. In the year 1736 he introduced the Gin Act (q.v.) and the Mortmain Act. Pope has summed up his character as one "who never changed his principle or wig."

Jellicoe, John Rushworth, 1st Earl (1859–), entered the navy in 1872, became a commander in 1893, was appointed director of naval ordnance at the admiralty in 1905, and became vice-admiral in 1911 and second sea lord of the admiralty in 1913. On the outbreak of the Great War he was appointed commander-in-chief of the Grand Fleet. He was in command at the battle of Jutland (q.v.), May 31, 1916, and became first sea lord later in the same year. He was raised to the peerage in 1918, became admiral of the fleet in 1919, and in 1920 was appointed governor of New Zealand, where he remained till 1925. On his return to England he was created an earl.

Jenkins, Sir Leoline (1623–85), was educated at Oxford. On the death of Charles I he retired to Wales, and later to the continent, whence he returned shortly before the Restoration. In 1661 he was elected principal of Jesus College, Oxford, of which society he was a munificent benefactor. In 1664 he was engaged in reviewing the maritime laws, and in 1668 was made judge of the Prerogative Court at Canterbury. In 1678 he was employed in negotiating the Treaty of Nimeguen, and next year succeeded Sir William Temple as ambassador at The Hague. On his return home he was a strong opponent of the Exclusion Bill, for which service he was appointed a privy councillor about the year 1680. Five years later he died.

Biography by William Wynne, 1724.

Jenkins's Ear, The Story of, was circulated in 1738, greatly to the prejudice of Sir Robert Walpole. At this time war with Spain was eagerly desired by the nation, but opposed by Walpole. Robert Jenkins, who was the master of the trading sloop *Rebecca*, from Jamaica, asserted that his ship had been boarded by a Spanish *guarda costa*, and that, although no proof of smuggling had been found on the vessel, one of his ears had been barbarously torn off. This ear he carried about in cotton to display to his hearers. It was said at the time that he had lost it on another occasion, probably at the pillory. On being asked by a member what were his feelings when he found himself in the hands of such barbarians, "I committed," he said, "my soul to God, and my cause to my country." The truth of the story is extremely doubtful, but the end that was aimed at was attained. The indignation of the people, fanned as it was by the press and by the untiring efforts of all sections of the opposition, became uncontrollable. War with Spain followed in October 1739.

Jenkinson, Anthony (*d.* 1611), was one of the most famous travellers and explorers of Elizabeth's reign. In 1557 he was sent out to Russia as the agent of the Muscovy Company, and made his way to Astrakhan, Persia, and Bokhara, revisiting the last-named place no fewer than six times in the interests of commerce. In 1571 he was sent as ambassador to the Muscovite court by Elizabeth.

Jenkinson, Charles, 1st Earl of Liverpool (1727–1808), was educated at the Charterhouse and at University College, Oxford, and first came into notice by the lampoons which he furnished to Sir Edward Turner in his contest for Oxfordshire (1760). By him he was introduced to Lord Bute, whose private secretary he soon became. In 1761 he was returned to parliament for Cockermouth, and was made one of the under-secretaries of state. In 1763 he became joint secretary of the treasury. He was dismissed from all his appointments on the accession of the Rockingham government. Lord Chatham, however, recognizing his talents for business, appointed him a lord of the admiralty in 1766, and he was soon afterwards advanced to be a lord of the treasury. In this capacity his particular form of ability had room for display, and he soon became an influential authority on all matters of finance. In 1778 he became secretary-at-war, and held that office until he was driven out with Lord North. He then travelled on the continent, and only returned to England in 1784, joining Pitt's government as president of the board of trade, for which place he was admirably adapted, both by nature and experience. In 1786 he was appointed chancellor of the duchy of Lancaster, and was soon afterwards created Baron Hawkesbury. Ten years later, while still at the head of the board of trade, he was raised to the dignity of an earl.

Jenkinson, Robert Banks, 2nd Earl of Liverpool (1770–1828), son of the 1st earl, was educated at the Charterhouse and Christ Church, where he was the contemporary and friend of Canning. He entered political life under Pitt's auspices, and was in parliament before he had attained his majority. On his father being created Earl of Liverpool he became Lord Hawkesbury (1796). In the Addington ministry he was foreign secretary, and had charge of the negotiations which ended in the Treaty of Amiens (q.v.); but when Pitt returned to office in 1804 Lord Hawkesbury went to the home office. On Pitt's death, the king earnestly wished him to become premier, but he very wisely declined the troublesome office, and again on the fall of Lord Grenville's ministry in 1807, contenting himself with being home secretary. On Perceval's assassination, he imprudently yielded to the urgency of the Prince Regent, and became premier. He at once became the object of popular hatred by his opposition to reform, especially in the shape of Catholic emancipation, and the adoption of arbitrary coercion to suppress the violent discontent which gathered head during the period of his ministry. His unpopularity was still further increased by his introduction of a bill of pains and penalties against Queen Caroline, which he afterwards withdrew. He was struck down by paralysis in 1827, and died after lingering in a state of imbecility for nearly two years. He had been prime minister for the unprecedented period of fifteen years. It has been said of him that "in honesty, as a minister, he has never been surpassed; in prejudices, he has rarely been equalled."

C. D. Yonge, "Life of Lord Liverpool," 1868.

Jennings, Sarah, Duchess of Marlborough (1660–1744), at an early age entered the household of the Duchess of York. There she became the companion and friend of the Princess Anne, who became passionately attached to her. So intimate were they that they afterwards, as is well known, corresponded under the names of Mrs. Morley and Mrs. Freeman. In 1678 Sarah Jennings married Colonel John Churchill, afterwards Duke of Marlborough. Owing to the influence of the Churchills, Anne deserted her father, and joined the party of the Prince of Orange. In 1692, on her husband's disgrace, Anne refused to dismiss Lady Marlborough from her employment. The result was a quarrel between the queen and the princess, and the latter set up an opposition court at Berkeley House. On the accession of Queen Anne, she received the rangership of Windsor Park and the offices of groom of the stole and mistress of the robes. The duchess soon proved herself a violent Whig, having been converted to these principles by the Dowager Lady Sunderland. Hence she often had disputes with her mistress, in which Marlborough was not infrequently involved. In 1703 she lost her only surviving son. Her violent temper had already caused the friendship of the queen to cool towards her. She gradually found herself supplanted in the royal favour by Mrs. Masham (q.v.), a poor relation of her own, whom she had introduced into the household. She found that Harley was employing this lady as an instrument whereby to undermine the administration of her husband and Godolphin. In 1708 Marlborough threatened to resign, and the duchess implored Anne to confer her places on her daughters. A temporary reconciliation took place on the death of the queen's husband; but on the departure of the duke for the continent the friendship cooled again. It was in this year that she is said to have spilled the mythical glass of water on Mrs. Masham's gown, which, according to Voltaire, "changed the face of all Europe." She several times forced herself into the queen's presence. In April 1710 she saw Anne for the last time. Early in 1711 Anne demanded her key of office, and the personal entreaties of the duke were of no avail. The duchess promptly began to lampoon the queen and the Tory

ministry. She also sent in a claim for the payment of sums she would have received had she accepted the queen's offer of an additional pension as keeper of the privy purse. In 1712 she joined the duke on the continent. She prayed him not to accept employment under the Hanoverian regime. In 1720 she was accused by Sunderland of having furnished money to the Pretender, but she disproved the charge in a series of letters to the king. On the death of Marlborough (1722), the Duke of Somerset and Lord Coningsby were smitten by her mature charms, but both were rejected. Her last years were occupied in drawing up the celebrated "Vindication" of her husband's character and her own. Of the numerous sketches of her character the most famous is Pope's, in his moral essay, "On the Characters of Women," where she is satirized under the name of "Atossa."

"Vindication of the Duchess of Marlborough," 1742; Thomson, "Memoirs of the Duchess of Marlborough," 1839; "Private Correspondence of the Duchess of Marlborough," 1838; Coxe, "Marlborough," 1818–1819; S. J. Reid, "John and Sarah, Duke and Duchess of Marlborough," 1914; and biographies by J. F. Molloy, 1901, and Mrs. A. Colville, 1904.

Jersey. [Channel Islands.]

Jerusalem, the capital of the Latin Kingdom of Jerusalem from its capture by Godfrey de Bouillon in 1099 until its surrender to Saladin in 1187, was offered to Henry II in 1185 by the refugee Templars in England. Henry refused the offer because of the responsibility involved and because there was not one of his sons to whose care the country might be safely trusted. Richard I advanced on Jerusalem twice during the Third Crusade; in July 1191, after the fall of Acre, and in June 1192, after the battle of Arsuf. But he abandoned the attempt and made a truce with Saladin in September 1192. The city persisted in Saracen and Turkish hands until the close of the Great War, when, following the entry of General Allenby (q.v.) in December 1917, a civil administration was set up in 1920 and Jerusalem became (July 1922) the capital of Palestine under the British mandate from the League of Nations.

W. Besant and E. H. Palmer, "Jerusalem from Early Times," 1888.

Jervis, John, Earl of St. Vincent (1735–1823), entered the navy in 1749, and first saw active service in the expedition against Quebec in 1759, after which he was promoted to be a commander. In 1775 he was appointed to command a ship of 80 guns, and in 1778 took a distinguished part in Keppel's engagement off Brest. In 1782 he was knighted for capturing a large French ship when separated from the rest of his fleet by a fog. In 1784 he was returned to parliament for Yarmouth. In 1790 he was returned for Wycombe, and was at the same time promoted to be rear-admiral. He vacated his seat on the outbreak of war, and was dispatched to the West Indies. His health suffered considerably, but in 1795 he took command in the Mediterranean, where he won the battle off Cape St. Vincent (q.v.) on St. Valentine's Day. Created Earl St. Vincent, he rendered invaluable service in the mutiny at Spithead (q.v.) and the Nore in 1797, by his resolution and prudence. In 1800 he was appointed to command the Channel fleet in succession to Lord Bridport, but threw up the command in the next year on being appointed to preside at the admiralty. There he set to work to reform some of the many abuses which had long existed in the management of the navy. In May 1804 he was superseded by Viscount Melville, and on Fox's accession to office in 1806, again took the command of the Channel fleet. In that year he was accused in the House of Commons of "gross neglect in the building and repairing of ships." The charge was, however, refuted by most convincing details: and Fox moved that "the conduct of the Earl St. Vincent, in his late naval administration, has given an additional lustre to his exalted character, and merits the approbation of the House." The motion was agreed to without a division. In the following March St. Vincent retired from his command, but devoted some of his time to politics, and was a keen opponent of the Perceval ministry. In 1814 he was appointed governor of marines, and in 1821 admiral of the fleet. A great and original commander at sea, St. Vincent gained by his impartial justice the love and admiration of his men.

J. S. Tucker, "Memoirs of the Earl of St. Vincent," 1844; and biography by W. V. Anson, 1913.

Jewel, John, Bishop of Salisbury (1522–1571), was one of the most active of the reformers during the reign of Edward VI. Under Mary he was compelled to seek an asylum in Germany, but returned to England on the accession of Elizabeth, and was made Bishop of Salisbury (1559). He was one of the champions of the Protestants at the Theological Conference at Westminster in the same year. He was a strong upholder of the doctrine of the divine right of kings, a great controversialist, and a voluminous writer. His great work, the "Apology; or Defence of the English Church" (1562), is mainly based on a denial of the theory that truth necessarily resides in a numerical majority; it is practically a claim made on behalf of Protestant bodies to be admitted to the Council of Trent, and while denying that Roman Catholic doctrines have the support of the great fathers, is content to rest all its arguments on the direct teaching of Christ and his apostles. This work was translated into English very soon after its first publication, and was so generally esteemed that Elizabeth gave orders for one copy of it to be placed in every parish church.

R. W. Dixon, "History of the Church of England," 5 vols., 1902.

Jews in England. The first appearance of the Jews in any number in England

must be reckoned among the results of the Norman Conquest. Immediately after 1066, many coming from Rouen, Caen, and other Norman cities, arrived in London in the train of the invaders. Like the forests, the Jews were declared in early Norman Law to be the peculiar property of the king, and his local representative, usually the constable of the tower or castle erected to signalize the submission of a town to Norman conquerors, ruled over each settlement. The Jews were subject to tallages at the arbitrary will of the Crown, and the Norman kings claimed a large proportion of their wealth. But they enjoyed, in early times, no small security in return. Their religion excited little hostility. In their special districts, known as the Jewries, they were allowed to practise all their religious rites, and synagogues with schools attached to them sprang up in all parts of the country. Standing outside the authority of the Church, the canon-law forbidding trade in money did not affect them, and it was that calling that most of them successfully pursued. Their general financial skill was widely acknowledged. William II employed them to farm the revenues of vacant sees, and at this and later dates great barons and ecclesiastics sought their services as stewards of their estates. Many at the same time gained distinction as physicians, and in several towns, notably at Oxford, the lectures of their rabbis on medicine, and other sciences, were attended by Christian as well as by Jewish scholars. After the death of Henry I the security which the Jews had previously enjoyed was rapidly weakened. At the close of the twelfth century, and throughout the thirteenth, their position was one of growing danger. They became the helpless victims of the kings, who made their wealth an important source of revenue. Stephen and Matilda, and their supporters, robbed them recklessly. In 1187 Henry II demanded a fourth of their chattels, and Richard I depended largely on them to meet his extravagant expenditure. Until the reign of Henry III, however, a somewhat tolerant policy was still pursued toward them by the government in matters of religion. In 1176 permission was given them to acquire burial-grounds outside the towns where they were settled. Richard I practically legalized their own forms of oath in civil cases. John corresponded with a chief rabbi on terms of intimacy. But from the middle of the twelfth century the people of the towns, stirred constantly by the preachers of the Crusades to a fanatical hatred of them, attributed to them, as heretics, as foreigners, and as capitalists, their poverty and misfortunes, and subjected them to every variety of persecution. In 1146 the baseless charge was preferred against the Jews of Norwich of murdering a child to use his blood in their religious ceremonies, and this and similar accusations were repeated later in London, Gloucester, Bury St. Edmunds, Lincoln, and elsewhere. In 1189 riots took place in every town where any Jews resided. The Jewries were pillaged and fired, and their inhabitants brutally murdered. Restrictions, too, were frequently placed on their financial dealings. The Assize of Arms (q.v.) forbade the Jew to take into the towns any weapon of war. In 1194 Richard I issued a decree placing their commercial transactions more thoroughly under the control of the local officers of the Crown. To the same period belongs the development of the machinery of the "Exchequer of the Jews" (*Judæorum Scaccarium*), which dealt with cases in which both Jews and Christians were concerned, and supervised the revenue which flowed into the royal coffers from the Jews in the form of reliefs, escheats, fines, and tallages. The barons introduced into Magna Carta a clause forbidding the Jews on the death of a baronial debtor to distrain the property of his survivors, and in 1218 they were ordered for the first time to wear a distinguishing badge.

The thirteenth century witnessed little change in the position of the Jews. The first years of John's reign, and of his son's, gave them brief respites from persecution, and speciously extended their privileges, but otherwise their history is a mere repetition of extortionate exactions and deeds of popular violence. John not only constantly levied tallages upon them, and imprisoned and tortured those unable to pay, but he confiscated the property of their insolvent debtors, and distributed it among his supporters. When Henry III came of age he followed his father's example, and reversed the moderate policy that his justiciars, William Marshal and Hubert de Burgh, had pursued towards them. They were made responsible for all the extravagances of himself and his wife's relatives, who bitterly hated them, and hardly a year passed without a heavy exaction, varying from 10,000 to 60,000 marks, being made upon their property. In 1255 Henry made them over to his brother, Richard of Cornwall, as security for a large loan. And these exactions and indignities were far from being their only difficulties. The Church now deliberately attacked their religion. The friars —the new preachers of religion in the towns— were filled with zeal against Judaism, and they sought and obtained, as at Cambridge, many synagogues for their own habitations. Simon de Montfort shared the friars' hostility to them, and the battles of Lewes and Evesham were followed by revolting attacks upon the Jews throughout the country. In vain they begged permission to leave England altogether. The king found them too valuable to lose them lightly. His refusal of their petition was followed by a harsh edict forbidding them to hold in future any property in land. From Edward I's connexion with the Jews a similar story has arisen, but with his reign their mediæval history ends. He shared the antipathy for which his mother, Eleanor of Provence, was remarkable, and the statute *de la Jeuerie*, issued in 1275, was calculated to ruin them utterly. Lending money at interest was

absolutely forbidden, and every Jew was to pay a poll-tax of threepence or fourpence annually. Persecution by people and priests was meanwhile left unpunished, and at length, in 1290, Edward I, exercising some self-denial, consented to expel them. About 16,000 are reported to have left the country, and the majority of them appear to have sought refuge on the coast of France and Flanders. Many, however, were wilfully wrecked in their passage, and perished at sea. The grounds of their expulsion were stated to be the blasphemous character of their religious belief, and their oppression of the people as usurious money-lenders. Their real property was naturally confiscated by the Crown.

It is frequently stated that after the banishment of 1290 no Jews came to England until the later years of Cromwell's protectorate, but special investigation of the subject leaves little doubt that small numbers of them were present in the country from the fourteenth to the seventeenth century. Throughout this period the House for Jewish Converts ("Domus Conversorum") in London was seldom without some inmates. In 1594 Roderigo Lopez, a Jewish physician of Queen Elizabeth's, was hanged at Tyburn on a charge of treason. Charles I borrowed money, there can be little doubt, of some of their race who came to England from Amsterdam, and Cromwell employed several Jews as foreign spies. It was not, however, till 1655 that Edward I's decree was practically repealed. In that year the Protector, on his own responsibility, in answer to the petition of Manasseh-ben-Israel, a Dutch rabbi, granted permission to a few Jews to settle openly in this country. Much opposition was raised to the order by the London merchants, who feared commercial rivalry, and in 1660 a petition was presented to Charles II to reverse Cromwell's action, but it met with no success. The king had received loans from the Jews in the days of his exile, and had already pledged his word to maintain them in England. The first Jewish immigrants in the seventeenth century were descended from Spanish and Portuguese families who had taken refuge in Holland, and they were followed later by Jews from Germany and Poland. The English law at first allowed them few civil rights. By a statute of James I's reign the sacramental test was essential to naturalization, and the various penal laws, excluding Catholics from civil and municipal office, and from the legal profession, were applicable to them. Their public worship contravened a law of Elizabeth making attendance at church compulsory, but their various places of worship in London, erected in this and the next century, were never seriously menaced. Their marriages, however, were only valid by courtesy, and all Jews were subject to the alien duties (a heavy tax imposed on all goods exported by foreigners), from which, however, James II relieved them for a few years.

In commerce the English Jews rapidly gained a high reputation. In the War of the Spanish Succession a Jew contracted to supply the army with bread, and it was currently reported that Jews entered in the same reign into negotiations with Godolphin for the purchase of Brentford as an exclusively Jewish settlement. In the succeeding reigns several attempts were made to relieve them of their various disabilities. In 1723 they were permitted to omit from the oath of abjuration all words obnoxious to their faith, and a little later naturalization was allowed to all who had lived seven years in America, or had engaged in the flax or hemp trades, or who had served in the navy. Thus the principle of their right to naturalization was admitted. In 1753 the Pelham ministry introduced the Jews' Naturalization Bill, extending the privilege but not making it universal; in spite of much opposition in the Commons, it became law. Popular fanaticism and commercial jealousy were, however, roused against it in the country, and predictions of the evils that would flow from the measure excited a very bitter agitation against the Jews. In 1754 the government, in obedience to the panic, moved the repeal of the act. A clause, however, in Lord Hardwicke's Marriage Act of the previous year gave practical legal validity to Jewish marriages.

In the nineteenth century the disabilities of the Jews were finally removed, and their cause found strong support in the City of London. In 1832 they were given the rights of freemen of the city, and by Lord Campbell's Act of 1835 they were enabled to take the oath requisite for admission to the office of sheriff. In 1832 the Reform Bill granted them the suffrage. A motion for the abolition of all their civil disabilities was introduced into the House of Commons in 1833, and Hume, O'Connell, and Macaulay spoke strongly in its favour, but after passing the Lower House it was thrown out by the Lords. The same fate awaited the bill on many subsequent occasions. In 1846, however, by the Religious Opinions Relief Bill, the public exercise of their religion, and the education of their children in it, were legalized. In the next year Baron Lionel de Rothschild was elected member of parliament by the City of London, but the law necessitating an oath which he could not conscientiously take prevented his taking his seat. In 1851 Alderman Salomons was elected for Greenwich, and he took his seat after omitting from the oath the words obnoxious to his faith, for which he was subsequently fined £500 in the court of Queen's Bench. Finally, in 1858, the remaining Jewish disabilities were removed by law, and the oath admitting members to the House of Commons so altered that Jews might conscientiously take it. [All restrictions on Jews at Oxford and Cambridge were removed in 1870.]

Tovey, "Anglia Judaica," 1733, with Madox's account of the Jewish Exchequer in his "History of the Exchequer," vol. i, covers the mediæval

history, of which a good summary is given in Margoliouth's "Jews of Great Britain," 1845. See also Jacobs, "Jews of Angevin England," 1893; Picciotto's "Anglo-Jewish Sketches," 1878, for a most elaborate information on the subject from the time of Cromwell; A. M. Hyamson, "History of the Jews in England," 1908; H. S. Q. Henriques, "Jews and the English Law," 1908; H. P. Stokes, "Studies in Anglo-Jewish History," 1913; L. Browne, "Story of the Jews," 1926. [S. L. L.]

Jhansi is the name of a district in Bundelkhand, lying 142 miles south of Agra. In 1804, on the first connexion of the government with Bundelkhand, a treaty was concluded with Gheo Rao Bhao, a tributary of the Peshwa, and governor of this small territory. In 1817, when all rights of the Peshwa in the province were ceded to the company, in consideration of his fidelity the territory was declared hereditary in the family of the above-mentioned ruler. On the death of his grandson, who died without leaving any issue (1835), the territory was given to a collateral branch of the same family; and when in 1854 the last descendant of Gheo Rao Bhao died childless, the British government declined to recognize his adopted son, and annexed the province. The rani protested in vain at the time; but on the outbreak of the Mutiny in 1857 she massacred the Europeans and proclaimed herself independent. The fortress of Jhansi, garrisoned by the 12th Native Infantry, fell into the hands of the insurgents led by the rani, who was not expelled until April 1858 by a column under Sir H. Rose. She was eventually slain before Gwalior fighting in the front ranks like a man.

Malleson, "History of the Indian Mutiny"; "Annual Register," 1858.

Jhindur Bhye was the wife of Ranjit Singh, on whose death she assumed the regency of the Punjab, or rather shared it with her paramour, Lall Singh. Her intrigues brought about the reduction of the Punjab by Lords Hardinge and Dalhousie. After a series of strange and romantic vicissitudes, prematurely old, well-nigh blind, broken and subdued in spirit, she found a resting-place at last under the roof of her son, in a quiet corner of an English castle, and died in a London suburb.

Sir J. Kaye, "Sepoy War," 1849.

Jingoes was a name given during the excitement of the Eastern Question in 1878 to the party which was in favour of war with Russia. The word sprang from a popular song of the period the refrain of which was—

"We don't want to fight, but by Jingo if we do,
We've got the ships, we've got the men, we've got the money too."

The term, however, was adopted in serious political controversy, and used to designate those who favoured an aggressive foreign policy.

Joan, wife of Edward the Black Prince (*d.* 1385), commonly called the "Fair Maid of Kent," was the daughter of Edmund of Woodstock, Earl of Kent, sixth son of Edward I. On the death of her brothers without issue, she became Countess of Kent (1352). Sir Thomas Holland and the Earl of Salisbury both became suitors for her hand. She was contracted in the first instance to Holland, but during his absence in France Salisbury contrived to supersede him. The case was later referred by Holland to the pope, who gave a decision in his favour (1349). In 1360 Holland died and next year Joan became the wife of the Black Prince. Five years later she gave birth to Richard II. In 1381 she was exposed to the insults of the insurgents, who took possession of the Tower, whither she had fled for refuge, but her life was preserved.

Joan of Arc. [Henry VI; Hundred Years' War.]

Joan, of Navarre, Queen (*d.* 1437), was the daughter of Charles the Bad, of Navarre, and was married first to John IV, Duke of Brittany, and secondly (1402) to Henry IV. In 1419 she was accused of conspiring against her stepson Henry V, and for a time she was deprived of all her revenues and committed to the custody of the governor of Pevensey Castle. She was reinstated in 1422 and passed the rest of her life in peaceful retirement.

Joan (of the Tower), fourth and youngest child of Edward II (1321–62), was promised in marriage to David Bruce of Scotland, by the Treaty of Northampton (1328), and married in July the same year. On the successful invasion of Edward Baliol, the young king and queen went to France, where they were kindly received by King Philip (1334), and whence they did not return to Scotland till 1341. After her husband's capture at Neville's Cross (1346), she visited him in his captivity (1348). On his release in 1357, she accompanied him to Scotland, but soon after, being insulted by David's preference for his mistress, Katherine Mortimer, she returned to Edward III's court, and refused to return to her husband even when her rival was murdered in 1360.

John, King (*b.* December 24, 1166, *s.* April 8, 1199, *d.* October 19, 1216), was the youngest son of Henry II and Eleanor of Aquitaine. He was Henry's favourite son, and destined to receive as his share of his father's empire the lordship of Ireland. But his petulant and arrogant behaviour to the Irish chiefs when, in 1185, he was sent on a visit to Ireland compelled Henry to give up his scheme. Before long John joined his brother Richard in his last revolt against his father, in circumstances of peculiar treachery. Henry's schemes to win for John a rich marriage had proved no less unsuccessful than his Irish plan. But soon after Richard I's accession John's marriage with the heiress of the great Gloucester earldom gave him revenue and position. During Richard's absence on crusade John joined the popular movement for deposing Longchamp, the foreign justiciar, and, in close alliance with

Philip of France, rose in revolt on the news of Richard's captivity. But the administrative system was too strong to be shaken by John's turbulence. The rising was suppressed, and its author very leniently treated by his brother, who did his best to secure his succession in preference to the heir of his elder brother, Geoffrey. In 1199 John became king. His reign marks the collapse of the great power which Henry II had founded; but also shows the beginning of the national English state which emerged from its ruins. The loss of Normandy, the quarrel with Innocent III, and the struggle with the baronage which produced Magna Carta, are the great events of his reign. Philip Augustus promptly deserted his old friend when he became king, and posed as the champion of Arthur of Brittany, whom John was generally believed to have murdered, and as protector of the injured Count of La Marche, whose betrothed wife, Isabella of Angoulême, John had recently married, having divorced his first wife. After a solemn trial John was adjudged to have forfeited his French fiefs. In 1204 Philip conquered Normandy, John making little or no attempt to protect his dominions. Anjou, Maine, and the greater part of the southern fiefs which Eleanor had brought to Henry II, were speedily annexed also. Not until it was too late did John make a vigorous effort to regain them. By that time other difficulties prevented his attempts being successful. The Archbishop of Canterbury, Hubert Walter, had been a great influence for good on John. His death, in 1205, was thus a great loss in itself. But the quarrel of the king and the Canterbury monks, and the imposition of a papal nominee whom neither would accept, led to John's famous contest with Innocent III; the interdict of 1208; the deposition of 1211, and the abject submission of the king when Philip, as executor of the papal decrees, was preparing to invade England. John surrendered his kingdom to Pandulf, the papal representative, and consented to receive it back as a fief of the papacy. Henceforth he was Innocent's ally; but his innumerable tyrannies had raised up enemies in the nation against whom papal support was of little value. The death of the faithful justiciar, Fitz-Peter, in 1213, broke up the civil administration. The last check on John's tyranny was now removed; but with unwonted energy he planned a great expedition for the recovery of Poitou, in conjunction with an alliance with the princes of Lower Germany, who supported his nephew, Otto IV, against Philip. The defeat of Otto at Bouvines, and the want of co-operation of the Poitevins, made both schemes abortive. The refusal of the northern barons of England to serve abroad began the series of events which led to the Great Charter. The papal archbishop, Langton, took up an unexpectedly patriotic attitude. He held up the charter of Henry I to the barons as a good basis for their demands. A great meeting of the nobles at Bury St. Edmunds declared itself against the king. The clergy, the Londoners, the ministerial prelates, in turn deserted John. Abandoned by all but hirelings and foreigners, he was constrained, in 1215 (June 15), to set his seal to Magna Carta. But the support of Innocent III could still be relied upon. Langton was summoned to Rome. The pope annulled the charter. John, with his mercenaries, spread desolation throughout the country. Nothing was left for the barons but to appeal to Philip of France. In 1216 the landing of Louis, the French king's son, with a French army, reduced John to despair. His death at Newark (October 19, 1216) only prevented his deposition.

John was one of the worst of English kings, tyrannical, treacherous, petulant, passionate, infamous in all his private relations, careless of all his public duties. But he was of no mean ability; and had he possessed more persistent energy and stability of purpose, he might have reigned as successfully as his father. As it was, he failed in everything he undertook. The system of government which Henry II had established had survived the neglect of Richard, but broke up under the active tyranny of John. Yet its dissolution left the nation free to work out its own development. The loss of Normandy made the baronage finally English. It was no small benefit to the nation that John's tyranny compelled barons and people, and, despite the pope, the better elements in the Church, to make common cause against John. Magna Carta, although primarily a feudal document, was the result of the first corporate action of the English nation, and proved the foundation of the mediæval constitution. Even the submission to Rome helped on in the next generation the national reaction which John's reign had done so much to stimulate.

Kate Norgate, "John Lackland," 1902; G. B. Adams, "Political History of England, 1066–1216"; H. W. C. Davis, "England Under the Normans and Angevins," 1908; Sir J. Ramsay, "The Angevin Empire," 1903; W. S. McKechnie, "Magna Carta," 1905; F. M. Powicke, "The Loss of Normandy," 1913.

[T. F. T.]

Johnston, Archibald, Lord Warriston (1611–63), was a leader of the Covenanters, whose demands he is said to have formulated. He was one of the commissioners at the Pacification of Berwick (1639), and at the Treaty of Ripon (1640) (q.v.). The following year he became a lord of session, and is credited with having suggested the Act of Classes in 1649. Having acted as chairman of Richard Cromwell's Committee of Public Safety, he was condemned in his absence in 1661, and hanged at Edinburgh in July 1663.

Johore. [Malaya, British.]

Judge. [Justice.]

Judicature Acts, The (1873 and 1875) were designed to simplify the British

system of judicature. They consolidated into one supreme court of justice the courts of King's Bench, Common Pleas, Exchequer, Probate and Divorce and Admiralty, and the Court of Chancery; and divided the supreme court into two parts—the High Court of Justice and the Court of Appeal. All actions henceforth could be heard in the High Court of Justice. The three common-law divisions of the High Court were consolidated in 1880, and the court now consists of a common-law division (called the King's Bench division) and Probate, Divorce, and Admiralty divisions. The Appeal Court consists of the lord chancellor, certain peers who have held high judicial office, and certain lords of appeal in ordinary created under the act of 1873. A Judicature Act of identical character was passed for Ireland in 1877.

Judith, daughter of Charles the Bald, King of the West Franks, in 856 was married at the age of thirteen to King Ethelwulf. She is said to have sat by her husband's side on the royal throne, but this apparently means nothing more than that she was recognized as queen, a title which had belonged to no wife of a West Saxon king since the days of Edburga, who was credited with the poisoning of her husband Bertric (802). After Ethelwulf's death she married her stepson Ethelbald (858), and on his decease, in 860, she went back to her father's court, and subsequently took for her third husband Baldwin (Iron-Arm), first Count of Flanders. Her descendant Matilda of Flanders married William the Conqueror and became the ancestress of the kings of mediæval England.

Jumièges, Robert of, Archbishop of Canterbury (1051–2), was a Norman who came over to England in the train of Edward the Confessor. He was made Bishop of London early in the reign, and at once came forward as the leader of the French party. His influence over the king was very great. "So high did he stand in the king's estimation, that if he had said a black crow was a white one, the king would sooner have believed the bishop's word than his own eyes." And this influence was exerted to fill every office with Normans, and destroy the national party of which Godwin was the head. The success of Robert's scheme was seen in 1051, when Edward appointed him archbishop, in opposition to the chapter of Canterbury, who had elected one of their own number, Elfric, to the post. The triumph of the Normans seemed secured in that same year by the banishment of Godwin and his sons; but in 1052 they returned, were received with the greatest enthusiasm, and for the time destroyed the influence of their rival. Archbishop Robert was one of the first to flee before the storm, and, in company with the Bishop of Dorchester, he made his way in a crazy fishing-boat to Normandy. The witenagemot, which met almost immediately, deprived Robert of his archbishopric, and outlawed him, and the interposition of the pope in his favour was disregarded. He had to retire to the monastery of Jumièges, where he remained till his death.

E. A. Freeman, "Norman Conquest," 1867–71; H. W. C. Davis, "England Under the Normans and Angevins, 1908."

Jung Bahadur, Sir (*d.* 1877), chief minister of Nepal, assisted in the murder of Malabar Singh (1845) and usurped his office in Nepal. He came to the aid of the British during the Indian Mutiny, and was present at the siege of Delhi (1858).

Junius, The Letters of. The first letter bearing the signature of "Junius" made its appearance in the *Public Advertiser* for November 21, 1768. But we have the author's own assurance that he had been writing under different names for at least two years previously. It was not, however, till January 21, 1769, that the regular series of political attacks under the title of Junius began with an assault on the characters of the Duke of Grafton and Lord North, in a letter addressed to the former. With reference to the duke we are told that "the finances of a nation sinking under its debts have been committed to a young nobleman already ruined by play"; while Lord North was characterized as "an object of derision to his enemies, and of melancholy pity to his friends." The vacillation and inconsistency of the government were pointed out, and hardly any name mentioned escaped irony or abuse excepting that of Grenville. The military part of this attack drew a reply from Sir William Draper, in which he called upon Junius to ask pardon of "Lord Granby and the whole kingdom for his abominable scandal." Letter followed letter between the two combatants, till on March 18 Junius once more turned his batteries directly against the Duke of Grafton for having pardoned a certain Edward MacQuirk, who had been found guilty of murder. This question is made the prelude to a fierce condemnation of the duke's whole conduct as regards the Wilkes and Luttrell question, his private morals and his political capacity. The prime minister was told, "There is something which distinguishes you not only from all other ministers but from all other men. It is not that you do wrong by design, but that you should never do right by mistake." By the end of May the Duke of Bedford was incidentally brought upon the scene to share in the prime minister's abuse, and towards the end of July Blackstone was directly attacked for his reflections on Grenville. Towards the middle of September Junius addressed his first letter to the Duke of Bedford, the inheritor of a name "glorious till it was yours": and once more Sir W. Draper came forward for the defence. On December 19, 1769, appeared the famous letter to the king, for which the printers and publishers were tried (1770), on which occasion the jury brought in a verdict of "Guilty of publishing only." The conduct of Lord Mansfield on this occasion laid him open to the attacks of the anonymous

writer. Indeed, in the first letter to this great lawyer (November 1770), Junius attacked him with peculiar bitterness: "no learned man, even among your own tribe, thinks you qualified to preside in a court of Common Law." In the preceding August (1770) Junius had published his first letter to Lord North, whom he reproached for appointing Colonel Luttrell adjutant-general of the army in Ireland. With the opening of 1771 foreign politics attracted the pen of Junius, but by the middle of the year he had once more directed his attention to the Duke of Grafton, who, says the author, "is the pillow upon which I am determined to rest all my resentments." Then followed the discussion with Horne (July to August 1771). Later in the same year Lord Mansfield was again attacked for having bailed John Eyre, a Scotsman, and on January 21, 1772, Junius published a letter in proof of his assertion that on this occasion Lord Mansfield had done "that which by law he was not warranted to do." The same paper contained Junius's appeal to Lord Camden, "in the name of the English nation to stand forth in defence of the laws of his country," lest it "should be said that for some months past he had kept too much company with the Duke of Grafton." This letter winds up with the words, "I do not scruple to affirm that in my judgment he (Lord Mansfield) is the very worst and most dangerous man in the kingdom. Thus far I have done my duty in endeavouring to bring him to punishment. But mine is an inferior ministerial office in the temple of justice. I have bound the victim and dragged him to the altar." The last letter to H. S. Woodfall is dated May 10, 1772.

The question of the authorship of these letters is one which has severely taxed the critical ingenuity of the last hundred years. Hardly a single prominent statesman of the time who was not himself directly attacked by Junius has lacked champions to assert his claim to their production. Lord George Sackville, Barré, Grattan, Burke, Lord Loughborough, Gibbon, Lord Chatham, William Mason, Lord Temple, and many others, have all had their supporters; but none of their pretensions can be considered as valid. The weight of inferential evidence seems to point towards Sir Philip Francis (q.v.), and it is certain that he was not unwilling to be considered as Junius, though he never admitted the claim in words. The test of handwriting seems to tend in the same direction. But if he were the author, it must be allowed that however much this distinction may add to his intellectual reputation, it takes away from his moral character; for he seems to have been receiving favours from, and living on intimate terms with, many of those whom he assailed most fiercely. The most, however, that can be said in favour of the view that he was the writer is that he is the least unlikely of the most prominent candidates.

Junius's "Letters" have been frequently republished. For the controversy on their authorship see Macaulay, "Essay on Warren Hastings," 1841; J. Britton, "Junius Elucidated," 1848; Dilke, "Papers of a Critic"; Vicarius, "Junius Letters," 1903; W. H. Burr, "Thomas Paine: Was He Junius?" 1890; J. Smith, "Junius Unveiled" (attributing the letters to Gibbon), 1909. See also Sir Leslie Stephen's article on Sir Philip Francis in "Dictionary of National Biography," which summarizes the evidence in favour of Francis's authorship; also Parkes and Merivale, "Life of Francis," Brougham's "Statesmen of the Reign of George III," and Lecky, "History of England," vol. iii.

Jury, The, in modern English juridical usage, is a body of laymen, generally twelve in number, chosen by lot to ascertain, with the assistance and guidance of the judge, questions of fact only, proved before them by evidence. They are bound by oath (hence their name) to discharge their duties properly. Unanimity is generally required of them. Juries are used both in criminal and civil cases. In the former the *Grand Jury* presents offenders against whom there is a *prima facie* case, to be tried before the judge and the *Petty Jury*. In the latter a distinction is drawn between the *Special Jury* and the *Common Jury*, the property qualification of the special juror being higher. There is also a *Coroner's Jury*, on whose finding persons may be brought to trial at the assizes.

Of the origin of juries every conceivable theory has been held. It was once almost an article of constitutional faith that they were invented by King Alfred, Welsh antiquaries adding at the suggestion of Asser, who had experienced the benefits of the system in Wales. Many have stoutly maintained the exclusively English origin of this typical English institution. Northern archæologists have argued that it was brought ready-made by the Danes to England; others that it came over with William the Conqueror. The canon law, the Roman law, the customs of the early Slavs copied by their Saxon neighbours, have also had the jury fathered upon them. Even wilder is the hypothesis of its Eastern origin, and introduction into Europe by the Crusaders. The truth seems to be that the jury is a specialized development under favourable conditions of a tendency common to all the Teutonic peoples, if not to many other Aryan tribes as well. In its modern form it is hardly older than the reign of Henry II, and in many important features not so old as that. But in its broader aspect the jury simply carries on the popular judicial courts of the old German polity. It is the latest survival of the time when the law courts were the courts of the people, when the mass of the suitors were judges, witnesses, and jurors in one. It is in this sense only that the twelve assessors of the presiding officer in the shire and hundred-moot (the *rachimburgi*, or *scabini*, of the Franks), or the twelve compurgators whose testimony, added to that of their principal, was regarded as conclusive, or the sworn witnesses who represented, as it were, common fame, can be regarded as progenitors of the jury system; in strictness they were not. They shared with the jury a

common representative character. Like them they were bound by oath, and were commonly of the sacred number of twelve. But the specific function of judging on matters of fact was not yet differentiated from the other elements of judicial proceedings. Only in one of the laws of Ethelred II—which refers to a committee of twelve thegns in the shire-moot, who take oath to accuse no man falsely—do we find any real analogy to the later jury; and this remarkable anticipation of the "jury of presentment" stands so much by itself that it is unsafe to generalize from such scanty data. Thus we can find no real juries among the English before the Conquest. Still less can the analogous *Nämd* of Sweden, or the other Scandinavian tribunals of the same sort, be regarded as parents of an institution which has only collateral affinity to them. But soon after the Norman Conquest the system of inquest by sworn recognitors, representative of the popular courts, was introduced into England by the invaders. This system may have been borrowed from the Theodosian Code by the Carolingian emperors. The Frankish Capitularies contain numerous instructions to the royal Missi to inquire into various fiscal and judicial rights of the Crown by the oath of the trustworthy men of the neighbourhood, whose evidence was regarded as the embodiment of the witness of the community, which in early times was the ultimate evidence of rights. This system survived the fall of the Carolings, and was still frequently used, both in France generally and Normandy in particular, at the time of the Conquest. There was every reason why William I and his ministers should introduce this practice into England. Anxious to rule according to ancient precedent, and ignorant of the old customs of the country, they found these *Inquisitiones* of unique value in giving them trustworthy information. The immense mass of antiquarian knowledge collected in the Domesday Survey was obtained by inquests of the royal officials before representatives of the popular courts. It was a slight step in advance to allow the means so useful in ascertaining the rights of the Crown to be employed in ascertaining the rights of the subject. Both for royal and private purposes, mostly for fiscal, but also for judicial objects, Henry I developed the system still further. But it was Henry II who gave to the system a political and judicial importance it never had before. He made it part of the ordinary judicial machinery. He applied it to all sorts of civil and criminal suits. So far as great institutions can be the work of individuals, he is the founder of the English system of trial by jury.

The Conquest had made trial by battle the ordinary means of settling disputes about freeholds. Henry II, in the Grand Assize (q.v.), gave suitors, as an alternative, the use of the inquest. A jury of twelve knights of the county, chosen by four knights electors, were summoned by the sheriff to appear before the king or his judges to give evidence. Again, the Constitutions of Clarendon (q.v.) enjoined cases of dispute as to lay or clerical tenure to be settled by the recognition by twelve sworn men; and the three assizes of Mort d'Ancestor, Novel Disseisin, and Darrein Presentment (q.v.) were accomplished by the same means. In criminal cases the precedents of the law of Ethelred, of the "juratores" of the shire mentioned in Henry I's Pipe Roll, and of the criminal jury of the sixth article of the Constitutions of Clarendon, were developed into the system of trial prescribed by the assizes of Clarendon and Northampton. By the former measure inquiry was ordered to be made through every shire and hundred by twelve lawful men of each hundred, and four of each township, upon oath, for all suspected criminals. When the royal justices came round on their journeys the above-mentioned jury was to present the suspected offenders to them in the county court, where they were to be tried by the ordeal. But the development of juridical science led, first, to the minimizing of the ordeal, so that the presentment became the important thing, and, next, to its abolition by the Lateran Council of 1215. Even before this an alternative to the ordeal was sometimes found in a second jury, empanelled to investigate further the truth of the presentment. After 1215 this became the universal method of procedure. The *Grand Jury* presented criminals. The trial, strictly speaking, was before the *Petty Jury*, as this second jury was soon called. This is still the case, though the establishment of elaborate magisterial investigations has tended to reverse the original importance of the two bodies.

Juries thus established were almost peculiar to England. The Frankish inquest was never developed to further consequences in its own home. The imperfect juries of the mediæval continent were almost entirely the result of the reflex action of the English juries. The modern continental jury is avowedly borrowed. Thus, Freeman could claim with reason that the jury is a native English growth, despite its filial relation to the Frankish inquest.

The juries of the thirteenth century differed in many important respects from modern juries. They were still largely witnesses. The jury of the Grand Assize, for example, was chosen from those practically cognizant of the facts of the particular case. Even when it was found impossible to summon only witnesses as jurors, it was long before the advancement of juridical science limited their functions to deciding on evidence laid before them. It was long before the jury was free from judicial censure if its verdict was disliked by the judge. Not before the Revolution of 1688 could the jury have in a political case be said to have acquired full freedom. Not before Fox's Libel Act did it acquire real power of deciding on the whole facts of one important branch of trials. The political importance of trial by jury is very considerable in English

history. Though a mere administrative expedient in its origin, the fact that the county jury was a systematic representation of the shire community, selected to treat with the king or his representative, was a step of the greatest importance in the development of our representative institutions. [PARLIAMENT.] The great principle of trial by peers was embodied in Magna Carta; and, in time, the jury system came to be regarded as the greatest safeguard against arbitrary imprisonment, and the greatest guarantee of a fair trial, and of the personal liberty of the subject. A venal or time-serving judge—dependent for his position on royal favour—could only be checked by some such means. In political trials, even of the eighteenth century, without trial by jury it would have fared badly with an enemy of the government. Even now that the impartiality of the judges is throughly established, the jury system, though shorn of its original importance, and limited in its operation by the tendencies of legal reform, still keeps its own function in our judicial system.

Stubbs, "Constitutional History"; revised in the light of such later works as: Pollock and Maitland "History of English Law," 1898; W. S. Holdsworth, "History of English Law," 1922; Sir P. Vinogradoff, "English Society in the Eleventh Century," 1911; W. S. McKechnie, "Magna Carta," 1905 and 1914.

[T. F. T.]

Justice, or **Judge.** In the old English popular courts the whole body of suitors acted as judges. The sheriff, or hundreds-ealdor, was simply their chairman, or moderator; and the judicial committee of twelve thegns were the assessors of the sheriff. The feudal jurisdiction of the landrica, the supreme jurisdiction of the king, invested lords of soken and monarchs with some of the attributes of the later judge. But the real differentiation of the office of judge took place subsequently to the Norman Conquest, and was due to the development of the study of jurisprudence, the increasing specialization of the whole system of government, the organization on an extended basis of the royal jurisdiction and its connexion with the headless popular judicature, through the jury, by the Norman and Angevin kings. These circumstances necessitated the employment of a large judicial staff, which, if not strictly confined, after the precedents of later times, to its juridical business, and if equally employed by the king on fiscal and administrative duties, was sufficiently occupied with legal work to obtain from it its most common appellation. During the eleventh century the word *justitia* began to be used in a sense which included the persons charged with the administration of the law, as well as to indicate the abstract principles on which the law was based. The justice, or judge, received his name from the justice which he declared. The so-called Laws of Edward the Confessor speak of the sheriffs as justices; John of Salisbury gives them the same title, and the Assize of Clarendon couples them with the justices in the stricter sense. But it is possible that this title belonged specially to the sheriffs as transacting special business under the king's writ. In Henry I's Charter and Laws, and in some other instances, the term seems to include all landlords possessing courts of their own, or all suitors qualified to act as "judices" in the shire-moot. But the title became gradually further limited, until it was ultimately used to indicate (1) the president, or chief officer of the Curia Regis, (2) all the members of the same court.

The chief minister of the Norman and Angevin kings was styled the *justitia*, or sometimes the *justitiarius*, or *capitalis*, or *summus justitia*. His office, obscure in origin, and perhaps developed from the Norman seneschalship through the regents of William I during his absences on the continent, acquired great importance under Ranulf Flambard, who assumed the name, if not the functions, of the later justiciar. Under Roger, Bishop of Salisbury, the great minister of Henry I, and the practical founder of his administrative system, both the name and functions of the office became more strictly defined. Until the middle of the reign of Henry III a long and scarcely interrupted series of chief justiciars acted as permanent prime ministers, as representatives of the monarch in all relations of state, as regents during the king's absence, as royal deputies even in his presence, as presidents of the judicial system which centred in the Curia Regis, and as presidents of the fiscal system which centred in the exchequer. A similar need produced analogous offices in half the kingdoms of Europe. In Aragon and Naples the correspondence extended even to the name of justitia. So long as the feudal spirit remained strong, the holders of the office were bishops, unable to found a legal family; but the triumph of Henry II over the feudal separatists rendered it safe to appoint baronial justiciars. The development of the power of the chancellor, the break-up of the bureaucratic system of the Angevins and the development of a constitution in which a permanent prime minister found no place, led to a gradual change in the functions of the justiciar during the thirteenth century. His political functions gradually disappeared, while the increasing specialization of our legal system gave to his functions as president of the chief court of justice a new importance. Hubert de Burgh was the last great political justiciar. His successor, Stephen Segrave (q.v.), was simply a good lawyer. He began the process of change which was completed before the end of the century. The *capitalis justitia* of Henry II becomes the lord chief justice of Edward I.

The title of justice was, however, never confined to the justiciar. Even during the administration of Roger of Salisbury the title is frequently conferred on other members of the Curia Regis. In the "Dialogus de Scaccario" (q.v.) it is their official designation, although the same individuals sat in the exchequer with the title of barons. Henry II made his

grandfather's system of judicial visitations a permanent part of the legal system of the country. As representatives of the sovereign, the justices of the Curia Regis systematically perambulated the country and tried the offenders presented to them by the grand juries elected by the shire-moot, held inquiries into freehold suits under the Grand Assize, transacted proceedings under the three assizes of Mort d'Ancestor, Darrein Presentment, and Novel Disseisin (q.v.), besides acting as fiscal and executive officers of the Crown. But the judicial aspect of the justice gradually became more important. In 1178 the court of King's Bench was cut off from the Curia Regis in its larger aspect, and the clause of Magna Carta that Common Pleas should no longer follow the Crown, but be held in some fixed place, led to the further differentiation of the court of Common Pleas, which sat constantly at Westminster, from the court of King's Bench, now entirely devoted to judicial business. Meanwhile the old financial system which had centred in the Exchequer became obsolete, and the barons of the Exchequer, deprived of most of their fiscal business, became almost as much simple judges as the justices of the King's Bench or Common Pleas. The process of differentiation had already gone so far that each of the three courts had a separate staff of officials. As has been shown, the justiciar became Chief Justice, and, as he retained a special relation to the King's Bench, a similar official of less dignity presided over the Common Pleas. Meanwhile Edward I defined and completed what Henry II had established. The justices itinerant of Henry II became the justices of assize of Edward I. The various commissions under which they sat at Westminster or went on circuits were systematized and enlarged. Instead of the separate Iters for different purposes, the justices were sent out at regular intervals on a fivefold mission—as Justices of the Peace, of Oyer and Terminer, of Jail Delivery, of Assize, and of Nisi Prius (q.v.). Their functions and positions were hardly changed until recent legislation consolidated the three courts, and superseded by justices the barons of the Exchequer. The title of Justice is given by recent Judicature Acts to all judges of the Supreme Court. In the High Court of Justice, into which the three old courts have been merged, they are called "Mr. Justice," and their head is the "Lord Chief Justice of England," the titles of Chief Justice of the Common Pleas and Lord Chief Baron having been abolished. In the Court of Appeal the judges are styled "Lord Justice." The title of Lord Justice had in previous times been often given to persons invested with extraordinary judicial commissions, such as, for example, the government of Ireland during the absence or vacancy of the lord-lieutenant, or the commissions of regency that sometimes governed the country during the absences of William III and the Hanoverian monarchs on the continent. Besides the justices of the English courts, there were special justices for Durham, Chester, the Isle of Ely, and similar Palatine jurisdictions.

In a lower sphere the title of "justice" has long been given to the inferior magistrates of the first instance. The "custodes pacis," or "conservatores pacis," which it became usual for the king to nominate during the thirteenth century (e.g., Henry III's writ in 1233, and Edward I's Statute of Winchester), received, by an act of Edward III, both power to try felonies, and the more honourable designation of justice of the peace. "The whole Christian world hath not the like office as justice of the peace, if duly executed," was the opinion of Lord Coke, and despite the obvious objections to lay tribunals, drawn from a limited class, the system still remains, except in a few populous places where stipendiary magistrates with legal training have been appointed. The justices of the peace are appointed by a special commission under the great seal to keep the peace within the limits of the county in which they are appointed to act. The property qualification for the office is £100 a year in land. They exercise jurisdiction either individually or in petty sessions of the justices of a limited district, or in quarter sessions of the justices of the whole county. The latter body still combines with its judicial work administrative and fiscal business in a way that recalls the justices of the reign of Henry I.

Stubbs, "Constitutional History"; Campbell, "Lives of the Chief Justices"; Foss, "Judges of England"; Pollock and Maitland, "History of English Law"; W. S. Holdsworth, "History of English Law"; Haydn's "Book of Dignities" gives a list of the chief justices. See also C. A. Beard, "The Office of Justice of the Peace in England," 1904; and W. C. Bolland, "The General Eyre," 1921.
[T. F. T.]

Justus, Saint, Archbishop of Canterbury (624–7), was one of the monks who were sent by Gregory, in 601, to join the mission at Canterbury. In 604 he was made Bishop of Rochester. On the death of Ethelbert, and the relapse of Kent into idolatry, fearing persecution, he fled to France (617), but soon returned and resumed the charge of his see. In 624 he became Archbishop of Canterbury in succession to Mellitus. The great event of his short occupancy of this see was the extension of the Kentish mission to Northumbria.

Jutes, The. There are three questions of interest connected with this tribe, which is generally considered to have been the first people of Teutonic blood to settle in Britain after the withdrawal of the Roman legions, viz., the date of their arrival, the place of their origin, and the area of their settlement. The date to which their arrival is traditionally assigned is that given by the "Anglo-Saxon Chronicle" and by Florence of Worcester, viz., 449–50. Both of these authorities probably based their computation upon the words of Bæda ("Hist. Eccles." i, 15), but both clearly misread his meaning. He merely states that

the invasion occurred during the joint rule of the Emperors Marcianus and Valentinian, i.e. between 449 and 455. Such testimony as is afforded by the Celtic chroniclers Gildas and Nennius seems to point in the same direction as that of the Teutonic authorities, and to confirm the view that it was about the middle of the fifth century that the transition from plundering raids to conquest for purposes of settlement took place. The next question that arises is as to the original seat and the race of the Jutish invaders. Bæda speaks of them as coming originally from a district lying north of the country of the Angles. The passage has generally been interpreted as locating the Jutes in Jutland, which, it is held, still preserves the old root in its modern name. In recent years, however, there has been much critical examination of the literary sources for the Anglo-Saxon conquest in the light of philological and archæological research; and in regard to the origin of the Jutes neither philology nor archæology gives any support to Bæda. The Kentish dialects have been shown to bear a closer relationship to Frisian than to any other of their continental relatives; while archæologists have demonstrated the remarkable affinities which exist between the culture of the Kentish settlers, as revealed by their early burials, and the culture of the Frankish cemeteries of the lower Rhine valley. Those, therefore, who are reluctant to reject entirely any statement made by Bæda have been forced to conclude either that the Jutes reached Kent only after a preliminary sojourn in the Rhine district, or that the invaders were a composite body consisting of Jutes from Jutland with a considerable admixture of Ripuarian Franks. Lastly we have to consider the area of the Jutish settlements in Britain. Here the various sources of information are in agreement; and archæological evidence bears out the statement of Bæda that the Jutes originally occupied not only Kent, but the Isle of Wight and a part of the mainland opposite. These outlying settlements were subsequently conquered and absorbed by Wessex. [Hengest; Horsa; English Conquest; Kent.]

H. M. Chadwick, "Origin of the English Nation"; Sir C. W. C. Oman, "England Before the Norman Conquest"; R. W. Chambers, "England Before the Norman Conquest," 1926; E. Thurlow-Leeds, "Archæology of the Anglo-Saxon Settlements," 1913.

Jutland, Battle of (May 31, 1916), was fought in the North Sea during the Great War, between the British Grand Fleet under Admiral Jellicoe and the German High Seas Fleet under Admiral Scheer. This was the only battle of the war in which the two fleets met. The British intention was to force an action on the German fleet and destroy it; the intention of the German fleet was to avoid an action altogether until certain of success. The forces engaged were (*a*) British—37 capital ships, 34 cruisers, and 80 destroyers; (*b*) German—27 capital ships, 11 cruisers, and 63 destroyers. Of these the British lost 14 vessels and 6,274 men, and the Germans 11 vessels and 2,545 men. Scheer's plan was to entice the British fleet into open sea by means of Von Hipper's scouting forces, and to dispatch it by a submarine attack. On news of this reaching the British Naval Intelligence Department on May 30, the Grand Fleet was ordered to sea. The battle began with a cruiser action between Von Hipper and the Rosyth force under Beatty. Seeing that Beatty's intention was to cut off his retreat, Hipper steamed south-eastwards to lure the British on towards the High Seas Fleet, which was at last sighted at 4.43 p.m. Beatty hereupon warned Jellicoe by wireless, and turned northwards to entice the German Fleet towards the British Grand Fleet. The fleets met and the main action began at 5.40 p.m. The British, deploying in the form of a letter L, threatened to envelop the whole of the High Seas Fleet in a trap from which it could not escape. Scheer therefore contrived to retreat under cover of a smoke screen (6.35 p.m.). Jellicoe had turned south-east to cut him off from the German coast, when he suddenly reappeared out of the mist and ran full into the Grand Fleet once more, having miscalculated his distance. He had hoped to pass astern of the British and make off eastwards. Thus the main fleets engaged a second time, until Scheer repeated his tactics and retired behind a smoke screen and a terrific destroyer attack (7.20 p.m.). By now darkness was gathering fast, as he headed north for the Horn Reefs, one of his three possible lines of retreat. The rest of the battle consisted in sudden encounters whenever rival vessels sighted one another. Jellicoe, misled by the conflicting information telegraphed by the admiralty as to Scheer's direction (picked up from Scheer's own wireless orders) and by Commodore Goodenough, who was actually engaging the enemy elsewhere, did not concentrate his forces towards the Horn Reefs, nor indeed turn north until 2.39 a.m., shortly before dawn. The German Fleet escaped back to port, where, save for one excursion in August 1916, it remained until its surrender at the close of the War.

C. Bellairs, "The Battle of Jutland," 1920; J. S. Corbett, "The Great War (Naval Operations)," 1921; "Dispatches of Jellicoe and Beatty," ed. C. S. Terry, 1916.

Juxon, William (1582–1663), Archbishop of Canterbury, was born at Chichester and educated at Merchant Taylors' School and St. John's College, Oxford. He succeeded Laud, in 1621, as master of St. John's. In 1632 he became also, by Laud's recommendation, clerk of the king's closet, and, in the following year, dean of the Chapel Royal, Bishop of Hereford, and, by his translation before being consecrated to that see, Bishop of London. By the same influence he was appointed in 1635 lord high treasurer, which office he held till 1641. When the king sought advice from several of the bishops whether to consent to the bill for

Strafford's attainder or not, Juxon honestly advised him that he ought not to consent if he were not personally satisfied of Strafford's guilt. Again, in 1648, he advised the king on the questions of conscience which arose with reference to the Treaty of Newport (q.v.) and in the following January attended him during his trial. During the Commonwealth the bishop lived in retirement in Gloucestershire, occupied in study and hunting. At the Restoration his attendance on the king's last moments marked him out for promotion to the archbishopric of Canterbury (September 1660). But his age and his health prevented him from taking an important part either in the Savoy Conference or in the memorable meeting of convocation which followed.

Memoir by W. H. Marsh, 1869.

K

Kabul. [Afghan Wars.]

Kafir Wars, The, were spasmodic attempts on the part of the Colonial government to adjust the north-eastern boundaries of Cape Colony against the inevitable encroachment of the Kafirs caused by the movement of the Bantu races southwards and the British expansion northwards. The only natural boundaries were rivers which, in South Africa, were not sufficient to prevent actual friction. The border Kafirs had to be absorbed within either the British or the native frontiers. The first of the five Kafir Wars broke out in 1811 and ended with 20,000 Kosas being expelled beyond the Great Fish River. After the war of 1818–19 this boundary was extended to the Keiskamma River, but without hope of a permanent settlement owing to the loose political bonds of allegiance held by Gaika, with whom the agreement had been made. In 1834 Makoma and Tyali organized a surprise raid which Sir Harry Smith repulsed. Kafraria was invaded in its turn and Durban annexed right up to the Kei River, transplanting 17,000 Fingoes to the land between the Fish and the Keiskamma Rivers. European officers were to act as native advisers, and missionary enterprise was encouraged. In 1835, however, Glenelg reversed his predecessor's policy and retired to the Keiskamma, while the territory between that and the Fish River were reserves for Kafirs, and separate treaties were made with the chiefs. In 1846 Kreli's invasion was repelled and Sir H. Smith annexed Kafraria right up to the Keiskamma River, while the land between that and the Kei River was made into a separate Crown Colony known as British Kafraria. From 1850 to 1853 war was waged against Sandilli and Kreli, and Cathcart initiated a Roman frontier policy of making the frontier natives settlers. In 1854 Grey attempted to make the chiefs responsible for internal order by making them justices of the peace. In 1857 the natives were roused by a seer who promised victory, and the Galekas virtually committed suicide by destroying their own corn and cattle. Peace, however, was preserved and their self-depopulation relieved the pressure in British Kafraria, which was annexed to the Cape in 1865. In 1878 Sir Bartle Frere (q.v.) annexed the territory of Kreli, who had risen unsuccessfully.

[H. R.]

Kaiser Wilhelmland was the original name of what is now the mandated territory of New Guinea (q.v.), administered by the Commonwealth of Australia.

Kalat (1), in the Ghilzai country of Afghanistan, was taken possession of by Shere Ali in 1865. In 1878 it was captured, during the second Afghan War, by Sir Donald Stewart. It was evacuated, and restored to Abdur Rahman, the Amir of Afghanistan, in 1880. (2) Capital of Baluchistan; its khan has been subordinate to England since 1854.

G. P. Tate, "Kalat," 1896.

Kalpy, The Siege of (1858), occurred during the Indian Mutiny. On May 19, 1858, Sir Hugh Rose laid siege to the town from the north. On the 20th the rebel army made a spirited sally, but was driven back; and again on the 22nd. On the morning of the 23rd Sir Hugh Rose's troops advanced to assault the town in two columns. But they encountered no resistance, for the enemy had fled, and the whole rebel arsenal, including 50 guns, fell into the hands of the British.

Sir G. W. Forrest, "Indian Mutiny."

Kalunga, The Siege of (October 1814). On the outbreak of the Gurkha War in 1814, General Gillespie advanced into the Dhoon valley, and coming upon the fortified position of Kalunga, summoned the Gurkha chief, Bulbuddur Singh, to surrender, and stormed the fort on his refusal. His men were staggered by a murderous fire, and Gillespie shot through the heart. A retreat was immediately sounded; but not before twenty officers and 240 men were killed and wounded. A month was lost in waiting for heavy ordnance from Delhi. On November 27 the breach was reported practicable, and a second unsuccessful assault was made. But after three days' incessant shelling, the Gurkhas sallied forth and escaped. [Gurkha War.]

Kandy Wars, The. Whilst Ceylon was under the rule of the Portuguese and Dutch the Kandyan territories in the interior of the island had remained unconquered, although a kind of desultory warfare between the natives and the Europeans was kept up. In 1799 and 1800 Frederick North (later 5th Earl of Guilford), the governor of Ceylon, endeavoured to induce the King of Kandy to put himself under British protection. These negotiations, however, failed, and in 1803 North, having received an accession of power by the separation of the

government of Ceylon from that of Madras, at once invaded the Kandyan territories at the head of a force of 3,000 men. The British authority was formally established in 1815.

Kars, The Siege of (1855). At the outbreak of the Crimean War, Colonel Fenwick Williams was sent to Asiatic Turkey to organize the Turkish army against the Russian invaders. On the approach of the Russians under Mouraviev, he hastened to Kars, which he provisioned for four months, and prepared to defend to the last. Mouraviev arrived before Kars in August, with an army of 50,000 men, a portion of which was detached to watch Erzerum. In order to get rid of as many useless mouths as possible, Williams directed the Turkish cavalry to cut their way through the Russian army, a feat which they performed, though with some loss. On the morning of September 29 the Russians made a grand attack, but were met with such a stubborn resistance that they were forced to retire, with a loss of 5,000 men. Williams did his best while provisions lasted, but there was no possible hope of relief or assistance, and on November 24 he sent Captain Teesdale with a flag of truce to Mouraviev. The Russians displayed great generosity, and granted terms which could be accepted without loss of honour (November 28).

A. W. Kinglake, "Invasion of the Crimea," 1863–87.

Katharine of Aragon, Queen, first wife of Henry VIII (1485–1536), was the youngest of the four daughters of Ferdinand, King of Aragon, and Isabella, Queen of Castile. The foreign policy of Henry VII was based on a renewal and development of the traditional mediæval alliance between England and the Spanish kingdoms. Hence, as early as 1488 a treaty was made between the two monarchs to cement their friendship by intermarriage. In 1498 Arthur, the eldest son of Henry VII, was contracted to Katharine by proxy, and in 1501, when Arthur was fifteen years old, Katharine was sent to England. The marriage was then celebrated in St. Paul's Cathedral; but five months afterwards Arthur died. It was agreed that Katharine should be married to Henry, Arthur's younger brother. A papal dispensation was obtained to legalize such a marriage, and a contract of marriage was made. When Henry VIII ascended the throne in 1509 his first act was to marry Katharine. He was then eighteen years old, and she was twenty-four. Katharine was not handsome, but she was lively, of an amiable disposition, well-informed, and devoted to her husband. Her married life was at first happy. But of her several children all died in infancy except Mary. She ceased to bear children, and showed the effects of advancing years much more than did Henry VIII. She had lost Henry's affections, but still retained his esteem, when Anne Boleyn appeared upon the scene. With the growth of the king's attachment to Anne scruples about the validity of his marriage with Katharine arose in his mind. In 1527 these scruples went so far that he consulted with Cardinal Wolsey how to obtain a divorce. Throughout the complicated negotiations for that purpose Katharine, alone and friendless as she was, preserved a firm and dignified attitude. She was submissive to Henry's will on all small points, but refused to make any admissions which might facilitate a divorce. She stood upon the justice of her cause, and, though Wolsey and the papal nuncio, Campeggio, plied her in every way, she remained firm. On June 18, 1529, she and the king appeared before the legate at Windsor. Katharine refused to admit the jurisdiction of the court, saying she had appealed to Rome. The pope, Clement VII, being in the power of the Emperor Charles V, who was Katharine's nephew, was driven to receive the appeal and advoke the case to Rome. Wolsey had failed, and his disgrace followed. Still Henry patiently pursued his object of obtaining a divorce from Rome; as this became more improbable, he attempted to intimidate the pope. In 1531 Katharine was ordered to leave Windsor; she retired to Ampthill, and was no longer treated as queen. She still remained firm in her position that she was the king's wife by lawful marriage, and "would so abide till the court of Rome shall have made thereof an end." But Henry VIII made an end his own way. On March 30, 1533, Cranmer was made Archbishop of Canterbury. He cited Katharine to appear before him at Dunstable. Katharine paid no heed to his citation, and was pronounced contumacious. On May 23 Cranmer gave his decision that the marriage was null and void from the beginning, as contracted in defiance of the divine prohibition. From this time Katharine was styled in England the Dowager Princess of Wales. At Easter, 1534, Pope Clement VII pronounced Henry's marriage with Katharine to be lawful, and ordered the king to take back his legitimate wife. Henry VIII replied by an act of parliament declaring the marriage unlawful, and making it treason to question the lawfulness of his marriage with Anne Boleyn. Katharine lived in retirement in one of the royal manors. Henry VIII did not cease to endeavour to procure from her submission to his will, but she constantly asserted the lawfulness of her marriage. She died at Kimbolton in January 1536, and on her death-bed wrote Henry a letter assuring him of her forgiveness, and commending to his care their daughter Mary. By Henry's orders she was buried with becoming pomp in the abbey church of Peterborough, which was soon after erected into a cathedral.

The "State Papers" of Henry VIII's reign; J. S. Brewer, "The Reign of Henry VIII," 1884; W. H. Dixon, "History of Two Queens"; A. Du Boys, "Catherine of Aragon," 1881; A. F. Pollard, "Henry VIII," 1902. [M. C.]

Keane, John, 1st Lord (1781–1844), entered the army in 1793, and served in Egypt, the Mediterranean, and Martinique, down to

the year 1809. Having reached the rank of lieutenant-colonel, he commanded a brigade in the third division from 1813 until the end of the Peninsular War. In 1814 he was made major-general, and served through the American War. He passed eight years in Jamaica as commander-in-chief, from 1823 to 1830, and for a year and a half of the time he administered the civil government also. In 1833 he went to India as commander-in-chief at Bombay. Five years later (1838), he received orders from the government of India to organize and lead a force intended to co-operate with the Sind army, on the north-west frontier, at the outbreak of the Afghan War; and in December he assumed the command of the combined forces. The British troops entered Ghazni and restored Shah Shuja to the throne of Afghanistan, while Dost Mohammed fled across the Oxus. For his services in this expedition Keane was raised to the peerage (1839).

Kells, The Council of, was held in 1152 by Eugenius III's legate, Cardinal Paparo, who brought with him the *pallia* for the archbishops of Armagh, Cashel, Dublin, and Tuam. The influence of St. Malachy was prominent at this synod, and, anticipating the action of the synod at Cashel, it condemned the marriage of the clergy, and perhaps even imposed tithes. It marked a stage in the triumph in Ireland of the Hildebrandine and Cluniac reform movement.

Kemp, John (1380 ?–1454), Archbishop of Canterbury, was descended from a good Kentish family, and, after holding various minor preferments, was in 1419 appointed Bishop of Rochester, from which see he was soon translated first to Chichester, and then, after a few months, to London (1421). He was one of the council of regency during Henry VI's minority, and in 1426 was made chancellor, and in the same year raised to the archbishopric of York. He was a supporter of Cardinal Beaufort against Gloucester, and in 1432 had to resign the great seal. After this he seems for some years to have taken no very prominent part in English politics, although he retained his place on the council and was much occupied with diplomatic business; but in 1450 he was again appointed chancellor, and continued to hold the seal till his death. Two years later he was raised to the archbishopric of Canterbury, and in the same year was made cardinal-bishop, having already been created cardinal-priest in 1439. He displayed great firmness and prudence in dealing with Jack Cade and his followers, and by his wisdom and moderation kept the rivalry between the Dukes of York and Somerset within bounds during his lifetime.

Ken, Thomas (1637–1711), Bishop of Bath and Wells, was born at Berkhampstead and educated at Winchester and Oxford. About the year 1679 he became chaplain to the Princess Mary, wife of William II of Orange, and afterwards to Lord Dartmouth, at Tangier. Later he was appointed chaplain to Charles II, whom he attended on his death-bed, and who seems to have admired the spirit of a man who dared to refuse Eleanor Gwyn permission to lodge in his prebend's house at Winchester. He was appointed Bishop of Bath and Wells in 1685. After the western rebellion he visited Monmouth in prison, and was the protector of the unhappy victims of that commotion. Ken was one of the "Seven Bishops" tried for petitioning against the Declaration of Indulgence in 1688. Despite his conduct on this occasion he refused to take the oaths to William and Mary, and consequently lost his bishopric in 1691. Queen Anne in 1702 vainly offered to restore him. He died of paralysis in 1711.

Kendal, Ermengard Melusina von der Schulenberg, Duchess of (1667–1743). [Schulenberg.]

Kenilworth Castle, four miles from Warwick, was granted by Henry III to Simon de Montfort, and on his rebellion was retaken in 1266, after a siege of six months, at which time the famous "Dictum de Kenilworth" was drawn up under its walls. In 1327 it was the scene of the imprisonment of Edward II at the time of his deposition, and subsequently came into the hands of John of Gaunt. It was granted by Elizabeth to Robert Dudley, Earl of Leicester, who gave there a magnificent entertainment to the queen in 1575.

Kenilworth, Dictum de, The (1266), embodied the terms offered by Henry III to the remnant of the baronial party, who after the battle of Evesham shut themselves up in Kenilworth Castle, where, after a siege of several months, they capitulated (December 1266). The document, which received the approval of a parliament summoned to Northampton, declared the plenitude of the king's authority, and annulled the acts of de Montfort. It provided that the liberties of the Church and the charters should be maintained; that all persons, with the exception of the de Montforts and a few others, might compound for their offences and redeem their lands with a fine; and that all who submitted within forty days should be pardoned. At the same time all persons were forbidden to circulate vain and foolish stories of miracles regarding Simon de Montfort, or to repute him a saint and a martyr. The Dictum was accepted by the barons, except a few who held out in the Isle of Ely; and even these, when they submitted in 1267, were allowed the same terms as those who had yielded in the preceding year.

H. W. C. Davis, "England Under the Normans and Angevins."

Kennedy, James, Bishop of St. Andrews (1406 ?–65), a relative of James II of Scotland, took a leading part in Scottish politics during the minority of the king, and acted as mediator between the various noble factions. During the first part of the minority of James III,

Kennedy was the virtual governor of the kingdom, of which he proved himself an able and conscientious guardian. He was the first ecclesiastic who held high political power in Scotland, and so to some extent marks the dawn of a new era.

Kenneth I, THE HARDY (*d.* 860), was the son of Alpin, King of the Scots, whom he succeeded (probably only in Galloway) in 834. He does not seem to have obtained Dalriada proper till some years later. In 841 he expelled the Danish pirates from Pictish territory, and in 846 finally established himself on the Pictish throne, thus being the first to incorporate the two kingdoms. In 851 Kenneth built a church at Dunkeld, which he endowed richly, and to which he removed part of the relics of St. Columba. He transferred the chief seat of his government from Dalriada to Scone. He was a man of warlike character, and six times invaded Lothian, burning Dunbar and Melrose. His family consisted of two sons—Constantine and Aedh—and three daughters, married respectively to Run, King of the Britons of Strathclyde, to Olaf, King of Dublin, and to Aedh Finnliath, King of Ireland.

Kenneth II, the son of Malcolm, obtained the crown of Alban, in succession to Colin, 971. His first act was to invade Strathclyde, and to fortify the fords of the Forth against the Britons; his next to invade Northumbria, whose earl he appears to have carried off captive. The events of this reign are exceedingly obscure; it is probable, however, that Kenneth gained a great victory over the Danes at Luncarty, near Perth, and that he was slain at Fettercairn, in Kincardineshire (995), by Fenvella, daughter of the mormaer of Angus, in revenge for the murder of her son by the king. The story of the English chroniclers that King Edgar ceded Lothian to Kenneth to be held as a fief of the English crown is without adequate foundation.

Kenneth III, THE GRIM, son of Duff, succeeded Constantine IV as King of Alban, 997. In 1000 he was engaged in warfare with Ethelred of England. He was killed in battle in Strathearn, 1005 (?), perhaps by his cousin Malcolm, who succeeded him as Malcolm II.

Kent, PEERAGE OF. Bishop Odo of Bayeux is usually regarded as the 1st Earl of Kent (1067–88) and is described by Ordericus Vitalis as "palatinus Cantiæ consul"; but the precise nature of his jurisdiction is doubtful. He had no successor, for the attempt of his nephew, William of Mortain, to claim the earldom at his death was unsuccessful. It is sometimes asserted that William of Ypres received a grant of the earldom from Stephen in 1141, but the statement is without foundation. Hubert de Burgh was created Earl of Kent in 1227, but does not appear to have transmitted the title to his heir. In 1321 King Edward I granted the earldom to his younger son, Edmund of Woodstock, who, however, was attainted in 1330. In the following year the title was restored to his son Edmund, who died, as did his younger brother, childless. The earldom was then inherited by their sister Joan (the "Fair Maid of Kent"), who married Sir Thomas Holland, with whose descendants the earldom remained. His grandson, Thomas, was created Duke of Surrey (1397). In spite of the latter's execution as a traitor in 1400, his son Edmund received his lands, and sat in parliament as Earl of Kent. On his death without issue (1408) the title became extinct. It seems to have been revived in favour of William Neville, Lord Fauconberg, about 1461; but he also died childless, and the earldom was granted in 1465 to Edmund Grey, 4th Baron de Ruthin, in whose family it remained until 1740. Henry, the 12th and last earl of this creation, was raised to a marquisate of the same style in 1706 and to a dukedom in 1710. The title of Duke of Kent was revived for Edward, fourth son of George III (and father of Queen Victoria), who died without male issue in 1820.

Kent, KINGDOM OF, took its name from the Celtic tribe of the Cantii—whom Cæsar found inhabiting this part of our island. Tradition has recorded that in the year 449 "Hengest and Horsa, invited by Vortigern, King of the Britons, sought Britain." After the battle of Crayford, in 457, we read that "the Britons then forsook Kent, and fled in terror to London." Kent was, then, the first Teutonic kingdom to be established in England, and it appears to have been settled wholly or mainly by the Jutes, who also gained possession of the Isle of Wight. It has been suggested that there were two Jutish kingdoms founded in Kent, the memory of which was in later times preserved by the division of the realm into two sees, with Canterbury and Rochester respectively as seats for the "bishop's stool." For some hundred and fifty years we hear little or nothing of the kingdom of Kent, till towards the close of the sixth century, when Augustine on landing in this island found Ethelbert King of Kent. Ethelbert, who appears to have ascended the throne at an early age, had in the course of a long reign largely extended the bounds of his kingdom. He pushed his way up the Thames valley, till in 568 he was defeated at Wibbandun (? Wimbledon) by the West Saxon king. But despite this disaster Ethelbert's reign was one of great success for the Kentish kingdom. Some ten years before the end of the century his authority was more or less paramount as far north as the Humber, and the kings of Essex, East Anglia, and Mercia were dependent upon him. His fame had even extended as far as the continent; and his wife was Bertha, the daughter of the Frankish king, Charibert. The supremacy of Kent at the time of the first conversion may

be considered as the main cause of the metropolitan see's being fixed at Canterbury. On Ethelbert's death in 616, his son Eadbald seems to have relapsed temporarily into paganism; and on the rise of the Northumbrian power we read that Edwin was overlord of every English kingdom except Kent, and Kent, too, was closely knit to Northumbria by the marriage of Eadbald's daughter Ethelburga to Edwin. It was this marriage that led to the first conversion of Northumbria and the mission of Paulinus to the north of England. But by this time the days of Kentish supremacy were over; and the chief interest in the later history of this kingdom is the fact that its sovereigns were the first to issue a code of laws, or to reduce their laws to writing. The codes of Ethelbert, of Lothaire and Eadric (673–86), and of Wihtraed (694–725) are still extant. Despite the importance attaching to Kent as the seat of the archbishopric, it seems henceforward to have held its own among the rival kingdoms with difficulty. We read how in 686 it was ravaged by Ceadwalla of Wessex, and how next year its folk burnt Ceadwalla's brother Mull—an offence which led to a second invasion by the West Saxon king. Ine, King of Wessex, exacted blood-money to the extent of 3,750 pounds of gold for the slaughter of Mull. In the meantime Kent had relapsed into anarchy, and it was not until 694 that order was restored under Wihtraed. As the power of Mercia increased it is probable that the country came more and more under the influence of the kings of that province (more especially when the royal Kentish house died out), and later under that of Wessex. As an example of the way in which Kent swayed backwards and forwards between Wessex and Mercia we may take the last few years of its separate existence. Offa of Mercia reduced Kent to subjection in 774 as a result of the battle of Otford. In 784 Ealhmund, the father of Ecgbert, and a descendant of Cerdic the West Saxon, is found reigning over this kingdom in association with Alric, and it seems probable that Ecgbert himself ruled as sub-king for a short time prior to his expulsion from England by Offa in 796. Their rule does not, however, seem to imply the substitution of a West Saxon for the Mercian overlordship. In 796 Edbert Præn raised a revolt against the Mercian authority, but two years later he was defeated and captured by Coenwulf of Mercia, who made his brother Cuthred king. On Cuthred's death, a certain Baldred succeeded him, and it was he who in 825 was driven out by Ecgbert, now established as King of Wessex. Henceforward the overlordship of Kent belonged to Wessex and not to Mercia. But even now Kent was hardly an integral part of the West Saxon realm. Ecgbert made it into a separate kingdom, subject to his suzerainty, for his eldest son Ethelwulf; and when Ethelwulf succeeded to his father's throne Kent was given, with Sussex, Surrey, and Essex, to his brother Athelstan. In 858, on Ethelwulf's death, Ethelbert became king of the Kentish people in subjection to his brother Athelstan; but there does not seem to be any reason for supposing that Kent continued separate from the rest of the kingdom after the accession of Ethelbert to the throne of Wessex in 860. Under Edward the Confessor Kent formed part of Godwin's earldom of Wessex; but its distinct character as compared with the rest of southern England may be traced in its being towards the latter part of the same reign separated from that province, and given, together with Essex, into the hands of Godwin's son Leofwine. After the Conquest it was made into an earldom with palatinate status for the Conqueror's half-brother Odo, Bishop of Bayeux, but this phase in its history was of short duration. Odo was exiled in 1088 for his share in the rising against William II, and he had no successor. [Gavelkind.]

KINGS OF KENT

[Hengest]	
[Aesc]	
[Octa]	
[Eormenric]	
Ethelbert I	560–616
Eadbald	616–640
Erconbert	640–664
Ecgbert	664–673
Lothaire	673–685
Eadric	685–686
(Anarchy)	686–690
Wihtraed	694–725
Edbert	725–748
Ethelbert II	748–762
(Kent was divided among several vassal kings)	762–796
Eadberht Præn	796–798
Cuthred	798–805
Baldred	805–825
Ethelwulf of Wessex	825–839
Athelstan	839–850 ?
Ethelwulf	856–858
Ethelbert	858–860

For bibliography see under Jutes.

Kent, Edmund Grey, Earl of. (*d.* 1489) [Grey.]

Kentigern, St., or St. Mungo (*d.* 603), was a contemporary of St. Columba, and the apostle of Strathclyde. He is said to have founded the see of Glasgow, where he seems to have long lived in quiet, till the disorders of the age drove him from that district into Wales. There he founded a monastery and bishopric in the vale of Clwyd, which received its name from his disciple Asaph. When Rydderch Hael established his rule in Strathclyde, and, after the battle of Ardderyd (573), Christianity could once more revive in those parts, Kentigern was recalled to his old diocese, with Hoddam, in Dumfriesshire, for his headquarters, till he once more removed to Glasgow. Thence he seems to have proceeded on his missionary labours to Galloway and the more northern parts of Scotland. An old legend tells how St. Kentigern and St. Columba met before their death, and passed several days together in spiritual conversation.

Kentish Petition, The (May 8, 1701), was an expression of public opinion against

the peace policy shown by the Tories in their delay in voting supplies and in seconding the measures taken by William III for the security of Europe against the ambitious schemes of Louis XIV. It was drawn up by William Colepeper (*d.* 1726), chairman of the quarter sessions at Maidstone, and signed by the deputy lieutenants, about twenty justices of the peace, and a large number of freeholders. It deprecated "the least distrust of his most sacred majesty" on the part of the Commons, and implored the House "that its royal addresses might be turned into Bills of Supply." It was sent up to London in the hands of William Colepeper, and with him went four gentlemen of the county to present it. The House of Commons was indignant at the idea of one county setting itself in opposition to the united wisdom of the country, and perhaps still more so at the indirect way in which it was first brought under its notice. The petitioners could only get their document presented at all on condition that they would avow their deed. Seymour and Howe violently denounced them. The petition was voted "scandalous, insolent, seditious"; and the five gentlemen were removed in the custody of the serjeant-at-arms. But public opinion was unanimous in their favour, being chiefly influenced by the "Legion Memorial" (q.v.), drawn up by Daniel Defoe, and at the close of the session the petitioners were set free.

Burnet, "History of His Own Time," ed. O. Airy, 2 vols., 1897–1900.

Kenya. [East Africa, British Dominions in.]

Kenyon, Lloyd, 1st Lord (1732–1802), was called to the bar in 1756. In 1781 he made a great reputation by his skill in conducting the defence of Lord George Gordon. [Gordon Riots.] Next year he was made attorney-general, and in 1784 became master of the rolls. In 1788 he succeeded Lord Mansfield as chief justice of the King's Bench.

Keppel, Arnold Joost Van, 1st Earl of Albemarle (1669–1718), accompanied William of Orange to England. He was the confidential friend of the king, and acted as his chamberlain. He was raised to the peerage in 1696. After the death of William, Albemarle was chosen by the States-General to command their cavalry, and fought in the War of the Spanish Succession. He was taken prisoner at Denain in 1712.

Keppel, Augustus, Viscount (1725–86), entered the navy under Lord Anson. In 1749 he was sent to the Mediterranean, and two years later displayed some judgment in negotiations with the Court of Algiers. On the outbreak of the French war in 1757 Keppel served with distinction under Hawke, and next year captured Goree in difficult circumstances. In 1759 he took part in the fight in Quiberon Bay, and in 1761 and 1762 he conducted the naval part of the operations in the capture of Belle Isle and commanded at Havannah. In 1765 he became a lord of the admiralty under Rockingham. For some years he remained in England unemployed, and in 1778 was appointed to the command of the Grand Fleet. On July 23, after being reinforced, Keppel encountered the French fleet off Ushant. He failed to bring them to a decisive action, and tamely allowed them to escape in the night (July 27). Thereupon ensued a series of mutual recriminations between Keppel and Sir Hugh Palliser, his second in command. A court-martial ensued, which, after sitting for a month, declared the charges against Keppel to be unfounded. Keppel's case became a party question, and the Whigs made it a vital point to gain an acquittal. He had the good fortune to have the popular voice on his side, as well as the advocacy of Erskine, and he escaped amid the loud acclamations of the nation generally, and of the Whigs in particular. In March 1782 he was appointed first lord of the admiralty, and raised to the peerage in April; he resigned from the admiralty on the formation of the coalition ministry, only to resume the post, however, in four months under the same government. On Pitt's accession to office he again resigned, and took no further part in politics till his death in 1786. As a naval commander Keppel showed no talent, nor even the most commonplace enterprise, and owes his position in history entirely to his own blunders and the accident of his family connexion with the Whigs.

Keppel, George, 3rd Earl of Albemarle (1724–72), the son of William Anne, 2nd earl, served, as aide-de-camp to the Duke of Cumberland, at Fontenoy and Culloden. In 1746 he was elected member for Chichester, which place he continued to represent till 1754, when he succeeded to the earldom. In 1761 he was appointed governor of Jersey. In March 1762 he embarked as commander-in-chief of the land forces destined for the reduction of Havannah, and captured Fort Moro after a stubborn resistance. Still the Spaniards declined to surrender; but after enduring a cannonade for six hours Havannah capitulated with eleven men-of-war and one million and a half of money, and about the same amount in merchandise. In parliament the earl took an active part in most of the Whig measures of his time, especially making himself conspicuous by his opposition to the Royal Marriage Act, and by joining with forty-seven other peers, in 1770, in a solemn pledge against any further infringement of the rights of the people at elections.

"Grenville Papers," iii.

Ker, Sir Thomas, of Ferniehurst (*d.* 1586), was the son-in-law of Kirkcaldy of Grange, who made him provost of Edinburgh, in Queen Mary's interest, 1571. On the capture of Edinburgh he took refuge in England from

the resentment of Morton. He was a bold soldier, and as warden of the Scottish Marches became embroiled with the English (1585) in a disturbance in which it was said that Arran was implicated. A demand from the English court for his surrender and trial was rendered futile by his death.

P. Hume Brown, "History of Scotland," 1911.

Kermadec Islands. [New Zealand, Dominion of.]

Kern (Ceithearn) is the name given all through the Middle Ages to the light-armed Irish foot-soldiers. It is used in a collective sense as well as of individuals. In the practice of billeting kern and exacting prices for their maintenance, we may probably discern the germ of the customs of Coyne and Livery (q.v.), against which so much legislation was directed.

Ket, Robert (*d.* 1549), a tanner of Wymondham, Norfolk, was a leader in the Norfolk agrarian insurrection of 1549. Having collected 16,000 men he encamped on Mousehold Heath, near Norwich, and assumed the title of King of Norfolk and Suffolk, holding a daily court, and trying all captured landlords. On August 1 Ket took Norwich, and subsequently drove out the Marquis of Northampton. But the Earl of Warwick cut off his provisions and forced him to a battle, in which he was defeated and taken prisoner, being soon afterwards hanged in chains at Norwich Castle (December 7, 1549).

Russell, "Kett's Rebellion in Norfolk," gives original documents; J. Clayton, "Ket and the Norfolk Rising," 1913.

Khonds, The, are inhabitants of the part of Orissa lying south of the Mahanuddy. They are a very primitive community, retaining their old patriarchal government, habits, and superstitions. Among other customs they were long addicted to the sacrifice of human beings to the earth goddess, for the purpose of increasing the fertility of their fields, by hacking the living victim to pieces and burying them in the respective plots of ground. The exertions of Major Macpherson, Sir John Grant, and Colonel Campbell were successful in destroying this custom by disproving its efficiency (1837–49).

Kidd, Captain William (*d.* 1701), was a noted pirate living in retirement in New York, when in 1695 he was selected by the Earl of Bellamont, governor of New York and Massachusetts, to suppress piracy on the American coast and elsewhere. As the admiralty objected to fit out a man-of-war for this purpose, a ship called the *Adventure* was equipped, chiefly by the subscriptions of the Whig ministers. Kidd was put in command, and took with him a commission under the great seal, empowering him to seize pirates. The king's right to the goods found in possession of these malefactors was granted by letters patent to the supporters of the expedition, his majesty reserving only one-tenth of the spoil to himself. In May 1696 Kidd sailed from the Hudson, and finding that plundering merchant vessels was more profitable than attacking gangs of desperate men, he soon "threw off the character of a privateer and became a pirate." It was in 1697 that this was made known in London, and Kidd was arrested at New York, to which town he had returned. He was taken to England, and there hanged with three of his companions (May 23, 1701).

C. Johnson, "General History of the Pirates," 1927.

Kildare, Earls of. This family traced its descent through Maurice Fitzgerald to William Fitz Other, the castellan of Windsor. Maurice's second son, Gerald, secured the barony of Offaley in right of his wife, Eva de Bermingham. John, the 5th Lord Offaley, challenged to single combat William de Vescy—till then Lord of Kildare—by whom he had been accused of treason. De Vescy, being defeated, fled the country and his lands were bestowed upon his rival, who was in 1316 created Earl of Kildare. The 4th earl, Maurice, was justiciar of Ireland, and died in 1390. Thomas, the 7th earl, was lord deputy till his death in 1477, and from this time the Earls of Kildare became the most powerful nobles in all Ireland, opposed, but as a rule unsuccessfully, by the Butlers. [For the further fortunes of this family see separate articles, and the Fitzgeralds.] The ducal family of Leinster at present represents this ancient house.

Kilkenny, The Convention at (1341). Alarmed at the attitude of the Anglo-Irish lords, Edward III in 1341 sent instructions to his justiciar, Sir John D'Arcy, bidding him exclude those who were possessed of great Irish estates from the high offices of state, and replace them by Englishmen whose estates lay at home. For the purpose of carrying out this measure, the deputy, Sir John Morice, called a parliament to Dublin, in October, which the Earl of Desmond and the other members of the Irish party refused to attend. The latter called a rival meeting of those who sympathized with him; and this convention, meeting at Kilkenny in November 1341, addressed a petition to Edward III pointing out that English misgovernment had led to the loss of nearly all Leinster, appealing to Magna Carta, and stating their fears as to the threatened resumption of grants of land and liberties and as to the contemplated supplanting of the English by blood by English by birth. Edward, in need of Irish aid for the war with France, received the petition graciously, and in April 1343 revoked the offending ordinance. The petition has been called "the first Remonstrance of Anglo-Ireland against domination from England."

E. Curtis, "History of Mediæval Ireland," 1923.

Kilkenny, The Statute of (1366), was passed in a parliament held in the town of this name, when Lionel, Duke of Clarence, was king's lieutenant. This statute was intended to check the degeneration of the Anglo-Irish in the "English" or "obedient" land. Its chief provisions were—the prohibition of intermarriages between the English and the natives; of gorsipred and fostering and of the use of Brehon or March law by the English. No man of English race was henceforth to be allowed to assume an Irish name, dress, language, or customs; while no Irish were for the future to be allowed to pasture their cattle on English ground, or to be admitted to any religious house or benefice. The English were forbidden to break peace legally made between English and Irish. The breach of these provisions entailed the penalties of high treason. In addition to the above enactments, it was also provided that no Irish were to be called in as minstrels, rimers or story-tellers. Coyne and livery (q.v.) were strictly forbidden; and the practice of archery was enjoined upon the Anglo-Irish. The purpose of the statute was not to declare war on the Irish as such, but to preserve, in a limited area, the purity of the English tradition. The "English" land was considered to include the counties and liberties of Louth, Meath, Trim, Dublin, Kildare, Carlow, Kilkenny, Wexford, Waterford, and Tipperary. All Irishmen living within that area were to be forced to conform to English speech and custom. Outside they retained their freedom.

E. Curtis, "Mediæval Ireland," 1923.

Kilkenny, The Synod at, consisting of all the Irish bishops and delegates from the clergy, met in May 1642, and decided that no distinction was to be made between the old Irish and the new, or Anglo-Irish. A common oath of association was agreed on, its object being to rehabilitate Roman Catholicism in Ireland; the aid of foreign powers was to be solicited, and any repetition of the Ulster outrages, which the synod condemned, was to bring down excommunication on the authors. A central council was established, and commanders were appointed for the different provinces—Owen Roe O'Neill for Ulster; Preston for Leinster; Barry for Munster; and Colonel John Burke for Connaught. In 1643 a papal legate, Scarampi, joined them; and it was under his guidance that the council opposed the Cessation (q.v.). First Lord Mountgarret, and then Rinuccini (q.v.) occupied the place of president of the council. In 1647, after the failure of Glamorgan's treaty (q.v.), they concluded peace with Ormonde; but it was only in 1649, after Rinuccini had fled, that they were really in earnest.

Killala, French Attempt at. On August 22, 1798, General Humbert landed at Killala, in Mayo, with about 1,100 men, and was joined by some Irish insurgents. He kept excellent discipline, and prevented the Protestants (among them the Bishop of Killala) from being molested by the rebels. General Lake's troops fled before the invaders; but on the destruction of the reinforcements that were coming by sea to his help, General Humbert found himself forced to surrender to Lord Cornwallis.

P. F. Kavanagh, "The Rebellion of 1798," 1913.

Killiecrankie, The Battle of (1689), was fought in the Grampians between John Graham of Claverhouse, Viscount Dundee (q.v.), and General Mackay. The battle was one of the shortest in history, and is important in that it involved the death of Dundee though his Scots were victorious. The Jacobite cause gained nothing by the victory.

Killigrew, Sir Henry (*d.* 1603), was sent on an embassy to Mary, Queen of Scots, in 1566, and in 1569 was employed in negotiating for the opening of fresh ports on the Baltic to English commerce. Three years later he was sent by Elizabeth to try to bring about the delivery of Mary Stuart to the Scots, and her execution; and was subsequently employed in some of the queen's most confidential missions.

Killigrew, Thomas (1612–83), after having been a page in the court of Charles I, joined Charles II in his exile, and was sent on an embassy to Venice, where his profligate conduct did much harm to his master's cause. On the Restoration he was made master of the revels, a post for which he seems to have been well fitted. He had considerable influence over the king, and seems to have used it not infrequently for good. Many anecdotes are told which show him as the candid friend of the king, whom he endeavoured to divert from his insatiable pursuit of pleasure. Killigrew was the author of many plays, none of which, however, is of any striking merit.

"Killing no Murder: briefly discoursed in three questions, by William Allen," was the title of a pamphlet published in May 1657 to justify the assassination of Cromwell. It upheld the recent attempt of Sundercombe, whom it compared to Brutus. The authorship of the pamphlet is generally attributed to Edward Sexby, the Leveller, then engaged in promoting an alliance between Levellers, Royalists, and Spaniards. It was claimed, after the death of Sexby, by Silas Titus.

"Kilmainham Treaty, The," is the name given to the verbal agreement with Gladstone on which Charles Stewart Parnell (q.v.) was released in May 1882 from Kilmainham Jail, where he had been imprisoned since October 1881. The understanding on which he was released was that, in return for a bill dealing with Irish tenant farmers unable to pay their arrears of rent, he should strive to end the prevailing violence and anarchy in Ireland. Parnell himself had never encouraged violence. His "boycott" campaign was ex-

pressly devised as a more humane and more effective substitute for it.

Kilmansegge, Charlotte Sophia, Countess of Darlington (*d.* 1730), was one of the mistresses of George I. In 1721 she was created Countess of Leinster, and in the following year Countess of Darlington. We find her, with her sister-in-law, Madame de Platen (in opposition to the rival mistress, the Duchess of Kendal), supporting Carteret in his struggle for power with Townshend and Walpole. "She was," said Lord Stanhope, "younger and more handsome than her rival; but, like her, unwieldy in person and rapacious in character. From her great size she was called 'the Elephant.'"

Kilmarnock, William Boyd, 4th Earl of (1704–46). [Boyd.]

Kilsyth, The Battle of (August 15, 1645), fought during the Civil War, resulted in a victory for Montrose and the Cavaliers over the Covenanters, who were commanded by William Baillie. Kilsyth is midway between Stirling and Glasgow.

Kilwardby, Robert, Archbishop of Canterbury (*d.* 1279), was provincial of the Dominicans in England (1261). On the death of Boniface of Savoy, in 1270, a dispute as to his successor took place between the king and the monks of Canterbury, which resulted in an appeal to the pope, who nominated Kilwardby to the vacant see (1272). He proved himself worthy of the office, and adopted a conciliatory policy, at the same time introducing many valuable reforms. Archbishop Kilwardby crowned Edward I and his wife, Eleanor of Castile, in 1274. He was also present at the great council of Lyons, where the deputies of the Eastern emperor, Michael Palæologus, expressed their desire for a union of the Eastern and Western Churches. The same year he seems to have attempted to instil something of his own spirit into the course of study at Oxford. He was a great patron of learning, and a prolific author. In 1278 he was made a cardinal, whereupon he vacated his archbishopric and retired to Rome, where he died.

B. Jarrett, "The English Dominicans," 1921.

Kilwarden, Arthur Wolfe, 1st Viscount (1739–1803). [Wolfe.]

Kimberley, John Wodehouse, 1st Earl of (1826–1902). [Wodehouse.]

King. The early Germans described by Tacitus were more frequently ruled over by elective *principes* in peace, or temporary *duces* in war, than by kings; but there is clear evidence that kingship was a familiar institution among the peoples who invaded Britain in the fifth century A.D. One result of the migration into Britain was, perhaps, to make monarchy for the first time universal among the old English. The earliest kings were probably only chief magistrates, or permanent *duces*; but by degrees a halo of sanctity surrounded the royal house. Descent from Woden marked it out for special reverence; and though the royal dignity remained strictly elective, it was very exceptional for the choice of the witan to fall on any but a member of the traditional royal race. As the representative and personification of the unity of the state, as the chief magistrate in peace, as the leader of the host in war, the king acquired a position which ability and energy could always make imposing, despite the constitutional check of the wise men and the difficulties inherent in the exercise of power in a primitive and disorderly state of society. The consolidation of the smaller states into greater ones was invariably attended by a great increase in the royal power. "As the kingdom increased in extension," says Stubbs, "the royal power increased in intension." The conception of the sphere and functions of kingship was enlarged. The development of the *comitatus* gave the monarch a faithful band of followers, who became the nucleus of a new nobility. The blessing of the Church gave the Christian prince new attributes of dignity and sanctity. The traditions of Imperial Rome transferred to the overlord of all Britain the prestige of the emperor within the island which was his empire. Thus throughout the Anglo-Saxon period the theory of kingship was constantly developing; but its old basis remained the same. Edgar was as much the king of the race, the personal monarch of a free people, as the smallest "heptarchic" sovereign. But the growth of a feudalism of native origin side by side as yet with the old Teutonic polity gradually modified both the theory and practice of kingship. In the earliest tables of wergilds the value of the king's life differs only in degree from the value of the life of a subject. But in the days of Alfred a rudimentary conception of treason had come into existence. The king became lord of the people, and was gradually becoming lord of the soil as well. Though still national monarch of the race, his position had become in part at least affected by the territorializing influences that attended the development of the Anglo-Saxon constitution. But what the king gained on the one hand he lost on the other. Whatever fresh prerogatives were in theory assigned to him, he was compelled to delegate them to feudal vassals, who, if nominally holding their powers from the Crown, were, for all real purposes, more independent of him than the national ministers of the earlier stages of kingship. The absence of any developed official organization—the merely personal character of old English kingship—makes the transition from an Edgar to an Ethelred explicable. Even a Harold could hardly have held his own against the feudalizing tendencies of the time. In fact, the election of the greatest of the earls to the seat of the house of Cerdic was as great a triumph of the feudal principle as the election of the leader of the

national party was a triumph of the national policy.

The Norman Conquest had remarkable effects upon the development of English kingship. Though necessarily introducing a large feudal element into the constitution, William I did his best to counteract the disruptive tendencies of the feudal party by emphasizing as strongly as he could the continuity of the Old English kingship, and by assigning to it fresh prerogatives such as were claimed by continental sovereigns. He still professed to be the national king of the people as well as the feudal lord of the land. He did his best to use fully the powers which theoretically belonged even to the feudal king, however little practically they were in most countries exercised. As the custodian of law and order, as the protector of the people against the anarchy and disruption of the feudal party, the Norman king was in a real sense the leader of his people. Thus the general effect of the Conquest on kingship was a great development of the royal power on the old lines. The constitutional checks were removed. The elective element became merely nominal. The establishment of a strong bureaucratic system, and an elaborate mechanism of organization and administration, carried the royal power to the highest point ever known in England. Henry II completed what Henry I had begun. The feudal reaction suppressed, the way was clear for the consolidation of a great despotism. It is hard to realize that the monarchy of the Angevins was a gradual evolution from the monarchy of the old West Saxon kings. But though the struggle with the Church had led to the growth of the opposition theory of the divine origin of kingship, and the results of the revived study of Roman Law doubtless entered into the idea of kingship as realized by Henry II, yet the inferiority of his own power in Normandy sufficiently indicates that the English monarchy had mainly developed from internal causes. Feudal Gaul had not much to teach the country of Edgar and Dunstan. The analogy of the Carolings was too remote to give more than the impulse to the growth of Henry II's despotism. But the very administrative system which gave permanence to the power of the Angevin monarchy, even when the carelessness of a Richard or the tyranny of a John had done its best to degrade the lustre of the crown, contained in itself the elements of the constitution which was to set limits to the prerogatives of future monarchs. The pure despotism of the Conqueror and his sons became a despotism tempered by precedent when the administrative system had worked long enough to establish a bureaucratic circle of administrative families and a well-defined administrative tradition. A baronage which, in ceasing to be feudal, had become national, led the people to a struggle which in less than two generations from Magna Carta had established the mediæval constitution of England.

The reign of Henry III marks the transition, that of Edward I the completion of the new theory of English kingship. The legislative and taxative powers were now reposed in the hands of the national representatives, whose power of presenting grievances was an indication of that national feeling in accordance with which a wise king would govern. Practical efficacy was given to the old Teutonic maxim, *Lex fit consensu populi et constitutione regis*. But the whole executive power remained with the king. He still had in his hands the destinies of the whole state. He took the initiative in everything. He governed the country, made war or peace, was the fountain of justice and honour, appointed all ministers, negotiated all treaties, and, through his council, even exercised concurrent legislative and taxative powers with those of parliament. So long as the nation trusted him, he could do almost anything; but he was the *rex politicus*, who ruled by law, and the law, so far as not fixed by tradition, could only be altered by parliament.

During the fourteenth century, though the basis of kingship was hardly altered from the position of Edward I, there grew up, in proportion as the popular claims of a parliamentary party, conscious of its strength, were advanced, an antagonistic series of royal assumptions. "For every assertion of national right," says Stubbs, "there is a counter-assertion of royal autocracy. Royalty becomes in theory more absolute, as in practice it is limited more and more by the national will." Edward III was certainly less able to get his own way than Edward I, yet Edward III's claims to override parliament were far in excess of Edward I's. The reign of Richard II was a period of parliamentary growth; but Richard was the most strenuous asserter of the divine right and indefeasible prerogatives of monarchy of any mediæval sovereign. His great attempt at despotism speedily led, however, to a new adjustment of the position of the monarchy by the Revolution of 1399. Both the practice of the Lancastrian monarchs and the theorizing of Sir John Fortescue illustrate very strongly the highest development of mediæval constitutionalism. "The origin of politic kingship," says Fortescue, "is the will of the people. The limitations of the royal power are the glory rather than the shame of regality," as the prosperity of constitutional England and the misery of despotic France sufficiently indicate. The nomination of the council in parliament almost anticipates the modern ministry, and shows that, even within his executive functions, Henry IV was under the control of parliament. But constitutionalism was too weak a form of government for the fifteenth century. The Wars of the Roses demonstrated its futility, and the "new monarchy," which the Yorkist Edward IV began, and the Lancastrian Henry VII established, shows that a new develop-

ment of kingship could alone cope with the turbulence of an age of revolution.

It is a mistake to regard the monarchy of the Tudors as in any formal sense a break in the continuity of the English constitution. But practically it was little less. The power of nobles and clergy alike was broken, and parliament became the willing tool of the monarchy—adaptable if not subservient. The absence of a standing army shows that Henry VIII could rely on his people's support, and that the monarchy was strong because national and popular. The king was careful not to do illegal acts without sufficient reason for them. Even the *lex regia* of English history, which gave the king's proclamations the force of law, and the sanguinary attainder of fallen statesmen, show that parliament was on the king's side. The assertion of the royal supremacy over the Church was the chief new contribution of the Tudor period to the theory of the monarchy. The claim of imperial self-sufficiency for the English king was hardly new; but there was the less need to theorize when the practical power was secure. Yet now that the mediæval feudal checks were removed, the proprietary theory of sovereignty, which was a result of feudalism, and regarded the nation as the estate of the king—as much his private property as the land of his nobles—directly prepared the way for the divine-right theories of the Stuarts.

As a rule, the political writers of the sixteenth century spoke of "the regiment of England as no mere monarchy, but a rule mixed by oligarchy and democracy" (Aylmer); but Ralegh regards the English and French monarchies as similar in power, and the language of Sir Thomas Smith is much less emphatic than that of Fortescue. The troubles of an age of revolution had resulted in a theory that, in addition to the ordinary constitutional and limited prerogatives of the Crown, the supreme necessity of saving the state involved in the very conception of kingship a dictatorial and paramount sovereignty, which was generally called the king's "absolute power." This perhaps necessary conception was now combined with the high monarchical theorizings of James I, and the doctrine of the rising Arminian party that the origin of government was to be found in that patriarchal society whose monarchical constitution was the precedent for all time, that an indefeasible divine right entitled the next heir by hereditary succession to the monarchy, that all constitutional checks on the Crown are of favour and not of right, and that passive obedience was in all cases to be paid to the established monarch. This was supplemented by lawyers zealous for the dignity of the fountain of justice, and by reformers who could see in the royal prerogative the only way to progress and improvement; but the antagonistic claims of parliament soon reduced these theories into unreality. The Civil War practically decided the struggle. However Hobbes might theorize on the absolutism of the sovereign state, or Filmer on the patriarchal basis of divine rights; however parliament might record their approval of the doctrines of passive obedience and non-resistance, the government under Charles II was practically in the hands of two political parties, of which one might indeed be more personally favourable to the monarch, but the Tories' adulation of the royal power was turned into open rebellion when James II took them at their word, and lost his throne. The Revolution of 1681 was the triumph of the Whig theory of monarchy, which Locke's political treatises had developed against Filmer. The sovereign owed his position to the "original contract" between king and people. The violation of this led to an *ipso facto* abdication; for the people had transferred their power to the king under a contract, which was annulled by his failure to perform his part. But not only was the power of the sovereign thus limited in theory, not only was the ultimately elective character of the monarchy reasserted, and all the old checks recapitulated and enlarged, but the distinction between the Crown and the king, between the royal office and the royal person, which the Long Parliament had used to justify their rebellion, became now an essential part of that unwritten constitutional usage which, in practice, soon superseded the old legal and theoretical constitution of the country. The influence and power of the Crown went on increasing, while the king's real power became less and less. Nothing but the fiction of jurists regards the nominal head of the modern English state, who "reigns but does not govern," as the real wielder of the ever-increasing executive power which is carried on in his name. The cabinet (q.v.), an informal committee of parliament, and ultimately of the House of Commons, is the real king in the mediæval sense. The old distinction of the legislative and executive power upon which the old constitution rested has been broken down. Many theoretical powers of the sovereign, such as the royal veto on bills, are practically obsolete.

Indirect influence, rather than acts of authority, now makes the monarch a still important factor in English politics. George III, for a time, restored the old royal right of naming ministers, but his ultimate success rested on a harmony of royal and popular wishes which, possible under the "Venetian oligarchy" of the eighteenth century, becomes increasingly difficult when a series of Reform bills has brought into full power the English democracy, and made the "Patriot King" almost impossible. The continuity of English kingship, so long as it remained a reality, is very remarkable, despite the change of its forms and the fluctuations of its power.

A general view of the growth of kingship can be obtained from the "Constitutional Histories" of Stubbs, Hallam, and May, although these now re-

quire to be supplemented by more recent authorities. An admirable survey of the development of the theory of monarchy is afforded by J. N. Figgis's "Divine Right of Kings." The primitive kingship of Germany is to be studied in Tacitus's "Germania." Some parts of the "Dialogus de Scaccario" illustrate the Angevin monarchy, and the formal treatises of mediæval political philosophers, such as Thomas Aquinas, put mediæval monarchy on its broadest basis. Freeman's writings, while fully illustrating early English kingship, over-emphasize its continuity. Allen's "On the Prerogative" is sometimes useful. Fortescue's book, "De Laudibus Legum Angliæ," is the only full original statement of the constitutional position of the mediæval monarchy. The preambles to some of Henry VIII's reforming statutes illustrate clearly the position claimed by that monarch. Aylmer's answer to Knox's "Blast against the Regiment of Women"; Harrison, "Description of England," prefixed to Holinshed's "Chronicle"; Sir T. Smith, "On the Commonwealth"; and some of Ralegh's political writings, show the position of the monarchy under Elizabeth. James I's "True Law of Free Monarchies" gives the theoretical, Bacon's political treatises the practical basis; and Overall's "Convocation Book," and Cowell's "Interpreter," the ecclesiastical and legal justifications of the Stuart claims. Filmer's "Patriarcha" is a more elaborate statement of the divine-right position; Hobbes's "Leviathan," a strong declaration of the autocracy of the State, which, in practice, led to a despotism of the Cromwell or Richelieu type. Locke's "Treatises of Government" is the text-book of eighteenth-century Whiggism, and, in a sense, aimed against both Filmer and Hobbes. Bolingbroke's "Patriot King" marks the revival of the Tory monarchical party, which ultimately carried George III into power. Bagehot's "English Constitution" gives a good account of the position of the monarchy in the "Palmerstonian" era, and Anson's "Law of the Constitution" gives a comprehensive view of its present position. [T. F. T.]

King-maker, The. [Neville, Richard, Earl of Warwick (1428–71).]

King of the Commons, The, was the title assumed by John Litster (q.v.), the leader of the Norfolk insurgents at the time of the Peasants' Revolt (q.v.) in 1381. James V of Scotland was also called King of the Commons.

King's Bench, The Court of, was an offshoot from the Curia Regis. Its origin has been attributed by Stubbs to the arrangements made by Henry II in 1178, by which five judges in the Curia sat constantly to hear the complaints of the people; but it was not till upwards of a century after the court of Common Pleas had become a distinct court that the Court of King's Bench attained that position. Being held literally "coram rege," it followed the king in his peregrinations, hearing cases which concerned him or great persons privileged to be brought to justice only before the king himself. It was only gradually that it was separated from the person of the king, and from the royal council. Shortly before the end of the reign of Henry III the office of justiciar became extinct, and the King's Bench received a staff of judges of its own under a chief justice appointed "ad placita coram rege tenenda." There was a regular succession of chief justices of the King's Bench from the beginning of Edward I's reign. Under this king it gradually ceased to be ambulatory, and in the course of the fourteenth century its evolution was completed as a result of its emancipation from conciliar control. It had now become simply a Common Law court. We find a constant tendency in this court, as well as in the others, to enlarge its jurisdiction. Thus the King's Bench, having cognizance of all personal actions where the defendant was already under custody of the court, used a legal fiction by which persons not actually in custody of the marshal of the court were assumed to be so, in order that the lawyers in that court might have more practice. This custom, which tended to confuse the system of judicature, was frequently legislated against, but without success, until the statutes 2 Will. IV, c. 39, and 2 Vict. c. 110, established one form of process, the writ of summons, for all the courts. The justices of the King's Bench sat with the lord chancellor, the lord treasurer, and the justices of Common Pleas, in the court of Exchequer Chamber, which was created by statute 31 Edw. III, c. 12, to determine errors from the common-law side of the court of Exchequer. A second court of Exchequer, composed of the justices of Common Pleas and the barons of the court of Exchequer, was created by 27 Eliz. c. 8, to determine writs of error from the King's Bench. Both these courts were abolished, and a new "Court of Exchequer Chamber" established by 11 Geo. IV, and 1 Will. IV, c. 70. The jurisdiction of this court was, however, merged in that of the new court of Appeal by the Judicature Act of 1873, by which great act also the court of Queen's (or King's) Bench became once more a part of one supreme court of judicature, called the High Court of Justice, of which the judges of the Queen's Bench formed the first division. [Curia Regis.]

W. S. Holdsworth, "History of English Law," 1923.

King's Evil is the name formerly given to scrofula, which was supposed to be cured by the king's touch. Edward the Confessor is said to have been the first king who touched for the king's evil, which he did in 1058. The custom reached its height under the Stuarts, and Charles I is said to have touched over 10,000 persons. It was continued under Anne, but was finally dropped by George I. The Young Pretender exercised it as a prerogative of royalty in 1745. The touching was accompanied by a religious service.

"King's Friends" was the name given to the secret counsellors and supporters of George III in his attempt to restore the royal authority to its old power, and to govern without exclusive reliance on either of the two great parties of the state. This movement, in its practical issue, was a revolt against the oligarchy of the great Whig families which had in the main guided the destinies of the country since the Revolution; and the germs of the principles which it afterwards developed are to be traced in the writings of Bolingbroke, who "strongly urged the necessity of disregarding the old party distinctions, and building up the royal authority on their decay." But

as a matter of fact, the "King's Friends," though drawn from both the great parties of the state, were in the main recruited from the ranks of the Tories. George III, however, did not accept his new supporters as being members of either party; his one object was to create a body of men faithful to himself, and detached from either of the great sections of political life. This body was to be his constant adviser, and to carry out his will. Of its leaders he took counsel in private, and followed its advice rather than that of his nominal ministers. It is this state of affairs that is so bitterly sketched in Burke's "Thoughts on the Causes of the Present Discontents." It has been sometimes thought that the picture drawn by the great statesman is a little highly coloured; but of the general truth of his assertions there can be no question. It was due to a knowledge of his secret power in the background that Lord Rockingham, in 1765, would only accept office on condition that "some of the particular friends of the Earl of Bute should not, either publicly or privately, directly or indirectly, have any concern or interest in public affairs." For the Earl of Bute was recognized as the centre of this undue influence. But even after this protest the same condition of things continued. It was by means of this undue pressure that George III opposed the repeal of the Stamp Act while pretending to support his ministers, and Lord Rockingham had to obtain his written consent to the passing of his measure of repeal. At last, in 1766, the king succeeded in getting rid of the Whigs, and in forming a government under the Duke of Grafton and Lord Chatham that should be free from party connexions. On Lord North's accession to power (1770) the king consented to identify his own policy with that of his minister, and would admit none to power except those who would carry out his wishes to the utmost. When Pitt came into power (1784) this great minister was content to "make common cause with the Crown," and the royal influence through the new premier was greater than it had been before. As a rule, their views were identical; but when they differed the king was ready to make use of his old tactics. So, on the Catholic question of 1801, George III is reported to have said that he should reckon any man his personal enemy who should propose any such measure. On Pitt's return to office in 1804 Addington, the late prime minister, took up the position of leader of the "King's Friends," a party which then reckoned some sixty or seventy members in its ranks. The sentiments of the Portland and Liverpool ministers were so well in accord with those of the Crown that the party of the "King's Friends," though still existing, had no cause to separate itself from the ostensible government.

Burke, "Thoughts on the Causes of the Present Discontents," 1770; A. M. Davies, "The Influence of George III on the Development of the Constitution," 1921. [T. A. A.]

Kingston, Sir Anthony (1519–56), was sent to Cornwall as provost marshal after the rebellion of 1549, and is said to have behaved with great cruelty on this occasion. He was present at the execution of Bishop Hooper in 1555, for whom he had developed a great admiration, and in the following year was implicated in the plot to marry the Princess Elizabeth to the Earl of Devon, and to proclaim her queen. On the discovery of the conspiracy he died, probably by his own hands.

Kingsweston, The Battle of (August 1549), was fought between a party of the western rebels under one Coffin and the royal troops. The latter were completely victorious.

F. Rose-Troupe, "The Western Rebellion of 1549," 1913.

Kinsale, The Siege of (1601). Five thousand Spaniards, commanded by Don Juan dell' Aguila, landed in the harbour of Kinsale in September 1601, having been dispatched to support Hugh O'Neill's rebellion. They took possession of the castle of Kincorain, but soon lost it to Lord Mountjoy. That nobleman, being shortly afterwards joined by the Earl of Thomond (Conor O'Brien) and some 1,000 men, defeated O'Neill's attempt to raise the siege (December 24). Don Juan, tired of Irish warfare, thereupon surrendered Kinsale, Castlehaven, and the other towns in his possession in return for permission to sail for Corunna with all his forces.

R. Bagwell, "Ireland Under the Tudors," 1885–90.

Kirk o' Field was an old and roofless church just without the walls of Edinburgh: close by was a building which had formerly belonged to the Dominican order. It was here that Darnley was murdered on the night of February 9–10, 1567.

Biographies of Mary, Queen of Scots.

Kirkcaldy, Sir William, of Grange (*d.* 1573), was one of the murderers of Cardinal Beaton (1546). He was a leader of the confederacy against Mary, Queen of Scots, in 1567, and to him it was that she surrendered after the battle of Carberry Hill. Appointed governor of Edinburgh Castle in the same year, he fought for Moray at Langside in 1568; but shortly afterwards joined the queen's party, and held the castle and town of Edinburgh against the Regent Morton. In 1573 he was compelled to surrender the place. Morton caused him to be hanged as a traitor in Edinburgh, August 3, 1573.

Grant, "Memoirs . . . of Kirkcaldy of Grange," 1849.

Kirke, Colonel Percy (1646–91), was a soldier who had served for some years at Tangier (1680), and was put in command of some troops at the battle of Sedgemoor. After the defeat of Monmouth, Kirke and his troops, who were known as "Kirke's Lambs," committed fearful atrocities in the west of England

against the followers of Monmouth. Kirke was one of the first to join William in 1688, and was subsequently put in command of some troops in Ireland. He raised the siege of Derry in 1689.

Kirkee, The Battle of (November 5, 1817), was fought between the British and the Mahratta troops of the Peshwa Baji Rao. It resulted in the defeat of the latter.

Kitchener, Horatio Herbert, Earl (1850–1916), entered the Royal Engineers in 1871, and saw service in the Sudan in 1883–5. In the latter year he was made commissioner for the delimitation of the territories of the Sultan of Zanzibar. He was governor-general of the Red Sea Littoral from 1886 to 1888, and of the Sudan in 1899. In 1888 he was severely wounded in an engagement at Handoub. From that date until 1892 he was adjutant-general of the Egyptian army, and sirdar from 1892 to 1899. He effected the conquest of the Sudan, breaking the power of the Khalifa at the battle of Omdurman. On the outbreak of the South African war he was made chief of the staff, and was commander-in-chief in South Africa from 1900 to 1902, from the retirement of Lord Roberts until the end of the war. From 1902 to 1909 he was commander-in-chief in India. He was raised to the peerage in 1898, and created a viscount in 1902, field-marshal in 1909, and an earl in 1914. On the outbreak of the Great War he took over the seals of the war office, planned to have 70 army divisions in the field by 1916 (to the amazement of his colleagues and the derision of the Germans), and organized the Kitchener Army, which by 1916 numbered 67 divisions in active existence. He adopted the continental theory of warfare and would allow no "limited liability" for the British in France. His length of vision made him an invaluable councillor at the war office, though it is undoubtedly true that he was of a different age from those with whom he had to plan and prosecute the war. He was drowned in the *Hampshire* on June 5, 1916, on his way to Archangel to give military advice to Russian head-quarters.

Sir George Arthur, "Life of Kitchener," 3 vols., 1920; Lord Esher, "The Tragedy of Kitchener," 1921.

Kit-Kat Club, The, was a Whig club, instituted in 1703 to promote the principles of the Revolution and the Protestant succession. It took its name from a confectioner named Christopher Kat, of Shire Lane, near Temple Bar, at whose house the members used to dine. It numbered 48 members, including Marlborough, Halifax, Somers, Walpole, Steele, and Addison. It was dissolved about 1720.

W. T. Morgan, "English Political Parties in the Reign of Anne," 1920.

Kloster-Zeven, The Convention of (1757), was one of the incidents of the Seven Years' War (q.v.). In July the British commander, the Duke of Cumberland, was defeated at Hastenbeck by the French. Hameln, Göttingen, Hanover, Bremen, and Verben were occupied by the French. Cumberland retired upon the fortress of Stade, but his communications with the Elbe were soon cut off. He therefore accepted the mediation of the King of Denmark, and on September 8 signed a convention with the Duke of Richelieu. The terms were that the assailing troops, such as those of Hesse and Brunswick, should be sent home, and that the Hanoverians under Cumberland should pass the Elbe, and be dispersed into different quarters of cantonments, leaving only a garrison at Stade. The convention was violently denounced in Prussia, and in Great Britain it was generally looked upon as extremely disgraceful. But perhaps Cumberland took the wisest course in the circumstances. The French were in vastly superior force, and his own army was ill-disciplined and not to be depended on. The convention was not rigidly kept on either side, and was subsequently repudiated by the British at the suggestion of Pitt, and the Hanoverian army was equipped afresh.

Knight, William (1476–1547), Bishop of Bath and Wells, was often an ambassador under Henry VIII. He was employed in 1527 at Rome to forward the negotiations for the king's divorce from Katharine of Aragon. Knight obtained more than one opportunity of seeing Clement in Henry's interest; and when the pope escaped to Orvieto he at once followed him thither, and obtained his signature to two documents granting respectively a commission to Cardinals Wolsey and Campeggio for hearing and determining the cause in England, and a dispensation for the king to marry another wife. But, while affixing his signature to the documents, Clement had been careful to render them useless to Henry VIII. Knight was subsequently employed to negotiate a commercial agreement with the Emperor Charles V in 1532, and became Bishop of Bath and Wells in 1541.

Knight Service, Tenure by, is usually regarded as the characteristic feudal tenure. Even before 1066 military service was becoming in this country, as on the continent, increasingly territorialized. The land, at all events in the south and west, had been plotted out into five-hide units, each of which was bound to produce its "miles" for service in the host; and further, the great lords, both lay and ecclesiastical, were beginning to be held responsible to the king for the service due from all the lands over which they exercised a seignory. The old national militia was assuming some of the features of the feudal levy; the thegn some of the characteristics of the feudal baron. Nevertheless it remains true that military tenure as it existed in England throughout the Middle Ages was the creation of the Normans, and that, despite the superficial resemblances between

the old order and the new, the one was not a direct outgrowth from the other. As Dr. J. H. Round's researches have shown, William the Conqueror distributed the conquered English lands among his Norman followers, or restored them to their former owners on the plan followed in the duchy—i.e., in return for the service of a specified number of fully armed knights; and he defined the number not in relation to the five-hide rule of his Anglo-Saxon predecessors, but more probably to the *constabularia* or unit of the Norman feudal host. Lay and ecclesiastical tenants-in-chief alike were assessed in multiples or fractions of ten, with little apparent regard to the value or extent of the holdings, the total "servitia debita" amounting, it has been estimated, to roughly 5,000 knights.

The assessment of the Crown vassals was, however, only the first stage in the establishment of the feudal military system. Every great estate was a replica in miniature of the kingdom. The tenants-in-chief in their turn parcelled out their holdings among their personal followers in order to secure the wherewithal to discharge their obligations to the Crown. As a result England was in the early Norman period plotted out into "knights' fees," each representing not a fixed acreage, but merely that area of land considered adequate for the maintenance of a "miles" and his household. Since the process of subinfeudation depended on the caprice or convenience of individual lords, it was entirely lacking in uniformity, some enfeoffing the exact number of knights they owed the king, some more than their "servitium debitum," others fewer. The final result, however, was the creation of between 6,000 and 7,000 fees, as against the 5,000 from which service was actually due to the Crown.

The system thus established under the Conqueror did not long preserve its pristine vigour. With the passage of time the lesser tenants-in-chief and sub-tenants displayed an increasing disinclination for the performance of their military duties. This reluctance probably explains in some measure the rapid development of the institution of scutage (q.v.) under Henry II, and in the thirteenth century it had even more far-reaching consequences. Both Henry II and Richard I were obliged on occasion to resort to the expedient of summoning for service a mere fraction of the feudal host. Under John, in consequence of the growing cost of equipment and of a widespread distaste for foreign service, what had been an occasional expedient became gradually a regular practice. By the end of Henry III's reign this fractional service was all that was recognized by the greater lay and clerical tenants, and an entirely new "servitium debitum" had in effect been created. In place of the 5,000 knights of the Norman host the king had now only some few hundreds of men upon whose service he could rely. As for the sub-tenants, their service was almost entirely converted into the duty of paying scutage to their lords at the rate fixed by royal decree, whenever such scutage was put in charge by the Crown. The decline of the feudal military organization was now in full progress, and Edward I began, in connexion with his Welsh expeditions, to lay the foundations of that paid professional force which under Edward III completely superseded the obsolete feudal array. By the middle of the fourteenth century tenure by knight service had ceased to furnish the Crown with either men or their money equivalent.

In proportion as the original meaning of military tenure was lost sight of the importance attached to its incidental profits increased. In the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries we hear little of knight service, but much of reliefs and aids, escheats and forfeitures, wardship and marriage. In particular the Crown jealously guarded its interests as supreme landowner, and exploited to the full the advantages it possessed in virtue of its prerogative. Under the Tudors the Court of Wards and Liveries (q.v.) was established to control and administer the profits arising from the feudal incidents, which, now that their *raison d'être* had disappeared, were felt by the Crown vassals to be increasingly burdensome. In the early seventeenth century attempts began to be made to secure the abolition of the whole obsolescent system. The Great Contract scheme of 1610 proved abortive, and it was not until the Commonwealth period that its central idea was carried into execution. After the Restoration the ordinance of 1645 and the act of 1656 were confirmed and amplified by the famous statute of 1660, which abolished both knight service and scutage together with the burdensome incidents of military tenure, and converted all tenures into free and common socage. [KNIGHTHOOD; FEUDALISM.]

F. W. Maitland, "Domesday Book and Beyond"; J. H. Round, "Feudal England"; J. F. Baldwin, "Scutage and Knight Service in England"; S. K. Mitchell, "Studies in Taxation under John and Henry III." [H. M. C.]

Knighthood. The word knight is derived from the Anglo-Saxon *cniht*, which, originally meaning boy or youth, was, even before the Conquest, occasionally used as equivalent to "miles." It is necessary to distinguish between the personal distinction of knighthood and the legal system of knights' fees. In its wider sense, knighthood may be taken as nearly equivalent to chivalry or to feudalism, and will be found treated under those heads. The actual ceremony of conferring knighthood does not seem to have been known in England before the Conquest, and the first instance of it we have on satisfactory evidence is the dubbing of the Conqueror's son Henry (afterwards Henry I) by his father. After the Conquest the extent of land held by a knight, or the *feodum militis*, was the unit of the system of feudal military tenure. The Conqueror parcelled out the confiscated English lands among

his Norman followers in return for the service of a specified number of knights, at the same time imposing similar services upon most of the ecclesiastical foundations which retained their territorial endowments. These in their turn enfeoffed sub-tenants until virtually the whole of England had been parcelled out into knights' fees. What the exact value and extent of a knight's fee were is hardly ascertained. It has been suggested that the five hides of land which were associated with thegnhood before the Conquest formed one of the knight's qualifications after it, but the available evidence does not support the theory. It is more probable that the common quantity was expressed in the twenty pounds' worth of annual value, the qualification for knighthood in the thirteenth century and later. It has been said (on the authority of Ordericus Vitalis) that after the Conquest England was divided into 60,000 knights' fees. This, however, is entirely untrue. The number has been estimated by modern authorities at between 6,000 and 7,000. On the decline of the feudal military system knighthood was made compulsory on all freeholders possessing an estate of £20, and was frequently enforced; as, for instance, by proclamation to the sheriffs in 19 Henry III and by Edward I in 1278. Writs for distraint of knighthood were issued to enforce this law, and continued to be issued down to the time of Charles I, the only difference being that the estate for which knighthood was compulsory was raised from £20 to £40 per annum. Elizabeth and James I issued these writs, apparently, only on one occasion in each reign; but the practice was revived and rigidly enforced by Charles I in 1629. It was finally abolished, with all feudal tenures and customs, in 1661. Knights in the Middle Ages, from the time of Edward I (and probably before), were either knights banneret, who were entitled to display the square banneret, and were supposed to command a larger force in the field; or knights bachelors, who carried the tailed pennon, and were of inferior rank. In England, as elsewhere, knighthood was purely a personal distinction, and was never hereditary. Knights banneret had disappeared by the sixteenth century, and were not subsequently created. In England there are now ten orders of knighthood: the Garter (founded in the fourteenth century), the Thistle (founded in 1687), St. Patrick (1788), the Bath (1725), St. Michael and St. George (1818), Star of India (1861), Indian Empire (1876), Royal Victorian Order (1896), Order of the British Empire (1917), Companion of Honour (1917). [CHIVALRY; FEUDALISM.]

Knights of the Shire. [ELECTIONS; PARLIAMENT.]

Knolles, SIR ROBERT (*d.* 1407), was originally a leader of one of the Free Companies which devastated France in the fourteenth century. But having subsequently obtained a regular command in the English army, he greatly distinguished himself by his bravery and military skill. In 1359 he captured the great French soldier, Bertrand du Guesclin; and he served with the Black Prince in Spain (1367). When the Peasants' Rebellion broke out, in 1381, he was instrumental in protecting Richard II and the Londoners from the insurgents.

Knollys, SIR FRANCIS (1514–96), "the sternest Puritan of his day," was known during the reign of Edward VI as one of the most zealous advocates of the Reformation. The religious persecution of Mary's reign forced him to seek an asylum in Germany; but on the accession of Elizabeth, of whom he was a cousin by marriage, he returned to England, imbued with the spirit of Puritanism. Made vice-chamberlain of the royal household, he was subsequently advanced to the office of lord treasurer, whilst immediately after his arrival in England he was appointed a privy councillor. In 1566 he was sent to Ireland, where he recommended the council in England to approve of the campaign proposed by Sidney. Two years later he was appointed the custodian of Mary, Queen of Scots, whose charms his "keen, hard sense" was supposed to despise. It was he who suggested the plan of marrying Mary to George Carey, son of Lord Hunsdon, for, "so matched, Elizabeth need have no fear of her." Knollys, like the rest of Elizabeth's ministers, was liable to have his course of action repudiated by his mistress if she found it convenient; and in his dealings with Mary Stuart he found himself repeatedly forced to act upon his own responsibility, with the danger of a subsequent disavowal of his proceedings. Notwithstanding the occasional bad treatment he received at the queen's hands, Sir Francis remained till his death one of her most faithful ministers, though on one occasion he exclaimed that he doubted whether she were any longer fit to rule.

Knox, JOHN (1505–72), was a native of Haddington, and educated at Haddington grammar school and at Glasgow. He seems to have taken orders as a secular priest in 1530, and to have had some connexion with one of the religious establishments at Haddington for some years afterwards. In 1546 he became converted to the reformed faith, and placed himself under the protection of some of the Protestant gentry of St. Andrews. In June 1547 the French captured St. Andrews, and Knox was carried prisoner to France and sent to the galleys. He obtained his release in the beginning of 1549, and came to England, where he remained till the death of Edward VI. For two years he was minister of Berwick, where he put in practice, two years before it was authorized by Edward VI's Second Prayer Book, the substitution of common bread for wafers at the Communion, and allowed sitting instead of kneeling. He is credited with the "Black

Rubric " of the Second Prayer Book. He was appointed one of Edward's chaplains, and was consulted on the composition of Cranmer's Forty-five Articles. On the accession of Mary he retired to France, and subsequently to Geneva, where he remained till 1559, with a short interval (1555–6) in Scotland, and wrote several controversial and other works, including his " Blast of the Trumpet against the Monstrous Regiment of Women " (1558), which gave great offence to Queen Elizabeth. In 1559 he returned to Scotland, and immediately joined the party of the lords of the congregation. In July of this year he was chosen minister of Edinburgh. He took a large share in the proceedings of the Protestant leaders henceforth, and was mainly instrumental in drawing up the " Confession of Faith," accepted by parliament in 1560. On her arrival in Scotland, Mary held several conferences with Knox, and at length, in December 1562, ordered him to be tried for treason before the council. He was, however, acquitted. After the marriage of Mary and Darnley in 1565, he preached a sermon which gave great offence to the royal couple. He was called before the council, and inhibited from preaching. He preached the coronation sermon when the infant James VI was crowned, in July 1567. After the death of Moray (January 1570), Knox, who had incurred the enmity of Kirkcaldy of Grange, left Edinburgh and retired to St. Andrews. He returned to Edinburgh in August 1572, preached twice more (once when the news of the St. Bartholomew Massacre arrived), and died November 24, 1572. Knox was twice married, first to Marjory Bowes in 1555, and secondly to Margaret Stewart, daughter of Lord Ochiltree. Besides numerous epistles, discourses, and polemical tracts, Knox wrote a " Historie of the Reformation of Religion within the Realm of Scotland," which is of considerable historical value.

Knox's " Works," ed. by D. Laing, 6 vols., Edinburgh, 1846–64; McCrie, " Life of John Knox "; Moncreiff, " Knox and the Scottish Reformation "; Froude, " The Reformation and the Scottish Character "; Carlyle, " Portraits of John Knox " and " Heroes and Hero Worship "; later biographies by H. Cowan, Andrew Lang, A. T. Innes, O. Macmillan (all 1905).

Kolis, The, are an aboriginal tribe of Western Bengal. Having come under the operation of laws which they did not understand, they were excited by the systematic encroachment of Bengal settlers and zemindars. In 1832 they rose in arms, and the insurrection was not put down without much bloodshed. On the suppression of the rebellion the new regulations were withdrawn, and the Kolis were placed under a special commissioner. Since then they have made considerable advances in civilization and prosperity.

Korigaum, The Battle of (January 1, 1818), was fought during Lord Hastings's war against Holkar and the Peshwa. Captain Francis Staunton, who had been summoned to Poona with his division, encountered the Mahratta army of the Peshwa Baji Rao (q.v.), 25,000 strong, near the village of Korigaum. The Mahrattas immediately crossed the river to attack the British troops. Captain Staunton's sepoys fought with desperate valour till they were sinking with exhaustion and frantic with thirst. The approach of General Smith, who was in hot pursuit, so alarmed the Peshwa, that he retreated in the night, and thus abandoned the contest.

Kotah, The Siege of (March 22, 1858), occurred during the Indian Mutiny. Kotah was a strongly fortified town on the Chambal. Its raja was friendly to the British, but had been coerced into rebellion by his followers. General Roberts, therefore, found there were two parties in Kotah, and was immediately joined by the raja, who was in possession of the citadel and palace. The rebels, about 5,000 in number, held the rest of the town. Reinforcements were sent to the citadel, and on the 30th the place was easily carried by assault.

Sir G. W. Forrest, " Indian Mutiny."

Kumasi, the capital of King Koffee Calcali, Ashanti, was entered by the British troops, under Sir Garnet Wolseley, February 5, 1874; and again by Sir F. Scott's force, January 18, 1896. In 1900 a rebellion broke out, but was suppressed by an expedition under Sir James Willcocks. [Ashanti, Wars in.]

Kurdlah Campaign, The (1795). When the temporizing policy of Sir John Shore left the Mahrattas free to attack the Nizam in order to enforce their claims for *choute* or tribute, the whole Mahratta Confederacy assembled for the last time under the banner of the Peshwa, commanded by Hurry Punt. The Nizam, deserted by the British, had thrown himself into the hands of a French officer named Raymond, who had organized for him a disciplined army of 18,000 men, commanded and trained by European officers. The Nizam advanced to Bidar, and the two armies met at Kurdlah (March 11, 1795). The Nizam's cavalry drove the entire centre division of the Mahrattas from the field, and Raymond's infantry stood their ground gallantly against Sindhia's disciplined battalions. The Nizam, however, was persuaded by his favourite sultana to retire from the field, and the whole army followed him in headlong rout. Soon afterwards he was shut up in Kurdlah and captured. To secure his liberty he had to make territorial cessions to the value of thirty-five lacs of rupees a year, besides surrendering his chief minister Mushir-ul-Mulk, who was by far the ablest man at his court, and a warm partisan of the British.

J. C. Grant Duff, " History of the Mahrattas," 1826 and 1921.

Kut el Amara, The Siege of (December 8, 1915—April 29, 1916), occurred in Mesopotamia during the Great War. General Townshend retired on Kut when his Baghdad offensive failed, and by December 8 was completely hemmed in by the Ottoman forces under Von der Goltz. Several attempts at relief failed, and lack of provisions forced the garrison to capitulate.

F. J. Moberly, "The Campaign in Mesopotamia, 1914–18," 4 vols., 1927.

L

Labour, Ministry of, was established in 1916 to relieve the board of trade of some of its administrative work and to administer the national health insurance scheme. It watches over the interests of wage-earners, including unemployment insurance and industrial disputes in its sphere of operation.

Labour Party, The, was founded and organized in response to the working-class vote created by the Reform Act of 1884. The Independent Labour Party was formed at Bradford by J. Keir Hardie in 1893 from among the members of the Social Democratic Federation (founded in 1881) to propagate a Socialist programme by means of returning independent members to parliament. By 1906 it had succeeded in returning 30 members. Meanwhile a parallel step had been taken by the Trade Union Congress in 1900, when a resolution had been passed to "establish a distinct Labour group in parliament, who shall . . . agree on their own policy, which must embrace a readiness to co-operate with any party which for the time being may be engaged in promoting legislation in the direct interests of Labour." In 1908 the members returned by the T.U.C., together with those of the Miners' Federation, were united with those of the Independent Labour Party to form the Labour party in parliament, whose numbers at the election of 1910 reached 40. Its freedom of action was hampered by its being pledged to Home Rule and so compelled to keep the Liberal party in office, and by the rise of Syndicalist and other schools of Socialist theory which weakened and discredited the Labour party until the repeal of the Osborne judgment in 1913. At the outbreak of the Great War the party hesitated before endorsing the policy of the government, but it joined the Coalition governments of May 1915 and December 1916, and did not resume its independence until November 1918, though it strove for peace throughout. In 1919 its strength was 57; in November 1922, when it became the official opposition, it numbered 142. The first Labour government was formed under Ramsay MacDonald (q.v.) in January 1924, and lived until the following October 8. It concentrated on unemployment, housing, reparations, and the improvement of Anglo-Russian relations. In foreign affairs its outstanding achievement was the Geneva Protocol (q.v.). Resuming its place as the opposition in October 1924, the party suffered during the next two years as the result of its policy during the General Strike of May 1926 and the Chinese crisis of 1926–7.

J. R. MacDonald, "The Socialist Movement," 1911.

[A. C. F. B.]

Labourers, The Statutes of, had their beginning in the Ordinance of Labourers which was published in June 1349. This was an emergency measure taken by the council at a time when parliament could not be called together owing to the desperate ravages of the Black Death, and was prompted by the difficulties of employers whose villeins and servants were taking advantage of the scarcity of labour to resist the reimposition of obsolete services or to exact more favourable conditions. Unemployed persons under sixty were to accept work when required to do so. All those in receipt of wages had to accept what had been usually paid before 1347, and the four previous years. Employers who offered wages above the standard rate were penalized. Retailers of food were required to charge reasonable prices. The ordinance was re-enacted in statutory form in February 1351, and modifications and additions appeared frequently within the next hundred years. The broad principles of this series of measures were (*a*) that unoccupied persons of the employed classes must work when able to do so; (*b*) their payment must conform to a reasonable rate, which it was at first attempted to fix. The prices of necessaries must also be regulated to balance the justice of the wage legislation; (*c*) it was an offence to refuse to work for the regulated wage. By the act of 1351 a fine could be imposed, but a statute of 1361 extended the powers of the justices from imprisonment to branding; (*d*) vagabondage was regarded as a crime, and the soliciting of alms as an occupation only for the impotent poor. The early labour statutes are of considerable interest not only by reason of their immediate effect in contributing to the discontent which led to the Peasants' Revolt (q.v.) in 1381, but as the first steps in a two-fold national policy in the regulation of poor relief and the wage-contract. In the legislation of Tudor times we recognize the working out of these two policies as distinct processes culminating in the Statute of Artificers of 1563 and the late Elizabethan Poor Law.

Putnam, "The Enforcement of the Statutes of Labourers"; W. S. Holdsworth, "History of English Law," 1922; Petit-Dutaillis, "Studies Supplementary to Stubbs," vol. ii; Cunningham, "Growth of English Industry and Commerce"; Bland, Brown and Tawney, "Documents."

Labrador was first discovered by Sebastian Cabot in 1496, and probably visited by him again in 1513. It was explored by Frobisher in 1576, but seems to have been lost sight of till it was rediscovered by Hudson in 1610.

No regular settlements were made till some Moravian colonies were formed about 1750. In 1763 it was annexed by proclamation, together with Madalens and Anticosti, to the island of Newfoundland, but in 1774 was reannexed to Canada, only to be restored with Anticosti to Newfoundland, as a dependency, by the 1809 act of parliament which abolished the fishing administration. Its western boundary in the province of Quebec was not defined until 1927, when a dispute between Newfoundland and the Dominion of Canada, largely due to the new industry of wood pulping for paper-making, was settled by reference to the judicial committee of the privy council.

V.-A. Huard, "Labrador et Anticosti," 1897.

[H. R.]

Labuan. [Malaya, British.]

Lackland (or, Sansterre) was the name by which King John was commonly known, from his not receiving any great fief from his father as his brothers had done.

Lack-learning (or, Unlearned) **Parliament,** The, was the name given to the parliament which met at Coventry in October 1404. It acquired its name from the fact that the king, following a precedent established by Edward III in 1372, directed that in the writs of summons no lawyers should be returned as members. This parliament is chiefly remarkable for the proposal that the lands of the clergy should for one year be taken into the king's hands for the purposes of the war with France.

"Lady of the Mercians." [Ethelfleda.]

Laenland. [Folkland.]

Læt. The læt of the earliest English laws is generally associated with the *litus of* the capitularies of Charles the Great, and the *Lex Saxonum*, and with the *lazzi* or *lassi* of the continental Saxons in the eighth century. They were tributary dependents of alien blood, possibly descendants of the defeated British. The læt is not to be considered as a mere slave. He was valued for the wergild, summoned to the placitum, taxed for the Church, allowed the right of compurgation, and choice in marriage. He was free to everyone but his lord, and simply unfree in cultivating land of which he was not the owner. The læt served his lord for hire or for land, though not reduced so low in the scale as the théow or wealh.

Lagos. [West Africa, British Dominions in.]

Lagos, The Battle of (August 1759), was one of the naval victories gained by the British during the Seven Years' War (q.v.). The French ships had been blockaded in their ports during the year; but in August the Toulon fleet attempted to join the Brest squadron. It was pursued by Admiral Boscawen from Gibraltar, and attacked off Lagos in Algarve, when of its largest ships two were captured and two others run ashore. The Portuguese reasonably complained that the neutrality of their coast had been violated.

Sir J. S. Corbett, "England in the Seven Years' War," 2 vols, 1907 and 1918.

La Hogue, The Battle of (May 19, 1692), checked a threatened invasion of England. Louis XIV, in support of James II, had collected an army in Normandy. Two French fleets, amounting together to about 80 ships, were collected at Brest and Toulon, under Tourville and D'Estrées. James, misled by the intrigues of Admiral Russell, believed that there was great disaffection in the English fleet. Meanwhile, the combined English and Dutch fleet of 90 ships swept the Channel. Tourville had with him only his own squadron, consisting of 44 ships of the line. Believing in the treachery of the English officers, he thought that he had only the Dutch to deal with. But the ill-judged declaration whereby James exempted whole classes of Englishmen from pardon, and a stirring dispatch on the other hand from Mary, had thoroughly roused the temper of the English fleet. Russell visited all his ships and exhorted his crews. The battle lasted till four in the afternoon. At first the wind was in favour of the French, and only half the allied fleet could be brought into action. But just as the French had resolved to retire the wind changed. Their retreat became a flight. Twelve of the largest ships took refuge in the bay of La Hogue, under the eyes of James. There they were attacked and destroyed, as they lay in the shallow water, during two successive days, by a flotilla of boats under Sir George Rooke.

See article in *Quarterly Review*, April 1893, p. 461.

Lahore, in the Punjab, was the capital of the independent kingdom of Ranjit Singh (q.v.) from 1799. It was occupied by the British under Sir Hugh Gough in February 1846, and the treaty of peace between the British and Dhuleep Singh was signed there (March 1846).

Lake, Gerard, 1st Viscount (1744–1808), entered the army at an early age, and served during the Seven Years' War in Germany. He went through the American War under Cornwallis, and earned great distinction. In 1793 he served during the campaign in Flanders, and here also greatly distinguished himself. In 1800 he was appointed to the command of the army in India. In this capacity he bore a chief share in the Mahratta War of 1803, and enhanced his reputation as a brilliant soldier. He defeated Sindhia at Laswari (q.v.) (November 1803), and captured Delhi. He received a peerage in 1804. He returned to England in 1807, and was appointed governor of Portsmouth.

Biography by H. W. Pearse, 1908.

Lamb, William, 2nd Viscount Melbourne (1779–1848), was the second son of Peniston, 1st Viscount Melbourne. In 1806 he entered the House of Commons as Whig member for Leominster, and joined the opposition under Fox. When Canning was commissioned to form a cabinet, Lamb accepted the office of chief secretary for Ireland. Later, he accepted office under Lord Goderich and under the Duke of Wellington. In 1828 he succeeded his father in the House of Lords. He took office under Lord Grey, in 1830, as home secretary. In 1834 Grey found his position untenable, and the king sent for Melbourne, who contrived to construct a cabinet, which lasted till the end of the year. The death of Earl Spencer caused the fall of the ministry. The king called upon Melbourne to retire, and summoned Sir Robert Peel from Italy to assume the premiership. The new government did not last over the year. A new parliament decided against it, and Melbourne formed a mixed government, which lasted from April 1835 to August 1841. At the beginning of Queen Victoria's reign the prime minister's position was one that required address and tact, and by universal acknowledgment Lord Melbourne filled it with success, and in such a way as to earn the queen's gratitude. Several important acts were added to the statute book by the ministry, including the new Poor Law. In 1839 Melbourne, after practical defeat on the Jamaica question, resigned. Peel, however, declined to form a ministry on account of the disputes about the royal household, known as the "Bedchamber question" (q.v.), and Melbourne returned. The general election of 1841 resulted in a Conservative majority, and the government resigned. After his resignation Melbourne took little active part in public affairs.

"Melbourne Papers," 1889; biographies by W. T. Mac C. Torrens, 1878, and H. Dunckley, 1906; "Greville Memoirs," pt. ii, vol. iii, pp. 241 ff.

Lambert, John (1619–83), born in Yorkshire, served in the Parliamentary army during the Civil War and distinguished himself at Hull (1643), Nantwich and Marston Moor (1644), and Pontefract (1645). He was the spokesman of the army in its quarrel with parliament in 1647, and joint victor of Preston (August 1648). In 1650 he accompanied Cromwell to Scotland, where he led the attack at Dunbar. His horse was shot from under him at Worcester. In January 1652 he was appointed lord deputy for Ireland, and in 1653 he became a member of the first council of state, remaining a staunch supporter of Cromwell until 1657. During this period he served as major-general in the north, advocated war with Spain, and favoured religious toleration. He broke with Cromwell, however, over the question of kingship, and retired into private life during the closing years of the protectorate. Under Richard Cromwell he resumed his commands, was elected to the Committee of Safety and council of state (May 1659), and subdued the rising of George Booth (August). In the following October, cashiered by the Parliament on account of a petition from his officers that he should be appointed major-general, he marched to Westminster and barred out the members. The army made him major-general, and he went north to obstruct Monck's advance on London. His army dissolved away, however, and parliament deprived him of his commands and committed him to the Tower (March 1660). After his escape and abortive rising in April he was exempted from the Act of Indemnity, tried for treason (June 1662) and sentenced. But Charles II reprieved him and had him sent to live in private in Guernsey, under supervision. He died in 1683. [A. C. F. B.]

Lambeth Articles, The (1595), were drawn up by Archbishop Whitgift, assisted by Fletcher, Bishop of London; Vaughan, Bishop of Bangor; and Tindal, Dean of Ely. They consisted of nine articles, embracing all the most pronounced doctrines of Calvinism, and were sent to Cambridge, where Calvinistic ideas were rife, with permission from the archbishop that they should be adopted. They were, however, disapproved by the queen and Lord Burghley, and as they were not accepted by parliament they had no binding force. They were again brought forward and rejected at the Hampton Court Conference (1604) (q.v.).

Lambeth, Treaty of, was made after the Fair of Lincoln by William Marshal, Earl of Pembroke, acting for Henry III, and the French prince, Louis (September 11, 1217). By this treaty it was agreed that Louis should at once evacuate England, that the prisoners on each side should be released, and that a general amnesty should be granted. Also a sum of money, amounting to 10,000 marks, was paid to Louis as the price of his departure.

Lambton, John George, 1st Earl of Durham (1792–1840), descended from one of the oldest families in England, was the son of William Henry Lambton. After serving for a short time in a regiment of hussars (1809–11), he was returned to parliament (1813) for the county of Durham, for which he sat until 1828, and soon distinguished himself as a very advanced and energetic reformer. In 1821 he brought forward a plan of his own for parliamentary reform. In 1828 he was raised to the peerage with the title of Baron Durham. When the ministry of Lord Grey was formed in November 1830 Lord Durham became lord privy seal and assistant in the preparation of the first Reform Bill. During the difficulties which arose out of the Belgian question he was sent to St. Petersburg (1832) on a special mission as successor to Lord Heytesbury. The object of his journey was to persuade the Russian cabinet to give immediate instructions to the Russian plenipotentiaries in the London Conference to co-operate, on behalf of the Tsar,

cordially and effectively, on whatever measures might appear to be best calculated to effect the early execution of the treaty. Russia, however, was as yet unwilling to join the western powers in measures of coercion towards Holland, and hence the mission was a failure. In 1833 he was created Earl of Durham in reward for his services of the previous year when sent on the special mission to Russia, a court to which he was accredited ambassador from 1835 to 1837. In 1838 he was sent to Canada as high-commissioner and governor-general of all the British Provinces in North America to report on the constitutional deadlock caused by intense faction and national feeling embittered by religious differences. His firmness and arbitrariness, though they saved Canada, excited great opposition [Grant], which was increased by his lavish display, and when his Canadian policy was attacked by Brougham the ministry threw him over. Lord Durham's report on the affairs of North America was issued in 1839 with the help of Charles Buller, who was responsible for much in it; it was a landmark in British colonial policy. He found "two nations warring within the bosom of a single state," and advocated as an ultimate solution the anglicization and self-government of Canada. The greatness of Canada is his justification. He was recalled and returned to England, where he died soon after at Cowes, in the Isle of Wight, in July 1840.

"D. N. B.," xxxii, 22; Sir C. P. Lucas, "Lord Durham's Report," 3 vols., 1912; J. L. Morison, "British Supremacy and Canadian Self-Government, 1839–1854," 1919; F. Bradshaw, "Self-Government in Canada," 1903; S. J. Reid, "Life and Letters," 1906.

Lancaster was a Roman station founded by Agricola, A.D. 79. It was bestowed by William the Conqueror on Roger of Poitou, who built the castle. It was burnt by the Scots in 1322 and 1389. In the Civil War the castle was taken by the Parliamentarians, February 1643, and the Royalists failed to recapture it when they took the town in March. The town was occupied by the Scots in 1648 under Hamilton. It was occupied by the Jacobite insurgents for two days, November 7 and 9, 1715, and by Charles Edward, November 24, 1745.

Fleury, "Time-Honoured Lancaster," 1891.

Lancaster, The Duchy and County Palatine of, grew out of the *honour of Lancaster*, mentioned in Magna Carta, which, having reverted to the Crown on the death of William of Blois, brother of King Stephen, had been granted to the Earls of Chester, and, on their extinction in 1232, to William de Ferrers. After the second rebellion of Robert de Ferrers, Henry III erected the honour into an earldom in favour of his son Edmund, afterwards called Crouchback. The duchy was created by Edward III in 1351 in favour of Henry, Edmund's grandson, and in his patent of creation the dignity of an earl palatine was conferred upon him. The latter title was also given in 1377 to John of Gaunt, Duke of Lancaster, who had married Henry of Lancaster's heiress. Henry IV, his heir, being conscious of the weakness of his title to the throne, prevented the union of the duchy with the Crown, by procuring an act of parliament, soon after his accession, providing that the title and revenues should remain with him and his heirs for ever. Henry V added to it the estates inherited from his mother, Mary Bohun; but a large part of it had to be put into the hands of trustees for the payment of his debts. On the attainder of Henry VI, after the accession of Edward IV, the duchy was forfeited to the Crown, and was inseparably united to it by act of parliament, the county palatine, which had hitherto been kept separate, being incorporated in the duchy. This settlement was confirmed by an act passed in the reign of Henry VII. The revenues of the duchy are not reckoned among the hereditary revenues, in place of which the civil list was granted to William IV in 1830, but are paid over to the privy purse, an annual account being presented to parliament. Burke, in 1780, reckoned the average returns at £4,000 a year, but they have since greatly increased. The Chancery court of the county palatine sat at Preston; the duchy court being held at Westminster. The court of the duchy exercised concurrent jurisdiction with the Chancery as to matters in equity relating to lands holden of the Crown in right of the duchy, and was chiefly concerned with questions of revenue. In the later nineteenth century the administration of justice was assimilated to that of the rest of England, the court of the county being abolished by the Judicature Act of 1873. The office of chancellor of the duchy is now a political appointment, and is frequently held by a cabinet minister. Its duties are nominal. The chancellor of the duchy of Lancaster, if a commoner, takes precedence next after the chancellor of the exchequer.

"Victoria County History: Lancashire"; E. Baines, "The History of the County Palatine and Duchy of Lancaster," 1888; H. Fishwick, "History of Lancashire," 1894. [L. C. S.]

Lancaster, The House of. The position of the royal house of Lancaster can scarcely be understood without some regard to that earlier family to whose title it succeeded. Edmund, the younger son of Henry III, had been given the honour of Derby and the earldoms of Lancaster and Leicester (1265–7); to these his son Thomas had added, through his marriage, Lincoln and Salisbury. When, therefore, this Thomas took up the position of leader of the baronial opposition to Edward II he was supported by a body of vassals, many of whom—those of Lancaster and Lincoln in particular—were accustomed to war against the Crown. With Thomas of Lancaster we can have no sympathy. He was unscrupulous, yet quite devoid of political ability; selfish in his objects, and retrograde and oligarchical in

policy. But his action associated the name of Lancaster with opposition to the king and alliance with the clergy; and his violent death secured for him the reputation of a martyr to the popular cause. His son Henry assisted in the deposition of Edward II, but also in the ruin of Mortimer; and this Henry and his heir—another Henry (made Duke of Lancaster in 1351)—showed themselves faithful servants of Edward III, during the greater part of whose reign there is scant trace of any baronial opposition. But the last Henry's daughter, Blanche, married John of Gaunt, and carried with her the earldoms of her father; and in the circumstances of Edward's latter years there seemed every opportunity for the re-formation of an opposition. Gaunt, however, preferred to act the part of court leader against the bishops and the constitutionalists in the House of Commons, and departed still farther from the old Lancastrian tradition by championing and accepting the aid of Wyclif. It was left for his son, Henry of Derby (who had married one of the co-heiresses of Bohun of Hereford, a name also recalling resistance to the Crown), to take up the position assigned by tradition to the Lancastrian family. In conjunction with Thomas of Gloucester he reorganized the baronial opposition, and though for a time he made peace with the court, and assisted in the ruin of the lords appellant, his banishment and the seizure of the duchy of Lancaster made him again a popular hero; while the reaction against Richard's autocratic measures gave to Henry's accession the character of a triumph of constitutionalism.

But Henry IV knew that the great mass of the people regarded him with indifference, and that the revolution of 1399 had been, as a contemporary says—

> "For hatred more of Kyng Richardes defection,
> Than for the love of Kyng Henry."

The subsequent conduct of the Percys, also, showed with what motives many of the nobles had supported him. The ideas of legitimacy were still deeply rooted in the nation. Henry must have shared in this feeling, and must have felt his own position to be doubtful. It is not difficult to see that a man in his situation might easily become the cold and calculating monarch whom the chroniclers of his reign describe.

Henry V had no such doubts. He believed himself called upon to realize the claims of his predecessors to the French throne, to restore spiritual unity to Christendom by alliance with Sigismund, and even to regain the Holy Land from the infidel. Like his father, he allied himself firmly with the clergy, and supported them in their efforts to put down Lollardy; but this action was due, not to a desire to gain clerical support, but to a sincere orthodoxy. He was possessed by the idea of the unity of the Holy Roman Church, and persecution of heretics was, according to the public opinion of the time, its natural expression. He possessed all the "chivalric" virtues, but he was more than a Richard I or Edward III; he was a hardworking and skilful statesman, and it is scarcely possible to decide as to the feasibility of the great plans which his early death interrupted. In the minority of Henry VI, Bedford, Gloucester, and Beaufort became the chief figures in the drama, Bedford carrying on the work of Henry V in France, Beaufort pursuing at home the constitution policy of the last two kings, and both thwarted by the selfish and thoughtless Gloucester. When he arrived at manhood Henry VI showed himself incapable of ruling with a firm hand either in England or France. Overworked in his boyhood, of weak health, and with a tendency to insanity inherited from his grandfather, Charles VI, he became a mere tool in the hands of opposing factions. The ill-success of the French War, and the peace policy which followed his marriage, gave an opportunity to the house of York to assert its claims; and with the beginning of the Wars of the Roses the great Lancastrian experiment of governing England in concert with a free parliament broke down.

LANCASTRIAN KINGS OF ENGLAND

Henry IV	1399–1413
Henry V	1413–1422
Henry VI	1422–1461

Sir J. H. Ramsay, "Lancaster and York, 1399–1485," 1892; J. H. Wylie, "England Under Henry IV," 1884.

[W. J. A.]

Lancaster, Edmund, Earl of, called Crouchback (1245–96), was the second son of Henry III. In 1254 he was offered the kingdom of Sicily and Apulia by the pope, and in 1255 formally invested, but he was never able to enforce his claim. At the conclusion of the Barons' War he received a large share of the confiscated lands, including the earldoms of Leicester and Derby, and in 1267 he was created Earl of Lancaster. In 1268 he took the Cross and in 1271 accompanied his brother Edward I on crusade. He was twice married, his second wife being Blanche of Navarre, who brought him the county of Champagne. He died during the campaign in Gascony in 1296. He was called Crouchback or Crossback from having taken the Cross, though in later times the Lancastrians pretended that he was in reality the eldest son of Henry III, but was set aside as a cripple, and on this extraordinary fiction was partly founded Henry IV's claim to the throne.

Lancaster, Thomas, Earl of (1277?–1322), was the son of Edmund, second son of Henry III, and titular king of Sicily, by Blanche, queen-dowager of Navarre. He was therefore cousin to Edward II, and uncle to his queen Isabella. He was Earl of Lancaster, Leicester, and Derby, and his wife the heiress to the earldoms of Lincoln and Salisbury. He came forward as the leader of the barons against Piers Gaveston (q.v.) at the beginning of Edward II's

reign. He was one of the Ordainers (q.v.) appointed in 1310, and in 1312 was one of those chiefly responsible for the execution of Gaveston. In 1313 he received the royal pardon, and was reconciled with the king, but in the next year he refused to take part in the expedition to Scotland. In 1316 he became practically supreme in England, but his rule was oppressive and disastrous. His wife was carried off from him by Earl Warenne, and private war broke out between the two earls. His popularity declined, and the king, aided by the two Despensers, attempted to govern without him. Once more Lancaster came forward as the leader of the barons, and insisted on the banishment of the favourites, but his power was shortlived. His forces were defeated at Boroughbridge (March 1322), and he was taken prisoner. On the 22nd he was tried at Pontefract, and being found guilty of treason was forthwith beheaded. [Lancaster, House of.]

Lancaster, John, Duke of, commonly called John of Gaunt (1340–99), was the fourth son of Edward III. He was born at Ghent during his father's visit to Flanders; hence his popular appellation of John of Gaunt. In 1359 he married Blanche, the daughter of Henry, Duke of Lancaster, and thus became possessed of the estates of the Lancastrian family. He was created Duke of Lancaster in 1362. In 1367 he served under his brother in Spain, and distinguished himself at Navarette (q.v.). His wife having died, in his absence, of the plague, he married in 1371 Constance, the daughter of Pedro the Cruel, and assumed the title of King of Castile. In 1373–4 he led a futile expedition through France from Calais to Bordeaux. On his return he took a prominent part in English politics, and was at the head of the court or ministerial party, which was opposed by the Good Parliament (q.v.) under the auspices of the Black Prince. The latter's death in June 1376, however, enabled the duke to turn the tables on his assailants, and in 1377 the work of the Good Parliament was undone. At the same time John of Gaunt, as a leader of the anti-clerical party, patronized Wyclif (q.v.) and supported him against the bishop and the Londoners at the Council of London, 1378. In 1381 his palace in the Savoy was burnt by Wat Tyler's mob. In the first years of Richard II's reign his influence over the government was great, although he was not included in the young king's council of regency. He remained generally unpopular, and in 1384 he was accused of treason by Latimer, a Carmelite friar. Next year a serious quarrel broke out between Gaunt and his nephew, and though a reconciliation was later effected the duke's importance in English politics henceforth diminished. He now devoted his attention to asserting his claim through his wife to Castile. He formed an alliance with John I of Portugal (to whom he married his daughter Philippa) and led an army into Castile in 1386. He was compelled to retire to Gascony in the next year. In 1388, having secured peace by marrying his daughter Catherine to Henry of Castile, he returned to England, where he succeeded in effecting a formal reconciliation between the Duke of Gloucester and the king. Henceforth he remained on good terms with Richard, and afforded a valuable counterbalance to the influence of Gloucester and his party. In 1398 his son Hereford fell into disgrace and was exiled; and in February of the next year John of Gaunt died. His estates were at once seized by Richard, and this was one of the causes which led to the return of Henry of Bolingbroke under arms and to Richard's deposition in his favour. On the death of his second wife Lancaster had married, in 1396, his mistress, Catherine Swynford (q.v.), and his children by her, the Beauforts, were legitimized by patent in 1397. From one of these, John Beaufort, Henry VII was descended. [Beaufort, Family of; Lancaster, House of.]

S. Armitage-Smith, "John of Gaunt," 1904.

Land Bank. [Banking.]

Land Legislation, Irish. The chief penal laws relating to Ireland are noticed in the articles Ireland and Penal Code. The Irish and English land laws were in other respects practically identical until the Irish potato famine of 1846–8, which marked a turning-point in Irish economic history. The old order had been characterized by a population double that of to-day, by the retention of government in the hands of a wealthy minority, and by a system of land-holding wherein tenure without rights of ownership, and "improvement" without compensation, were general evils. All this was swept away in the half-century following the famine: largely as a result of the triumph of free trade in England, competition from America, and a growth of national introspection which sought a reasoned end to agrarian misery.

Until 1860 the relation between landlord and tenant in Ireland was based on tenure and not on contract, and grave confusion had resulted from the sixty acts passed under George III to modify and define the old feudal tenures. The tenant had no security of tenure, beyond the fact that it would cost his landlord much money to evict him. An act of 1815, passed to meet a situation in which high and impossible rents would result from the post-war drop in agricultural prices, made eviction through the county court easier and less costly. In 1851 the liability was extended to include year-to-year tenants, and conditions became still more favourable to the owner at the expense of the tenant. This process culminated in *Deasy's Act* of 1860 (23 and 24 Vict. c. 154). By the act the relations between landlord and tenant were founded on *contract* and no longer on tenure; the landlord was assumed to be sole owner of his land, the occupier merely paying for temporary use of it; and ejectment was made

still easier—default of one year's rent exposed the occupier to the risk of eviction, whereupon all the improvements he had made in the management of his holding would fall to the landlord, according to the principle that "whatever attached to the freehold belonged to the freehold." Thus tenants had to develop and improve their holdings, but were liable to lose all the fruits of their industry on eviction. Add to this the fact that free trade and foreign competition made it more profitable for landowners to develop pasture-land than to let out holdings, and the stream of emigration from Ireland in the years following the act of 1860 is easily understandable. But a change came in 1870, in Gladstone's *Landlord and Tenant Act*, which was of importance in three ways. It reversed the existing policy by (*a*) giving compensation for "disturbance," limited to certain cases in which "the court shall find" that the tenant had sustained loss (maximum £250) by eviction; (*b*) giving compensation for "improvements" introduced by the occupier, though with sundry provisos and computations as to how long the occupier had enjoyed his improvements; and (*c*) legalized the Ulster Tenant Right Custom (q.v.), which had begun in the seventeenth century and was marked by security of tenure (so long as the rent was paid) and the right of the tenant to sell his goodwill. The act failed because of the variety of its exemptions, because the principles of administration tended to reduce the amount of compensation to a minimum, and because the landlord still raised his rents. But a new era had begun in so far as the policy of *laissez-faire* was shown to have collapsed; and when the raising of rents and the recurrence of bad seasons brought Irish agriculture into a state bordering on ruin, there was set up the Bessborough Committee, whose recommendations gave rise to the *Three F's Act* of 1881, giving to the tenant (*a*) the right of free sale of his interests in his holding, (*b*) fixity of tenure, and (*c*) a fair rent assessed by an independent tribunal. A Land Commission was set up to administer the new act, and worked well. The act was amended in 1891 and 1896. It shows clearly the new principle in Irish land legislation—to adjust the relation between landlord and tenant to actual facts, and to make the parties co-owners.

The problem, however, was not yet solved. The fixing of rents tended to produce a reduction of rents; wherefore the landlord began to abolish the dual relationship by selling the land to the occupying tenant with state aid. Several stages in this process can be discerned: (1) The "*Bright Clauses*" of the act of 1870 provided that two-thirds of the purchase price should be offered by the board of works; (2) the *Land Commission* of 1881 was empowered to make advances to the tenant to enable him to purchase his holding, the term of repayment being 35 years; (3) the "*Ashbourne Act*" of 1885 advanced £5,000,000 (and another five millions in 1888) to the Land Commission, which advanced henceforward four-fifths of the purchase money to the tenants, repayment being completed in 49 years; (4) the "*Balfour Act*" of 1891 provided that, the ten millions being by now exhausted, the vendor should be repaid by means of a special Guaranteed Land Stock (at 3¾ per cent. per annum for 30 years), the dividends being paid out of a land purchase account established by the commission and kept up to requirements by a charge on a similarly established Guarantee Fund; (5) the "*Balfour Act*" of 1896 reduced the annuity of repayment every decade; (6) the "*Wyndham Act*" of 1903 opened a new era by establishing within the Land Commission an Estates Commission to facilitate the sale of entire estates, and by enabling the tenant to purchase on still more easy terms than heretofore, in a term of 68 years. The result of this system was soon apparent in increased improvements, increased thrift on the part of the occupiers, and a rise in the standard of living.

Among later acts may be noted the *Evicted Tenants (Birrell's) Act* of 1907, which enabled the estates commission to acquire untenanted land wherewith to provide holdings for tenants evicted since 1878; *Mr. Birrell's Land Act* of 1909, which repaired the defects inherent in its predecessor by making the treasury and not the ratepayers responsible for the excess stock necessary; and the *Northern Ireland Land Act* of 1925 (15 and 16 Geo. V, c. 34), which further amended the law. By the *Land Purchase Act* of 1924 (15 Geo. V, c. 3), the treasury guaranteed a loan (principal and interest not to exceed £30,000,000) to be raised by the Irish Free State government for the purchase of land in Ireland.

P. G. Dardis, "The Occupation of Land in Ireland in the First Half of the 19th Century," 1920; G. Sigerson, "History of Land Tenure in Ireland," 1871; W. F. Bailey, "The Irish Land Acts," 1920.

[A. C. F. B.]

Land Tax, The, was first levied in its present form in 1692 on real estate, offices, and personal property. In the course of time the difficulties of assessment made it a land tax only and as such it came to be known. It varied in the eighteenth century between 1s. and 4s. in the pound. At first at 4s., it yielded £1,922,712, and it brought in about the same return in 1797. In 1798 it was made perpetual and was fixed at 4s. in the pound upon the valuation of 1692, provision being made for its redemption by the payment of a lump sum. This has been taken advantage of by many landowners; but at the present time there is still a large quantity of land on which the tax has not been redeemed and is still levied. Mr. Lloyd George's budget for 1909 provided for the taxation of land values; that is to say, it attempted to take for national purposes some of the unearned increment which accrued to the owners of land which had increased in value, "when it could be shown to be due to the

growth and activities of the community." Taxes of various amounts were imposed on this increase when the land was transferred or reverted to the lessor. A very elaborate valuation of the land was made necessary, and the new taxes met with much opposition. Mr. Lloyd George's land taxes were continued until 1920, when the government abandoned them. The highest figure yielded by these taxes was £715,000 in 1914. There is still a duty on mining royalties which was once part of the more ambitious scheme.

Dowell, "History of Taxation"; Kennedy, "English Taxation, 1640–1799"; Brisco, "Economic Policy of Walpole."

Land Tenure. The origin of the peculiarities of land tenure in England is exceedingly obscure. It was supposed at one time that while the so-called higher kinds of tenure, as those of the noble, the knight, the churchman, and the cultivating freeholder, were the necessary subdivisions of feudal estates, so the very various kinds of base tenure, those of villeinage and copyhold, were the result of individual caprice on the part of the superior lord; or at best, relics, mutilated or distorted, of more ancient tenancies. Such was the view of the early writers on English tenancies, as the author of the "Dialogus de Scaccario" (q.v.), Glanvill, Bracton and Fleta (q.v.), Littleton, and his great commentator, Coke. Latterly, however, the subject has been more fully, but not finally, investigated by many inquirers, German and English. A difficulty in exactly determining on the facts arises because nearly all the information which can be obtained is derived from documents the date of which, however early it may be, is long posterior to influences which, as we know, might have modified, and almost certainly did modify, the original tenures to which the documents refer. Thus, after the Roman period, the earliest deeds are those which belonged to monastic and other ecclesiastical foundations. But such foundations were essentially of foreign origin, and were the product of a more or less lengthened process, under which native custom was brought into collision with external practice, and was naturally altered by it. It is probable, too, that many of the peculiarities of what we call the feudal system have appeared at very different times, and in very different countries, not by virtue of any definite law, but solely for the economical reason that the labour of the husbandman always provides more than is necessary for his individual needs, and that, therefore, it becomes possible for a stronger man to extract from such a person part of the produce of his labours, as tax, or rent, or customary due. In return for such a tribute, the superior might covenant to leave the husbandman in peace, or even to guarantee him from the assaults of other oppressors; and thus the levy of blackmail, practised from the days of David and his companions in exile to those of Rob Roy and his tribesmen, becomes the type of those dues and duties which, in theory at least, were always characteristic of the feudal system, and were supposed to be reciprocal between lord and tenant, and, it may be, is their origin.

It is clear that the subjection of classes was characteristic of the times which preceded the Norman Conquest, as well as of those which followed it. There were serfs and slaves, inferior or dependent tenants, and military vassals, on the estate of Earl Godwin, as well as on the estate of Earl Odo. It is probable that the country folk were no better off, and no worse off, under the rule of the descendants of William the Norman than they were under that of the descendants of Alfred the Great. There was a change of masters, of landlords, but no change of system. It is probable that the gradual discontinuance of a system under which fines were levied for offences, with the alternative of slavery, and the gradual establishment of a custom under which outrages were deemed an offence against the king's peace, and punishable by his judges, may have assisted the process by which freemen were degraded from their condition, and forced to accept a lower status, and may even have assisted the counter-process by which the serf gradually achieved the rights of the freeman.

When we are in view of the actual state of things which prevailed in England when documentary evidence is clear and continuous, the following facts are obvious and universal. There was an over-lord in every manor, the manor being generally, but not always, identical in its boundaries with the parish. This over-lord might be the king, or a noble, or an ecclesiastic, or a corporation, or a private individual. The over-lord who was a subject was liable to certain dues to the king, either fixed by custom, or granted on emergency by parliament, and his estate was liable to forfeiture in the event of his committing certain offences, or to escheat in case he died having no heirs to succeed him. It was important that there should be a central authority, and no means were more ready and more certain to effect this result than to inflict the penalties of forfeiture on certain acts of disobedience or outrage. Beneath these lords were free and serf tenants, all of whom had a sufficient amount of arable land joined to their rights in the common pasture, and their use of the wood for fattening their hogs for the purpose of their own maintenance and that of their families. The free tenants had to pay a rent fixed in amount, either in money or kind, sometimes in labour, but the amount of either was unalterable; they were masters of their own actions as soon as this rent was satisfied, or they could transfer their holdings and quit the manor. The serf was sometimes bound to a money rent. But his liabilities were generally in labour, though even this could be commuted for money from a very early period, and constantly was commuted. When his labour was yielded, or its equivalent

was paid, he was free to employ himself on his land, or, for the matter of that, on any other tenant's land, or on the lord's land, at ordinary wages. But he could not leave the manor without licence, for which he paid an annual sum; he could not give his daughter in marriage without paying a fine, or send his son to school in view of his becoming a priest, or get him made a monk, without similar payments, and when his occupancy descended to his heirs they paid a fine on admittance, and were brought under his liabilities, while sometimes his best chattel, horse or ox, or article of furniture, was forfeited to the lord under the name of a heriot. His liabilities were not in the aggregate much more heavy than those of the freer tenant; in some particulars they were less, for he was not held to any military service, but his condition was degraded, and he was under social disabilities.

It appears that in early times, and until 1290, the tenants, whether lord or vassal, could not sell or alienate their estates. But they had, it is well known, the right of admitting subtenants to themselves, though probably this right was not exercised, or if exercised was difficult for the inferior tenant. At the date above referred to, every tenant was permitted, by the statute *Quia Emptores* (q.v.), to alienate his estate to another, under the condition that the newcomer should stand in exactly his position. Still the lord was allowed to admit new tenants to his own domain, serf or free, provided that the new tenant held on the same condition as the old. In effect, however, that which was so characteristic of ancient tenures ceased—the subordination of ranks created at the pleasure of the lord. Whatever distinction existed was traditional, and therefore ceased to be vital. It was certain gradually to decay. But before the change referred to was made by law the lord was permitted to create a new kind of estate, the form of which was exempted from the later alteration. This was the "estate tail," an institution the significance of which no one foresaw, as it was not employed on a large scale till nearly two centuries after its first establishment.

Such were lay estates. They were all liable to obligations—the higher, that of knight service (q.v.), to military duties; the next, that of a socager, to rent; the third, that of the serf, to labour. There were also cottagers who subsisted by their labour, who had a tenement with its garden or curtilage, and who had to get their livelihood by hiring themselves as farm servants. But vast estates were held by the clergy, either secular, who correspond to the parochial clergy and the dignitaries of the Church, archbishops, bishops, deans, and chapters, who generally held land beyond the tithes with which they had immemorially been endowed, or the monks. It is said that before the Reformation the monasteries held a third of all the land in the kingdom. In theory the clergy were held to satisfy all obligations by their prayers, or by divine service, as it was called, and were said to hold their land by free alms. But in course of time, though not without violent struggles on their part, they were made to contribute by grants to the necessities of the Crown, through parliament. The lands of the Church were thus a fourth kind of tenure; and these four kinds were practically inclusive, for another which is enumerated, that in ancient demesne, and which consisted of land which had been once the estate of the Confessor, or of the Conqueror, was possessed of certain privileges and exemptions only.

But the expression "land tenure" may be also taken to indicate the process by which these lands were occupied and distributed among the several tenants. The lord always had a manor house, in which a local judicature was held, the judge being the lord's steward, and a jury, who presented offenders, the court leet being inhabitants of the manor taken from all ranks, and the homage, of freeholders only, who registered the inhabitants on the court roll. The lord also possessed the best land in the parish, the water meadow—always of great value in a country where there were no winter roots and no artificial grasses—and the most convenient and fertile fields. Each homestead also had its paddocks and curtilages near the house and farmyard. But the principal part of the tenant's holding was in the common arable fields. Here the land was ploughed in strips, generally each a half-acre in dimension, a "balk" or space of unploughed land being left between each one of these sets of strips. In these strips the lord, the parson, the monk, the farmer shared in varying quantities. On such land it was not easy to induce fertility, except by carrying manure to it, for it would not be possible to fold sheep on such plots, and folding sheep was then, as now, the best way in which to restore exhausted land. This kind of cultivation, which Seebohm attempted to trace back to very remote times, remained, and was customary in many parts of England down to very modern experience.

The first great change in the English land tenures were from the consequences of the Black Death (q.v.) in the middle of the fourteenth century. Such was the scarcity of hands that wages rapidly doubled, and even trebled, in amount. The serf's labour had been commuted for money payments, and now the lord found that he was often receiving for labour which had been his due not more than a third of its current market value. After trying the effect of proclamations, laws, and penalties, he attempted and, as the facts prove, simultaneously over England, to reverse the barga... The serfs resented the action, and the tremendous insurrection of Wat Tyler, which involved two-thirds of the country and all its most prosperous districts, broke out. The insurrection collapsed, but tenure in villenage (q.v.) was rapidly developed into copyhold or customary tenancy.

Within less than a century land which in previous times could not have been held without social degradation was freely purchased by nobles and gentlemen.

The next important change came after the Wars of the Roses. Up to this time entails had been very rare, and only in small estates. Now, however, the landowner, who entered the fray, and belonged to the beaten party, had to incur the risks of forfeiture. But an estate tail was not liable to forfeiture on treason, perhaps not even to a parliamentary attainder. Hence the custom arose of entailing the great estates as a measure of precaution, since no one could forfeit what was not his, and the estate of the descendant would survive the misconduct of his ancestors. Henry VIII, however, framed a statute under which entails were made liable to the penalties of treason.

The same reign saw the vast estates of the monasteries, and not a few of those belonging to the secular clergy, flung upon the market, in amount perhaps not less than two-fifths of the whole land in the kingdom. These estates passed from the Crown by grant or purchase to a new, and generally needy, set of proprietors, and great distress ensued. But there was no modification in the nature of tenures. The old divisions still prevailed—knight service, socage (q.v.), copyhold, and free alms. But what had once been honourable had now become oppressive. The nobles and gentry would have gladly commuted their liabilities to the Crown on fair terms, and strove to make a bargain with James. But the scheme broke down, and the policy of the king, in exacting his extreme rights, doubtless led to the formation of a parliamentary party within the House of Lords, which gave some weight in the struggle between Charles and the House of Commons.

The Civil War between king and parliament developed a new kind of land tenure, which has continued to our own day, and has been the principal instrument by which land has been accumulated into few hands. The Royalist party were, after their defeat, in great danger of ruin. They knew that they had to bear serious and heavy fines, and they feared that a sentence of forfeiture might fall upon them. Hence they employed two lawyers, Palmer and Bridgman, who devised the *strict settlement*, under which the ancestor (say the father) was made tenant for life, with certain powers, and his descendants (say his sons) were made succeeding tenants in tail. The conveyance, according to Blackstone, was of suspicious validity, and was certainly in contravention of public policy, as it practically created a perpetuity. But after the Restoration the two lawyers became Crown officers, and in their administrative capacity gave validity to the devices which they had invented as conveyancers. During the same period the abolition of the tenures in chivalry took place. The Court of Wards and all feudal incidents were abolished by resolutions of both Houses in February 1646. These resolutions were repeated by an act of parliament in 1656, and confirmed by the act of the Convention Parliament in 1660. The Crown was compensated for the loss of its hereditary revenue from the feudal incidents by the grant of half the excise, a tax established by the Long Parliament two years before the abolition of tenures in chivalry, and, like it, confirmed at the Restoration.

[The most important change in the law of land tenure made since 1660 was that effected by the Law of Property Act of 1922. By this act the distinctions between freehold and copyhold were swept away; the law of real property was assimilated to the law of personal property; and the mode of transfer of land was greatly simplified. The great act of 1922 has been followed by seven supplementary statutes the effect of which has been the entire reconstruction of the English law of land tenure.] [Bocland; Folkland; Manor, The Mediæval; Villenage.]

Maine, "Early History of Institutions"; Seebohm, "The English Village Community"; Ross, "Teutonic Holdings"; Blackstone, "Commentaries"; Digby, "History of Law of Real Property"; Brodick, "English Land and Landlords"; Shaw Lefevre, "Agrarian Tenures"; Maitland, "Domesday Book and Beyond."] [J. E. T. R.]

Landen, The Battle of (July 29, 1693), or, as it is sometimes called, the battle of Neerwinden, resulted in the defeat of William III by Marshal Luxemburg. By an adroit feint on Liége the French general drew the king towards him. William might still have retreated, but he resolved to fight. The allies protected their line by a breastwork and a series of entrenchments, and 100 pieces of cannon were placed along it. On the left flank were the village of Rumsdorp and the little stream of Landen, and on the right the village of Neerwinden. The fighting began about eight in the morning. Two desperate assaults on the village were repulsed, in the first of which Berwick, who led the French, was taken prisoner. Luxemburg ordered a last attack to be made by the household troops, which was also unsuccessful. But the centre and left of the allies had been thinned to support the conflict at Neerwinden, and a little after four in the afternoon the whole line gave way. William with the utmost bravery arrested the progress of the enemy, and made the retreat less disastrous. The French were victorious, but they had lost 8,000 of their best men (the allies lost 12,000). Luxemburg did not venture to molest the retreat, and William soon reorganized his forces.

J. W. Fortescue, "History of the British Army," vol. i, 1889.

Lane, Richard (1584–1650), an eminent lawyer of the reign of Charles I, is chiefly known for his able defence of Strafford in 1641. He joined the king on the outbreak of the Civil War, and in 1645 was made lord keeper. This

office he continued nominally to hold under Charles II, whom he followed into exile in 1650.

Lanfranc (1005 ?–89), Archbishop of Canterbury, was the son of a wealthy citizen of Pavia. After studying at various schools in Italy and France he began himself to teach, eventually settling at the cathedral school of Avranches in Normandy. Becoming convinced, however, of the futility of secular learning, he entered about 1040–42 the Benedictine abbey of Bec, of which he was made prior some three years later. Soon afterwards he became involved in the controversy on the Real Presence which Berengar of Tours had started. Brought at first into hostile contact with William of Normandy, owing to the latter's marriage within the prohibited degrees, he subsequently became closely attached to the duke. In 1063 he was made abbot of the new monastery founded by William at Caen and, in 1070, after the conquest of England, he was appointed Archbishop of Canterbury. During the years of his primacy he worked in close accord with William, with whose help he gradually filled most of the English sees with Normans, and carried through a thorough reform of the entire ecclesiastical system. He defined the relations between York and Canterbury, restored the Church councils to their former importance, reorganized the episcopate, inspired a monastic revival, and enforced the Hildebrandine decrees with regard to simony and the marriage of the clergy; while his influence may also be discerned in the Conqueror's edict separating ecclesiastical from civil jurisdiction. His support of Hildebrand's policy was, however, confined within definite limits. In spite of the decree of 1075 he made no attempt to raise in England the question of lay investiture; and he openly sided with William in his resistance to the papal demand for homage. His independence of spirit and his practicality enabled him to steer a middle course between the conflicting tendencies of the age, and to establish the Norman Church in England upon a firm foundation.

Ordericus Vitalis, "Hist. Eccles."; Crispin, "Life of Herbrien"; "Opera Lanfranci," ed. Giles, 1844; A. J. Macdonald, "Lanfranc," 1926.

Langdale, Marmaduke, 1st Baron (1598 ?–1661), was a gentleman of Yorkshire who raised troops for Charles I and supported his cause with unwavering fidelity. In February 1645 he successfully relieved Pontefract, and in the summer of the same year he commanded the king's left wing at Naseby. After the battle he collected fresh troops, and attempted, on the king's directions, to relieve Chester. In the attempt he was utterly routed by Colonel Poyntz at Rowton Heath (September 1645). In the second Civil War he took up arms, seized Berwick, and formed a corps of English Cavaliers auxiliary to Hamilton's army. At Preston, where his corps formed the van, he was taken prisoner, but contrived to escape to the continent. Charles II created him a baron, and at the Restoration he was appointed lord-lieutenant of Yorkshire.

F. H. Sunderland, "Marmaduke, Lord Langdale," 1926.

Langham, Simon (*d.* 1376), Abbot of Westminster, was treasurer of England from 1360 till 1363, when he was promoted to the chancellorship. He is said to have been the first chancellor to address parliament in English. In 1366 he was appointed Archbishop of Canterbury, and resigned the great seal. During his primacy he did much to correct abuses which had crept into the Church, but in 1368, having been made a cardinal without the royal consent, he was compelled by Edward to resign his archbishopric. He soon regained the royal favour, and was allowed to hold a variety of preferments, but when in 1374 the primacy again fell vacant the king refused to countenance his re-election.

Langport, Battle of (July 10, 1645). After the battle of Naseby (q.v.) Fairfax marched into the west to attack Goring's army. On July 10 Fairfax, advancing from Long Sutton towards Bridgwater, found Goring's forces strongly posted on some hills on the east of Langport. The Royalists were defeated, driven through Langport, and chased by Cromwell and the horse to within two miles of Bridgwater. The victory enabled Fairfax to besiege and capture the Somersetshire fortresses.

Sir C. R. Markham, "Fairfax," 1870.

Langside, The Battle of (May 13, 1568), was fought near Glasgow between the forces of Mary, Queen of Scots, who had just escaped from Lochleven Castle, and those of the Regent Moray. Mary, in spite of the superior numbers of her army, was defeated.

Biographies of Mary, Queen of Scots.

Langton, John de (*d.* 1337), was chancellor from 1292 to 1302, during which period he seems to have carried on the policy of Robert Burnel. In 1305 he was made Bishop of Chichester, and shortly after the accession of Edward II (1307) was reappointed to the chancellorship, which he held till 1309. He had at first supported the king, but the infatuation of Edward for Gaveston drove Langton to side with the barons, and he was one of the Ordainers (q.v.) appointed in 1310 to regulate the royal household and realm. The rest of his life seems to have been spent in attending to the affairs of his bishopric, and in mediating between the king and the baronial opposition.

Langton, Stephen, Archbishop of Canterbury (*d.* 1228), is sometimes said to have been born at Langton, near Spilsby, but of his parentage and early life nothing certain is known. He studied at the university of Paris, where he made the acquaintance of Lothaire, who, on his election to the papal throne as Innocent III, sent for Langton, whose reputation as a scholar and divine was very great. In 1206 he was

created a cardinal. Shortly afterwards Hubert Walter, Archbishop of Canterbury, died, and a disputed election to the primacy followed. The younger monks chose Reginald, their sub-prior, while the elder, and the suffragan bishops, elected John de Gray, Bishop of Norwich, the king's nominee. On the case being referred to the pope, Innocent rejected the claims of both candidates, and caused Langton to be chosen. The king refused to accept him, and regarded the action of the pope as an unjustifiable interference with the rights of the king and the English Church. For six years (1207–1213), John remained obdurate. Various proposals and offers were made by Innocent; England was placed under an interdict (1208), and the king himself excommunicated (1209), but it required a threat of deposition to induce him to yield (1213). Throughout this period Langton showed a commendable moderation, and consistently endeavoured to mediate between the king and the pope; after his admission to England Langton, though the papal nominee, soon won the gratitude of the English by his opposition to the tyranny of John. It was he who produced the charter of Henry I before the baronial council at St. Paul's as an indication of the claims they ought to make; and all through the struggle for the Charter he was the soul of the baronial party. For a time he forfeited the pope's favour for this opposition to the pope's new vassal; but his great personal influence with Innocent ultimately prevailed, and the accession of Henry III and the acceptance of the Charter by the papal party restored him to full influence. In 1222 he held a Church council at Oseney, "which is to the ecclesiastical history of England what the assembly at Runnimede in June 1215 is to the secular history." He procured the recall of the papal legate Pandulf (1221) (q.v.), and a promise that during his lifetime no more legates should be sent from Rome. He excommunicated the mercenaries and feudalists, thereby assisting in the restoration of order. His death, in 1228, was soon followed by the quarrel of Hubert de Burgh and the king. He was one of the ablest of the mediæval archbishops.

Biographies by C. E. Maurice, 1872, and J. R. Leeming, 1915. [F. S. P.]

Lansdown, Battle of (July 5, 1643). After the battle of Stratton, Hopton and the Cornish army were joined by the king's troops under Lord Hertford and Prince Maurice. The Parliamentary troops, defeated at Stratton, were likewise reinforced by the army of Sir William Waller, who took up his head-quarters at Bath. Waller entrenched himself at Lansdown, where he was attacked by Hopton's army on the morning of July 5, and the latter remained masters of the field. But the losses of the conquerors were very great; they included Sir Bevil Grenville, "whose loss would have clouded any victory," and many officers. Hopton himself, wounded in the battle, was nearly killed by an explosion of gunpowder the next day.

Lansdowne, Marquises of. [Petty, William (1737–1805); Fitzmaurice, Henry Charles Keith Petty (1845–1927).]

Large Declaration, The, was a narrative of Charles I's conduct towards the Scots, published to justify his policy during the events which led to the war of 1639. It was the work of Walter Balcanquhal, dean of Durham. The Scottish general assembly, which met at Edinburgh in August 1639, demanded that the king should suppress the book, and hand the author over to them for punishment.

Largs, The Battle of (October 2, 1263), was fought between Hakon of Norway and the army of Alexander III on the coast of Ayrshire. The Norwegians effected a landing, but were driven back to their ships (which had already suffered many losses in a storm) by the Scots.

Laswari, The Battle of (November 1, 1803), was fought 80 miles south of Delhi, between the British, commanded by General Lake, and fifteen of Dowlat Rao Sindhia's disciplined battalions. The engagement was very severe and protracted. Sindhia's sepoys were defeated.

J. C. Grant Duff, "History of the Mahrattas," 1826 and 1921.

Lathe was one of the five (originally six) administrative divisions of the county of Kent, answering to the ridings of Yorkshire. The court of the lathe was superior to that of the hundred. The judicial importance of the lathe distinguishes it from the rape of Sussex, the importance of which was apparently from the outset geographical rather than administrative.

Latimer, Hugh (1485 ?–1555), Bishop of Worcester, was the son of a prosperous Leicestershire yeoman-farmer. At fourteen years of age he entered Clare Hall, Cambridge, where he threw himself with conspicuous energy into the special studies affected by the favourers of the New Learning. He attracted the favourable notice of Thomas Cromwell, and on finally quitting Cambridge he was preferred by him to the living of West Kington, in Wiltshire. By this time Latimer had earned for himself no small amount of fame as an eloquent and telling preacher; but the boldness with which he proclaimed his religious views, and his unsparing denunciations of the existing ecclesiastical abuses, frequently placed him in positions of danger, from which it required all his own native address, backed up by powerful friends at court, to extricate him. In 1535 his favour with Henry VIII, whose chaplain he was, together with the influence of Thomas Cromwell, procured his elevation to the see of Worcester. But after the enactment of the Six Articles (q.v.) he was at once made an example of, and imprisoned for contumacy (1539).

He was released in 1540, and remained in obscurity till 1546, when he was again imprisoned; but on the accession of Edward VI he was immediately set free. He declined, however, to resume the responsibility of an episcopal charge, occupying himself instead with the more congenial work of an itinerant preacher. In this character his popular preaching talents exerted a much wider and more permanent influence in the spread of his opinions than the most vigorous exercise of his episcopal authority could have done; and there is no doubt that his enthusiastic missionary labours contributed very largely to fix the doctrines of the Reformation in the minds of the people. On Edward VI's death he was again imprisoned, in the Tower and at Oxford, where attempts were made to compel him, with Ridley and Cranmer, to a disputation on the Mass. He was martyred with Ridley at Oxford, October 16, 1555.

Latimer, "Sermons," ed. Beeching, 1906; biographies by R. M. and A. J. Carlyle, 1899, and J. J. Ellis, 1890; J. C. Ryle, "Bishops Latimer and Ridley," 1925.

Laud, William, Archbishop of Canterbury (1573–1645), the son of a clothier of Reading, was educated at Reading school and St. John's College, Oxford. He was elected a fellow of that college in 1593, ordained in 1601, and became one of the principal opponents of the Puritan party in Oxford. In the year 1605 he caused great scandal by performing the marriage of the Earl of Devonshire to Lady Penelope Devereux, who had been divorced from her husband on account of her adultery with the earl. In spite of this he was elected president of St. John's in 1611, made one of the king's chaplains, and appointed successively archdeacon of Huntingdon and dean of Gloucester. In 1621 he was further promoted to the bishopric of St. David's. King James, it is said, hesitated considerably to entrust a bishopric to so zealous and energetic a churchman. "He hath a restless spirit, which cannot see when things are well, but loves to toss and change, and bring matters to a pitch of reformation floating in his own brain." Laud became the friend and spiritual adviser of Buckingham, and it was in order to convince the wavering mind of his patron's mother that he entered into controversy with the Jesuit Fisher on the questions at issue between the English and Roman Churches. With the accession of Charles his influence increased, and he employed it to promote and protect Arminian divines. The Commons remonstrated against his influence in 1628, but the king replied by promoting him to the bishopric of London (July 1628), and promising him the archbishopric of Canterbury. But it was not till his return from accompanying the king in his progress to Scotland that Laud actually attained the archbishopric (August 1633). Therefore his activity during the years 1628–33 was mainly confined to the diocese of London, and to the University of Oxford, of which he was elected chancellor in 1630. But his influence stretched beyond the sphere of his immediate action, and inspired the silencing of controversial preaching, the suppression of the feoffees for impropriations, and other important steps in the king's ecclesiastical policy. After 1633 he was able to work more effectually. "I laboured nothing more," he says, "than that the external public worship of God—too much slighted in most parts of this kingdom—might be preserved, and that with as much decency and uniformity as might be, being still of opinion that unity cannot long continue in the Church where uniformity is shut out at the church door." He began by reviving the custom of metropolitical visitation, and sending officials to inquire into the condition of every diocese in his province. All communion tables were fixed at the east end of the church, every clergyman was obliged to conform to the Prayer Book, a searching inquiry took place into the conduct of the clergy, and uniformity of ritual was generally enforced. In the council he quarrelled with Cottington and Windebank, raised Juxon to the treasury, supported Wentworth against his enemies, and struggled to contend against the influence the queen exercised in favour of the Catholics. The new canons and Prayer Book, which the king endeavoured to force on the Scots, were submitted to and amended by Laud. That the English Prayer Book was imposed on Scotland, rather than the liturgy prepared by the Scottish bishops, was Laud's doing. Throughout the two Scottish wars the archbishop, as a member of the junto for Scottish affairs, supported Strafford in his vigorous policy. Therefore, as soon as the Long Parliament met, he was involved in the same fate, impeached (December 18, 1640), committed to custody, and, after the articles against him had been passed by the unanimous vote of the Commons (February 24, 1641), imprisoned in the Tower. For two and a half years the archbishop was imprisoned without a trial, his revenues sequestrated, his goods sold, and his papers seized. The trial began at last in March 1644, the main charges being that he had endeavoured to subvert the laws, and overthrow the Protestant religion. The judges whom the Lords consulted declared that none of the charges made fell within the legal definition of treason. But this did not save him from the hatred of the Presbyterians, and he was condemned to death by an ordinance of both Houses. His execution took place on January 10, 1645. The purity and lofty purpose of his life redeem the intolerance and severity with which he pursued his aim.

Laud's own "Works," collected in the "Library of Anglo-Catholic Theology"; biography by W. H. Hutton, 1895; also Creighton, "Laud's Position in the History of the English Church," 1895.

[C. H. F.]

Lauder Bridge, The Affair of (1482). During an expedition against England the Scottish nobles, exasperated by the arrogance

of the low-born favourites and ministers of James III, determined to put them to death, the Earl of Angus offering to be the one to "bell the cat." Accordingly Robert Cochrane, Roger Torphichen, Preston, and Leonard were seized, and hanged over the bridge of Lauder, in the presence of James III, who was himself taken to Edinburgh Castle, and placed under restraint. Lauder is in Berwickshire, twenty-six miles from Edinburgh. [Douglas, Archibald, 5th Earl of Angus.]

Lauderdale, John Maitland, Duke of (1616–82). [Maitland.]

Lauffeld (Lawfeldt), The Battle of (July 2, 1747), was one of the most important contests during the War of the Austrian Succession in which British troops were engaged. The Duke of Cumberland took the field in February, while in March the French army, under Marshal Saxe, invaded the Dutch Netherlands. A revolution in that country promptly placed the Prince of Orange as Stadtholder at the head of the army. But he was ignorant of tactics, and jealous of his more experienced but not less overbearing brother, the Duke of Cumberland. The disorganized forces encountered the French at Lauffeld, in front of Maestricht. The Dutch gave way and fled; and the Austrians, on the right, remained within their fortified position. The brunt of the battle fell upon the British on the left. The British horse advanced too far, and were repulsed, their commander, Sir John Ligonier, being taken prisoner. The Duke of Cumberland could not long maintain his ground; his retreat, however, was effected in good order. The British lost four standards, but notwithstanding their repulse they captured six, and retired to a strong position behind the Meuse. The number of killed and wounded on both sides was great, 6,000 to the allies and close on 10,000 to the French.

Lausanne, Conference of (November 20, 1922—July 24, 1923), took place between the Turkish government of Angora and the governments of Great Britain (represented by Marquis Curzon), France, Italy, Japan, Greece, Bulgaria, and Yugo-Slavia. The United States government was represented by an observer. The conference met in order to secure peace between the Turks and Greeks, the Angora government having repudiated the peace treaty of Sèvres (imposed on the defunct Constantinople government in August 1920) and having expelled the Greek force which had landed at Smyrna in May 1919. By the Treaty of Lausanne (July 24, 1923) Turkey regained, with the exception of territories already mandated by the League of Nations, the bulk of her territorial possessions of 1914.

[A. C. F. B.]

Law, Andrew Bonar (1858–1923), born in Canada, was educated in Glasgow, and entered parliament as Conservative member for the Blackfriars division of Glasgow in 1900. As parliamentary secretary to the board of trade he warmly supported the tariff reform movement of 1903; he fell with the Conservatives in 1906, and was unseated again in 1910 until returned at a by-election. In 1911 he became leader of the opposition in succession to Mr. Balfour. He opposed the Parliament Bill and the Home Rule Bill. In 1915 he joined the Asquith coalition as colonial secretary, and whole-heartedly supported the Lloyd George coalition of 1916, in which he was virtually a partner, holding the chancellorship of the exchequer and a seat in the war cabinet. In 1919 he became lord privy seal. But his health broke down in 1921 as a result of his labours during the war, and he retired until the formation of his own Conservative ministry in October 1922, which carried the Irish Free State Constitution Bill, took part in the Lausanne Conference (q.v.), and saw the beginning of the occupation of the Ruhr by France. He resigned in May 1923 through failing health, and died in the following October.

Law, Edward, Earl of Ellenborough (1790—1871), was the son of Lord Chief Justice Ellenborough, and entered parliament in 1813; but removed to the Upper House on succeeding his father as Baron Ellenborough in 1818. In the Wellington cabinet of 1828–30 he was at first lord privy seal and afterwards president of the board of control. In 1841 he accepted the governor-generalship of India. Under his administration in that country was accomplished the expedition into Afghanistan, under Generals Pollock and Nott, which resulted in the recapture of Ghazni and Kabul. The conquest of Sind by Sir Charles Napier, in 1843, was also undertaken by Lord Ellenborough's government, but his policy did not meet with the approval of the court of directors, and in 1844 he was recalled by that body. The Duke of Wellington, however, defended Ellenborough's policy in parliament, and on his return home he was created an earl.

Lord Ellenborough's "Political Diary, 1828–30," 2 vols., 1881.

Lawman was the name of an officer of Danish origin, who is met with in the Five Boroughs of Mercia, and other Danish portions of the country. In the towns of Danish origin there were usually twelve lawmen, whose function it was to expound and enforce the law, and, in some cases, to act as a town council or governing body. In some cases the dignity seems to have been hereditary.

Lawrence (Laurentius), Archbishop of Canterbury (605–19), was one of the companions of St. Augustine, whom he succeeded. Christianity flourished in Kent during the reign of Ethelbert; but on the death of that king, his son and successor, Edbert, threw himself into the hands of the heathen party, and threatened persecution. Justus and Mellitus fled, and it is said that Lawrence was about to follow their example, when he was admonished by St. Peter

to remain. He did so. Edbert was reconverted, and Christianity became once more the religion of the Kentish kingdom.

Lawrence, Sir Henry Montgomery (1806–57), obtained a cadetship in the Bengal army in 1822. He served in the Afghan campaign of 1843; and in 1846, after the first Sikh War, he was appointed British representative at Lahore. In this capacity he extinguished the revolt in Kashmir, under Immamud-din, against the authority of Golab Singh. In 1847 he returned to England to recuperate his health. In 1849, on the annexation of the Punjab, he was appointed one of the commissioners of the board of government, with his brother, John Lawrence, and Charles Mansel. Differing with his brother, he was removed to Rajputana by Lord Dalhousie. He was on the point of proceeding to Europe, for his health, in 1857, when, at the earnest request of Lord Canning, he assumed the chief commissionership of Oudh. He saw the discontent at the new revenue settlement, and he did his best to remove it and restore confidence. He fortified, provisioned, and garrisoned Lucknow as well as he could, as soon as he perceived the danger from the caste question. On May 19 he asked for, and obtained, plenary military and civil power. On the outbreak of the Mutiny, on the 30th, his energetic action repressed it, and expelled the mutinous sepoys. Hearing of the fall of Cawnpore, he marched out and attacked the army of Nana Sahib, but was compelled to retreat. On July 2 the enemy besieged Lucknow, and Sir Henry was struck by a shell and died two days later.

Biographies by J. J. McInnes, 1898, and F. P. Gibbon in "The Lawrences of the Punjab," 1908.

Lawrence, John Laird Mair, Lord Lawrence (1811–79), younger brother of Sir Henry Lawrence, was educated at Haileybury, and in 1829 received his nomination as a writer. In 1831 he was appointed assistant to the chief commissioner and resident at Delhi. In 1833 he became an officiating magistrate and collector. In 1836 he received the post of joint magistrate and deputy collector of the southern division of Delhi. In 1848 he was made commissioner of the trans-Sutlej provinces. He also occasionally acted as resident at Lahore. At the end of the second Sikh War he was appointed, with his brother Henry and Charles Mansel, administrator for the Punjab. He abolished the barbarous laws of the Sikhs, and introduced the Indian criminal code. The disarmament of the Punjab was effected mainly through his energy and courage. In 1856 he was made a K.C.B. At the outbreak of the Mutiny he stamped out all signs of revolt in the Punjab, at once diverted every available soldier to Delhi, and raised from the military population of the Punjab troops to oppose the sepoys. For his share in suppressing the Mutiny he was created a baronet and G.C.B. He then retired to England, and was elected a member of the Indian council. Five years later he undertook the onerous duty of governor-general. On January 12, 1864, he arrived, and found India at peace. He devoted himself to improving the life of British soldiers in India. He provided for their moral and physical condition, for their religious study and improvement, and for sanitary reform. In 1864 war was declared with Bhutan. The campaign was badly conducted, but the result was, on the whole, favourable to the British. In 1865 peace was concluded. In 1866 occurred the great famine in Orissa. The year 1867 was remarkable for the completion of many railways. At the end of the year 1868 Lawrence returned to England, and in 1869 he was raised to the peerage.

R. Bosworth Smith, "Life of Lord Lawrence," 1883 and 1908; F. P. Gibbon, "The Lawrences of the Punjab," 1908.

League of Nations, The, was established by the Peace treaties of Versailles (q.v.—1919), St. Germain (1919), Neuilly (1919), and the Trianon (1920), of each of which the Covenant of the League forms the first chapter, and came into being with the ratification of the treaty of Versailles on January 10, 1920. Its original members were twenty-nine signatories of the treaties, together with thirteen states who had been neutral during the war. It now numbers fifty-six members, including all the great powers except the United States and Russia, and most of the smaller countries except Mexico and Turkey. Its objects are "to promote international co-operation and to achieve international peace and security." The organs by which it carries out its work are the Assembly, the Council, and the Secretariat, together with the Permanent Court of International Justice and the International Labour Office. The assembly meets annually, in September. Each member-state is represented at the assembly by three delegates, but possesses only one vote. The council meets four times a year, or oftener in case of emergencies, and exercises the authority of the whole League. The council consists of five permanent members, Great Britain, France, Germany, Italy, and Japan, and nine members elected—three every three years—by the assembly (in 1927 Canada, China, Chile, Colombia, Cuba, Finland, Holland, Poland, and Rumania). Each member sends one delegate to the council. The secretariat, permanently established at Geneva, is recruited from over thirty nations under a British secretary-general, Sir Eric Drummond. It is the first international civil service.

The members of the League are pledged under the Covenant to submit international disputes to arbitration or to judicial decision by the permanent court or to conciliation by the council of the League; and to refrain from war for at least three months after the award or decision or report by the council. If any member of the League breaks the Covenant

and resorts to war, it is deemed to have committed an act of war against all other members of the League. Then the League's council meets at once to recommend what shall be done. In several cases the League's machinery has been used to prevent or stop outbreaks of hostilities. The Permanent Court of International Justice, established at The Hague, deals with international disputes of a legal character and advises the council on legal points in the questions which come before it. The court has delivered nine judgments and fourteen advisory opinions.

As a means of preventing the outbreak of war the nations are also pledged to simultaneous and general reduction and limitation of armaments. This problem has been attacked by the League in conjunction with the cognate problems of security (since the general reduction of armaments includes a reduction on the part of states which are nervous about their security and require it to be guaranteed if they are to begin to disarm) and arbitration, or the peaceful settlement of *all* international disputes. Since the signature of the Locarno Treaties, and Germany's admission to the League (1926), the League's Commissions have been actively engaged in preparing the ground for a general Disarmament Conference. A convention on the suppression of the traffic in arms has already been adopted, but not ratified, so that it is not yet in force.

The League's work to promote international co-operation covers the following fields: finance and economics, transit and communications, health, intellectual co-operation, humanitarian activities. Its chief activities under these heads have been: *Finance and economics,* the reconstruction of Austria and Hungary, the refugee settlement schemes in Greece and Bulgaria, the Brussels financial conference; *Transit and communications,* Barcelona and Geneva conference on international waterways and railroads; *Health,* anti-epidemic campaigns in Poland and Greece; establishment of epidemiological service with bureaux at Geneva and Singapore; *Intellectual co-operation,* assistance to countries whose intellectual life is endangered by post-war conditions, promotion of contact between universities, museums, etc.; *Humanitarian activities,* conventions on the suppression of traffic in opium and in dangerous drugs, on suppression of the traffic in women and children, on suppression of obscene publications, repatriation of prisoners of war from Russia, relief of refugees, Greek, Russian, and Armenian. By practising co-operation in all these fields the members of the League become better able to join in preventing outbreaks of war. Moreover, these activities maintain the interest of states which are far enough removed from Europe and its conflicts to have had no need of the League's machinery for the peaceful settlement of disputes.

Under the Covenant and the peace treaties the League is entrusted with the supervision of the government of backward territories formerly belonging to Germany and Turkey and now administered by different powers under mandate from the League; with the administration of the Saar valley and the Free City of Danzig; and with the protection of populations, in certain European countries, who are of different race, language, or religion from the majority population of the country of which they are subjects.

Parallel with the League is the International Labour Organization, which was established by the peace treaties for the international regulation of labour conditions. It consists of a general conference, a governing body, and an International Labour Office, under the League's financial control. At the general conference which meets annually each state is represented by two government, one employers', and one workers' delegate. The governing body includes eight members representing the governments of the states of chief industrial importance (at present Belgium, Canada, France, Germany, Great Britain, India, Italy, and Japan) and four government representatives selected by the government delegates to the conference; six members elected by the employers and six by the workers. The International Labour Organization has held eight conferences and adopted seventeen draft conventions, some of which are already in force in several states. The most important conventions deal with hours of work, child labour, unemployment, workmen's compensations, the right of association of agricultural workers, and conditions of employment at sea.

Sir G. Butler, "Handbook to the League of Nations," 1925; A. Zimmern, "The League of Nations at Work," 1924; P. J. Noel Baker, "The League of Nations at Work," 1926; A. F. Pollard, "The League of Nations," 1918; S. P. Duggan, "League of Nations, Principle and Practice," 1919; Sir F. Pollock, "The League of Nations," 2nd edn., 1922; "Monthly Summary" of the League; "Annuaire de la Société des Nations," 1927; R. Jones and S. S. Sherman, "The League of Nations, from Idea to Reality," 1928.

Leake, Sir John (1656–1720), was a celebrated English admiral. He entered the navy about 1673. At the siege of Londonderry he commanded the little squadron which relieved the town by breaking the boom at the entrance of Lough Foyle, and also distinguished himself at the battle of La Hogue (1692). Soon after the accession of Anne he was made vice-admiral (1703), his Whig politics being greatly in his favour. After the capture of Gibraltar he was left with 18 ships of war for its defence. In 1705 he overtook and defeated Marshal Tessé, who with the French fleet had been besieging the rock. Next year he commanded the fleet off Barcelona, and was superseded by Peterborough, after the relief of the town. Soon afterwards a fleet of merchant vessels fell into his hands. He succeeded in taking the island of Sardinia with little or no resistance; and, in conjunction with General Stanhope, drove the enemy out of Minorca (1708). In the

following year he was placed at the head of the board of admiralty. When the Tory ministry came into office Leake, on the resignation of Orford, became first lord. After the accession of George I he ceased to take any part in politics.

Biography by S. M. Leake, 1920.

Lebanon Question, The. In 1860 broke out the quarrel between the Druses and the Maronites, two Syrian sects, which led to great atrocities and cruelties on both sides. The Turkish governor of Damascus did not attempt to interfere. Great Britain and France therefore took strong and decisive steps to restore tranquillity in the Lebanon. A convention was drawn up, to which all the great powers of Europe agreed, and which Turkey was forced to accept. Its provisions were that Great Britain and France should restore order; that France should supply the troops in the first instance, and that other requirements should be such as the powers thought fit. Lord Dufferin was sent out as British commissioner, and order was soon restored. The representatives of the great powers assembled in Constantinople then agreed that a Christian governor of the Lebanon should be appointed in subordination to the sultan, and the sultan had to agree. In June 1861 the French troops evacuated Syria.

Sir A. Lyall, "Life of Lord Dufferin," 1905.

Leeds, Thomas Osborne, Duke of (1631–1712). [Osborne.]

Leet. The court leet is a relic of one of the most ancient legal institutions of the realm, viz., the primitive undifferentiated courts of the Anglo-Saxon hundreds, franchises, boroughs, and manors. These courts in the early Middle Ages exercised wide criminal jurisdiction. After the Norman Conquest this jurisdiction was much restricted, and "leet" jurisdiction was the name given to what was left of it after 1215. Leet jurisdiction, in short, was the jurisdiction left by the Great Charter to the sheriff in his tourn, or to any holder of a franchise equivalent to a great hundred court. To courts exercising this jurisdiction the name "court leet" came to be applied by the lawyers of the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries. The court leet in sixteenth-century legal theory consisted of all members of the jurisdiction or manor between the ages of twelve and sixty—even women and servants being, according to some authorities, bound to attend; but in practice all the upper classes, from earls, bishops, and barons, to monks and nuns, were by the Statute of Marlborough exempted from attendance. The steward was bound to give from six to fifteen days' notice of the projected meeting (which was to be held once or twice a year within a month of Easter or Michaelmas respectively) to "all manner of persons which are resident or deciners or owe royal suit to this leet." Proclamation having been duly made by the bailiff, excuses or "essoynes" were then made for those who were prevented from attending, and the list called over to ascertain the absentees, who were liable to be fined by the jury, which consisted of at least twelve, but might consist of more persons. If it consisted of a larger number it was sufficient if twelve concurred in any presentment; and the jury of a court leet differed from that of a court baron in that the latter might be comprised of fewer than twelve members. When the former had been sworn, his fellows followed by threes and fours, asserting that they would "present the truth and nothing but the truth." The business of the court was then entered upon, viz., that of presenting culprits. Of culprits there were two classes: (1) Those whose offences might be inquired into here but punishable by the justices of assize at the next jail-delivery; (2) Offences which might be punished as well as presented at the court leet. The first class comprised treasons and felonies, e.g., counterfeiting the king's seal, forging or clipping his coin, mutilation, various forms of murder prepense, manslaughter, arson, dove or pigeon stealing, the abetment of knaves, and theft under the value of twelve pence. The second class included the non-appearance of suitors and deciners (members of a frankpledge); neglect of anyone being above twelve years of age to take his oath of lealty and fealty to the king, or to pay his due manorial services; annoyances caused to the people of the manor by tampering with or polluting roads, ditches, and hedges. The jury might also present and punish notorious scolds, brawlers, and eavesdroppers; those who helped in a rescue or kept houses of ill-fame; vagabonds and common haunters of taverns; those who should adulterate anything they sold, be it ale, bread, lime, or flax, or who should give false measure, or sell goods at above the fair market value. The jury were likewise bound to present the officers who had failed to do their duties—the constable, ale-taster, etc.; to inquire into any abuse of purveyance, into questions of treasure-trove, abuse of commons, and outlawry. The court leet had likewise to see that there was no combination of labourers or tradesmen to exact excessive wages or prices; to insist on the practice of the long-bow, and to prevent the playing of such unlawful games as dicing, carding, tennis, or bowls. The jury of court leet also in many manors chose and swore in the bailiff, constables, ale-conners, and hayward. The steward was to be considered as judge in a court leet, and he had the power to detain a stranger passing by if the full complement of his jury was not made up. He could likewise fine for contempt of court. Such were the powers and constitution of the court leet in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries. But the court could not hold its own against the rising power of the justices of the peace, and during the

eighteenth and nineteenth centuries it vanished except as an antiquarian relic. The court leet was usually associated with the court baron, both courts originally consisting of the same members. The court leet, however, was considered by the lawyers as emphatically one of the king's courts; whereas the court baron, naturally appendant to every manor, had more particular charge of local matters, such as determining services and tenures, admitting new tenants, making new by-laws, etc.

J. Kitchin, "Court Leet"; Scrivin, "Treatise on Copyhold," 4th edn., vol. ii; F. J. C. Hearnshaw, "Leet Jurisdiction in England," 1908.

Leeward Islands, The, a colony formed by federation in 1871 of the five presidencies of Antigua (Barbuda and Redonda), St. Kitts-Nevis (Anguilla), Dominica, Montserrat, and the Virgin Islands with Sombrero, has a federal executive council of twenty, of which ten are elected by the local legislative councils of Antigua (4), Dominica (2), and St. Kitts-Nevis (4) and a federal legislative council of ten official and ten elected members who are chosen by the unofficial members of the local legislative councils of Antigua (3), Dominica (2), St. Kitts (3), Montserrat (1), and one by the governor of the Virgin Islands, which has no legislative council. Part of the Caribbees until 1671, they were then separated from Barbados and placed under a separate governor-in-chief. In 1689 Codrington was appointed with power to call legislatures of a nominated council and an elected assembly in each of the islands and one for the federal group. The general legislature met five times until 1705, when it defined the constitution by which each island was to elect five members to the general assembly, which, however, only occasionally met until it lapsed in 1798. Divided into two divisions in 1816 (Antigua and Montserrat one; St. Kitts-Nevis and Virgin Islands the other), they were reunited in 1833 and Dominica added. Attempts to revive the legislature failed until 1871.

C. S. S. Higham, "The Development of the Leeward Islands under the Restoration," 1920; F. H. Watkins, "Handbook of the Leeward Islands"; T. B. H. Berkeley, "The Leeward Islands," in Royal Colonial Institute "Proceedings," vol. xii, 1881. [H. R.]

Legates, Papal, were the messengers or ambassadors of the pope, the recipients of the formal delegation of the papal authority within a given country. Before the Norman Conquest the presence of a papal legate in England was rare and exceptional. The earliest founders of Christianity in England were indeed in such close relation to the popes that there was very little need for other than direct intercourse with them. Accordingly there is no trace of papal legation between the mission of John the Precentor to Theodore's council at Hatfield (q.v.) in 680 and the mission of George and Theophylact, "to renew the faith which St. Gregory had sent us" ("Anglo-Saxon Chronicle," s.a. 785) at the famous council of 787. During the next three centuries papal legations are equally rare. The subordinate position of Nothhelm "*præco a domino Eugenio Papa*," at the Clovesho Synod of 824, shows the legation invested with few of the dignities of later times. Under Edward the Confessor the mission of an envoy of Alexander II to counteract the adhesion of Stigand to the anti-pope marks the beginning of a new period which the Conquest further developed. But while admitting the papal delegates, and using them in 1070 to reform the Church on Norman lines, William I established the rule that no legate should be admitted into England unless sent at the instance of the king and Church. Anselm claimed for the see of Canterbury a prescriptive right to represent the pope in England. Archbishop William of Corbeuil obtained from Honorius II (1126) a formal legatine commission over the whole island of Britain. From this precedent grew the ordinary legation of the archbishops, which, acceptable by Church and nation as involving less practical interference with the ordinary rule of the Church, was agreeable to the pope as implying that the independent metropolitical jurisdiction of Canterbury was the result of papal delegation. The steps in the process are as follows: on William of Corbeuil's death, Henry of Winchester was preferred to Theobald, the new archbishop, who obtained the legation, however, after the death of Henry's patron, Pope Innocent II. Henry II for a time got Roger of York appointed legate instead of Becket; but during the quarrel Becket received the delegation. The next two archbishops were appointed legates, though Longchamp of Ely succeeded Baldwin, when the latter went on crusade, and Hubert Walter had to give up the title on the death of Celestine III. The surrender of John gave opportunities for extraordinary foreign legates, such as Gualo (q.v.) and Pandulf (q.v.), who almost ruled England in the minority of Henry III; but Langton obtained their recall, and the appointment of himself as *legatus natus*, and a promise that in his lifetime no other legate should be sent. Henceforth the archbishops of Canterbury were regularly recognized as ordinary legates. In 1352 Thoresby of York acquired the same privilege for the northern province. The suspension of Chichele by Martin V because he could not get the Statute of Provisors repealed seems not to have been recognized; and Beaufort of Winchester's special delegation did not supersede the ordinary jurisdiction of Canterbury. But *legati missi*, *legati a latere* were still sent upon occasion. The missions of Otho and Othobon, and of Guy, Cardinal Bishop of Sabina, are good instances during Henry III's time. Wolsey combined with his small ordinary jurisdiction as Archbishop of York an extraordinary commission as legate, which became the excuse for his overthrow, and for the abolition of a power which, from the days of the Statute of Præmunire, can hardly be said to have had any legal basis in England,

however conformable to the general ecclesiastical law. Nothing but the compromise of the *legatus natus* made the position of the legate tolerable to the national feelings of England. It involved a subordination to an alien jurisdiction antagonistic to the imperial claims of the English Crown. One of the earliest steps of the Reformation was to ignore the claims of the papal legates. The mission of Campeggio in 1529 was, but for the revival of the ordinary legation of Cardinal Pole, and his supersession by Peto, the last instance of papal legation in England.

Stephens and Hunt, "History of the English Church," 5 vols., 1902; F. Makower, "Constitutional History and Constitution of the Church of England," 1895. [T. F. T.]

Legge, Henry Bilson (1708–64), was the son of William, 1st Earl of Dartmouth. He became lord of the admiralty in 1745 and lord of the treasury in 1747. In the following year he was appointed envoy extraordinary to the court of Berlin, and in 1749 became treasurer of the navy. In 1754 he became chancellor of the exchequer, but in 1755 he rebelled against Newcastle, refusing to sign the treasury warrants necessary for carrying the treaty for the Hessian subsidy to a conclusion. He was accordingly dismissed. He again assumed office as secretary of state in 1756, but was dismissed in the following year, to be shortly afterwards reinstated as chancellor of the exchequer; he was, however, again dismissed in 1761, owing to a quarrel with Bute. He continued, until his death, to adhere to Pitt in politics, although bound by no ties of friendship.

Legge, William, 1st Earl of Dartmouth (1672–1750), was a prominent statesman in the reign of Queen Anne. His principles were those of a strong Tory and High Churchman. He married a daughter of the Earl of Aylesford. On the accession of the queen he became a member of the privy council; and on the downfall of Godolphin's ministry he was made secretary of state and keeper of the privy seal of Scotland (1710). It was by making use of him that Marlborough tried to avoid dismissal from his appointments by a close union with the Tory ministry. Dartmouth was one of the persons appointed by Anne to confer with the French envoy Ménager on the preliminaries for the Treaty of Utrecht. The wholesale creation of twelve peers did not meet with his approval, but he continued in the ministry, and was created lord privy seal (1714). On the accession of George he ceased to take any share in politics.

"Legion Memorial," The (1701), was a Whig pamphlet written to express the public disgust at the treatment by the Commons of the Kentish petitioners (q.v.). It is supposed that its author was Daniel Defoe. The pamphlet takes its name from its concluding words, "our name is Legion, and we are many." Its language is extremely violent, and it contains not only questions of national politics, but also a bitter attack on the Unitarians, and on John Howe, a speaker against the Kentish petition. It accurately represented the temper of a large section of the population. The Whigs were delighted, and the Tories infuriated with it.

Legislation. There was little legislation, or formal enacting of new laws, before the Norman Conquest. The unwritten customs and rules of law that the Angles and Saxons had brought to Britain were, from time to time, authoritatively declared, revised, amended, added to, adapted to the advancing experience of the race, or even reduced to crudely constructed codes; and the result was called after the king by whom or at whose instance the task had been undertaken. This moderate measure of legislation would seem regularly to have been the joint work of the king and witan; the successive issues of laws profess to have been made either by the king and his witan, or by the king "with his witan," or "with the counsel of his witan." Indeed Alfred tells us that to his laws the *consent* of his witan was given; and the language of more than one ordinance of Ethelred II's reign states the authority of the witan alone. Kemble would rather "assert that they possessed the legislative power without the king, than that he possessed it without them." We may perhaps assume that their practical importance to this function varied with the character of the king. Very few laws were made in the reigns of the Norman kings. But in the making of these few the sovereign's will is believed to have been the sole effective force; the voice of the great and wise of the kingdom declined into an influence merely—perhaps into less. Yet it was seldom ignored; the charters and ordinances of William I and Henry I generally express the counsel or concurrence in some form of the higher clergy and barons, though it is likely that their approval was often taken for granted. The tendency, however, of the succeeding reigns was to make the share of the Great Council in the work more and more of a reality. Even the strong-willed Henry II was careful to gain its assent to the assizes or constitutions he drew up. And this tendency grew until this body was recognized as a co-ordinate power with the king in this province. In one or two instances, indeed, notably in that of Magna Carta, what now pass for laws were really treaties concluded between conflicting parties in the state. As yet the only part the people had in legislation was to hear and obey the laws that were declared to them by sheriffs or itinerant justices. "Legislative action," says Stubbs, "belonged only to the wise, that is, to the royal or national council." The incorporation of the commons with this council was gradually followed by the concession to the representatives of the people of a share in this action. But not at once to an important share. First their participation

was either deemed unnecessary or assumed; then it was admitted to be essential to the repeal of a law; next, laws were enacted on their petition; and for some time this last remained the usual practice. During the fourteenth century the right of the Commons to present petitions and receive answers to them tended steadily to become the exclusive basis of legislation. There were exceptions, certainly—more than once a petition of the clergy led to the framing of a statute; but the regular course was for the king to ordain the law at the request of the Commons, and with the assent of the Lords. And to several laws even the *assent* of the Commons is stated. But the king was still largely in fact, as in form he has always been, the author of all legislation; and the statutes that he caused to be framed on the petitions of parliament were often inadequate, evasive, or useless. To make sure of the fulfilment of their desires, therefore, parliament, towards the end of Henry VI's reign, adopted the practice of proceeding by bills which could not be altered without their sanction, but might originate in either House, or even with the king. The method of petition was not altogether abandoned; but its use became rare, except in private legislation. And already in the fifteenth century the course of procedure seems to have been substantially what it is now. The three readings, the going into committee, the proposal of amendments, were established forms by the Tudor period. Then, too, the enacting clause of statutes had taken its final form—"be it enacted by the king, our sovereign lord, by and with the advice of the Lords spiritual and temporal and Commons in this present Parliament assembled, and by the authority of the same." The language of our legislation has varied. It was generally English, but sometimes Latin, before the Conquest; was almost exclusively Latin from the Conquest till the Mad Parliament, when French made its appearance. French did not at once drive out Latin; but became the fashion of Edward I's reign, and almost universal after it. But ever since 1489 our laws have been written exclusively in English. French, however, still lingers in a few phrases: *le roy le veult* is the expression of the royal assent, and *le roy s'avisera* would be the form of royal refusal if such could now constitutionally be given.

A. F. Pollard, "Evolution of Parliament," 1920; Sir W. Anson, "Law and Custom of the Constitution"; J. Redlich, "The Procedure of the House of Commons," 3 vols., 1908; E. Jenks, "Short History of English Law," 1912. [J. R.]

Leicester, The Earldom of, which had been held from early in the twelfth century by the Norman family of Beaumont, passed in 1204 or 5 to Simon de Montfort, the crusader, who was the son of Amicia, sister to the last Beaumont earl. Simon, however, seems never to have enjoyed more than the title, and when he died (1218) his eldest son, Amalric, was well content to surrender his rights to his next brother, Simon, the famous national leader, who secured seisin of the lands in 1231. On his death at Evesham in 1265, however, all his honours became forfeit. The earldom of Leicester was granted to Edmund, Earl of Lancaster, youngest son of Henry III, and followed the fortunes of that title until the death of Henry, Duke of Lancaster, in 1361, when the honour of Leicester descended to William, Count of Holland, husband to this prince's elder daughter and co-heiress, and on her death (1362) to John of Gaunt, who married the second daughter. In the person of John of Gaunt's son, Henry of Bolingbroke, the honour was merged in the Crown. In 1564 the earldom was granted to Lord Robert Dudley, younger son of John, Duke of Northumberland; he died without legitimate issue in 1588, and the title became extinct. In 1618 it was granted to Sir Robert Sydney, Viscount Lisle, in whose family it continued until its extinction in 1743. In the following year Thomas Coke, Baron Lovel of Minster Lovel, was created Earl of Leicester, but died in 1759 without surviving issue. In 1784 George Townshend, son of George, Viscount Townshend, was created "earl" of the county of Leicester, but on the death of his son in 1855 this title also became extinct. Meanwhile, in 1837, Thomas William Coke, a great-nephew of the Thomas Coke above named, was ennobled by the singular style of Earl of Leicester of Holkham, co. Norfolk. This title still exists.

Leicester, Robert Dudley, Earl of (1532 ?–88). [Dudley.]

Leicester, Simon de Montfort, Earl of (1208 ?–65). [Montfort.]

Leigh, Thomas, a supporter of Robert, Earl of Essex, was executed for alleged complicity in a plot to procure the earl's release (1601). It is said that the revelation of his project determined Elizabeth to sign Essex's death-warrant.

Leighton, Alexander (1568–1649), a Scottish divine, filled the chair of Moral Philosophy at Edinburgh from 1603 to 1615. He published two works, "Zion's Plea" (1628) and "The Looking-glass of the Holy War" (1624), in which he violently attacked the bishops, counselling the parliament "to smite them under the fifth rib," and spoke of the queen as a Canaanite and an idolatress. For this he was sentenced by the Star Chamber to have his nose slit, one ear cut off, be publicly whipped, and imprisoned for life. In 1640 he was released by the Long Parliament, and made keeper of the state prison at Lambeth Palace in 1642.

Leinster, The Kingdom and Province of, according to the Irish legends, was first colonized by the Firbolgs, one of the pre-Gaelic

peoples of Ireland, and after they had been defeated by the Tuatha Dé Danann it was the starting-point from which the Milesians, the last invaders of ancient Ireland, overran the country. When their leader Erimon divided the land he is said to have given Leinster to Crimhthann, a descendant of the Firbolgs, which race formed the bulk of the population. About the time of the Christian era Leinster was occupied by a number of kinglets, but Tuathal Techmar, who was a member of the dominant tribe, the Scoti, broke their power, imposed upon them a fine known as the "boromean," or cow-tribute, and took a portion of their territory, including the sacred hill of Tara, to form, with additions from the other kingdoms, the over-king's kingdom of Meath. His grandson, Conn "of the hundred battles," however, had little hold on the country, and the King of Leinster joined Mogh of Munster in a victorious struggle against the over-king. At the time of the mission of St. Patrick (A.D. 433) Leinster, which comprised the present counties of Wexford, Wicklow, Carlow, Queen's County, parts of Kilkenny, King's County, and Kildare, together with the part of County Dublin south of the Liffey, had apparently been consolidated into one kingdom under the Maelmoras, or MacMurroughs. It had already been partially converted to Christianity by Palladius and others. The Leinster kings seem to have been practically independent of the over-kings of the Hui-Neill dynasty (438 and onwards), and in 681 they obtained an abolition of the "boromean" tribute, at the instance of St. Moling. From time to time, however, their country was invaded from Meath, and terrific defeats inflicted upon them. The country suffered also from the ravages of the Northmen and Danes, the latter of whom established a permanent dominion round about Dublin, Waterford, and Limerick. At the end of the tenth century Leinster had to submit to Brian Boru (q.v.), King of Munster, who thus became king of the southern half of Ireland. With the aid of the Danes of Dublin, Leinster attempted in 1000 to cast off his yoke, but the allies were completely defeated at Glen Mama. Maelmora was placed on the throne by Brian as sole king, but promptly began to intrigue afresh with the Danes against him, and was in consequence met by the combined forces of Brian Boru and Malaughlan, King of Meath. The battle of Clontarf (1014) (q.v.) resulted in the utter overthrow of the kings of Leinster and Dublin. It was not long, however, before the kingdom recovered and by the middle of the century we find Diarmait (Dermot), King of Leinster, driving out the Danish king of Dublin, and his son Murchad (Murtough), making the Isle of Man tributary; but these acquisitions were not long retained. Dermot's great-grandson, Dermot MacMurrough, having been expelled because of his treacheries and cruelties, repaired to Henry II in Aquitaine, and obtained permission to raise forces in England against the high-king, Roderick O'Connor. Hence began the Anglo-Norman invasion, which speedily resulted in the conquest of the coast towns, and victories over the tribes, into which it is unnecessary to enter here. On the death of Dermot in 1171, Strongbow, who had married his only child Eva, claimed the kingdom of Leinster, and his heiress transferred the claim to her husband, the great William Marshal, Earl of Pembroke. From him it eventually descended to his five daughters as co-heiresses. These ladies all married English nobles, whose descendants drew their rents, and lived away in England, the estates eventually becoming forfeited to the Crown under the statute against absentees. Large tracts of land were also given by Dermot to others of the invaders, and these grants were confirmed by Henry on his visit to Ireland in 1172. Thus the Leinster Fitzgeralds held by subinfeudation under the de Vescis, lords of Kildare, the descendants of one of Strongbow's daughters, until in the reign of Edward I the de Vesci estates were forfeited, and bestowed on the Fitzgeralds, who soon became of great importance as earls of Kildare (1316) and dukes of Leinster. They maintained a long and arduous struggle with the Irish tribes, the O'Tooles, who often confined them to their walled towns. In 1399 Richard II came to the assistance of the English Pale, but the MacMurroughs evaded battle, and he had to retire; Kildare, and the country round Dublin, was now all that was left in Leinster to the English. This state of affairs did not mend until the reign of Henry VIII, when a double policy of coercion and conciliation was pursued with some success; the Geraldines were crushed; the estates of absentee landlords were confiscated; MacMurrough, who now took the name of Kavanagh, the representative of King Dermot, was pensioned, and the other chieftains won over, their loyalty being secured by gifts of confiscated Church lands. Under Mary, Gerald of Kildare was restored to his earldom, and the districts of Leix and Offaly were planted with English colonists, becoming Queen's County and King's County respectively. During the reign of Elizabeth Leinster suffered comparatively little in comparison with Ulster and Munster, the scenes of the O'Neill and Desmond rebellions, though there was continual war then between the Geraldines and Butlers. In this reign the old kingdom of Meath was added to Leinster, together with Louth, formerly a part of Ulster. James I, true to his policy of governing Ireland by English ideas, determined to effect the Plantation of Leinster. By means of a commission to inquire into defective titles, he despoiled the natives, and even the Anglo-Irish, of large portions of their lands, which were transferred to "Undertakers" (q.v.), who speedily formed a new Irish nobility. Charles I declared large districts of land in Wicklow and Wexford to be forfeited to the Crown, but such was the outcry against the proceedings that it had to be abandoned. When Cromwell repaired

to Ireland, in order to subdue the rebellion which had broken out in 1641, his stern displeasure fell heavily upon Leinster, and the massacres of Drogheda and Wexford went far to break all further opposition. In the settlement that followed, the Irish Catholic gentry were transported across the Shannon, and their lands given to Cromwellian soldiers, and adventurers who had advanced money, but after the Restoration about one-third of their estates were restored to the dispossessed Catholics. The last great Irish land settlement—that which followed the Treaty of Limerick (1691) (q.v.)—resulted in a further forfeiture of Catholic property, but it did not affect Leinster so much as the other provinces of Ireland, and its history as a separate province may be said to have ended with the Revolution.

E. Hull, "A History of Ireland," 1926; E. Curtis, "History of Mediæval Ireland," 1923; G. Orpen, "Ireland Under the Normans," 1911–20.

[L. C. S.]

Leinster, James Fitzgerald, Duke of (1722–73). [Fitzgerald.]

Leinster, Meinhard Schomberg, Duke of (1641–1719). [Schomberg.]

Leith, the port of Edinburgh, was burnt by the English in 1313 and 1410, and again (by Hertford) May 1544 and 1547. It was afterwards held by the queen regent, Mary of Guise, and a French garrison against the Lords of Congregation, and in 1560 was besieged by a combined force of Scots and English. In 1571 it was held by the party of James VI, who nearly fell into the hands of Lord Bothwell here in 1594. During the ascendancy of Cromwell it was occupied by Lambert and Monck. In 1715 it was for a time in the hands of the Jacobite insurgents.

Lennox, Esmé Stuart, 1st Duke of (1542 ?–83). [Stuart.]

Lennox, Matthew Stuart, 4th (or 12th) Earl of (1516–71). [Stuart.]

Lenthall, William (1591–1662), was called to the bar in 1616, and, having a considerable practice, and being a member of an ancient county family, was chosen Speaker of the Long Parliament in 1640. He does not appear to have been equal to this important position, though on the attempted arrest of the Five Members (q.v.) by the king (January 4, 1642), he showed considerable spirit. In 1643 parliament made him master of the rolls, and in 1646 one of the commissioners of the great seal. In 1647, fearing the mob which attempted to overawe parliament, he withdrew to the army, but soon after returned and resumed his office of Speaker, which he continued to hold down to the expulsion of the Long Parliament in 1653. In the parliament of 1654 he was again chosen Speaker, and in 1656 was made one of Cromwell's House of Lords, having taken a prominent part in favour of the protector's assuming the title of king. On the Restoration he was deprived of his judicial office, but was one of those who received the king's pardon. He thereupon retired into private life, and to the end remained unmolested by the new government.

Leofric (*d.* 1057) was the son of Leofwine, Earl of Mercia. He received from Canute large grants from the lands formerly held by Northmen, and between 1024 and 1032 succeeded his father in the earldom of Mercia. On the death of Canute Leofric supported the claims of Harold. During the reign of Edward the Confessor he occupied a middle position between the foreign or court party and the party of Godwin, and in 1051, when matters had come to a crisis, he prevented the outbreak of civil war by mediation. He died in 1057, and was succeeded by his son Elfgar. Leofric and his wife Godgifu (the "Lady Godiva" of legend) were justly celebrated as builders of churches and monasteries, chief among them being the great minster of Coventry. [Coventry.]

E. A. Freeman, "Norman Conquest," vol. ii, 1867–71.

Leofwine (*d.* 1066) was the fifth (?) son of Earl Godwin. Probably in 1057 he was appointed to an earldom, which included the shires of Kent, Surrey, Middlesex, Essex, Hertford, and Buckingham. He was slain in the battle of Hastings.

Leslie, Alexander, 1st Earl of Leven (*d.* 1661), having gained considerable military experience in the Low Countries and Sweden, returned to Scotland in 1638, and after serving as lieutenant to Montrose, was appointed commander-in-chief of the Covenanting army, February 1639, in the May of which year he led the Scottish army to the Borders, encamping on Duns Law just opposite the royal forces. A collision was for the time averted, but in 1640 Leslie entered England, winning the battle of Newburn and taking Newcastle. On a treaty being concluded at Ripon, Leslie was created Earl of Leven by Charles I, who hoped to win him over to his side. In 1644 he again led an expedition into England, and was present at the battle of Marston Moor. After the execution of Charles I Leven supported Charles II against Cromwell, but being captured in 1651 at Angus was sent to the Tower. He was kept in honourable confinement, and released in 1654, when he retired into private life.

Biography by C. S. Terry, 1899.

Leslie, David, 1st Baron Newark, (*d.* 1682), nephew of Alexander Leslie, Earl of Leven (q.v.), and an even more able commander, accompanied his uncle to England (1644) in the capacity of major-general. He was present at the battles of Marston Moor and Naseby, and in 1645 defeated Montrose at Philiphaugh. In 1650 he was opposed to Cromwell, who defeated him at Dunbar, and was taken prisoner at Chester, and sent to the

Tower, where he remained until the Restoration. He was created Lord Newark by Charles II in recognition of his services at Worcester.

Leslie, John, 7th Earl of Rothes (1630–81), was taken prisoner at the battle of Worcester. After the Restoration he became lord treasurer and chancellor of Scotland, and in 1680 was created a duke. On his death in 1681, without male heirs, the title became extinct.

Leslie, Norman, Master of Rothes, was one of the Scottish commanders at the battle of Ancrum Moor (1545). In 1546 he headed the conspirators against Cardinal Beaton, although he took no personal part in the assassination. He was captured by a French force at St. Andrews (1547) and sent to France, but subsequently escaped.

Lethington, William Maitland of (1528 ?–1573). [Maitland.]

Levellers was the name given to an important party during the period of the Commonwealth. Early in 1647 a considerable ultra-Republican sect appeared in the New Model Army, especially among the Adjutators. The rejection of the army proposals by Charles I, and the increasing hostility displayed by the Commons towards the army, furthered the spread of such opinions, and many of the soldiers distrusted Cromwell himself on account of his too lenient treatment of the king, and their distrust produced the mutiny of November 15. [Adjutators.]

A more formidable outbreak took place early in 1649. Lilburne (q.v.), and those who thought with him, considered the existing republic too aristocratic, and little better than the monarchy to which it had succeeded. In two pamphlets, "England's New Chains Discovered" and "The Hunting of the Foxes [i.e., the army magnates] from Newmarket and Triploe Heath to Whitehall by Five Small Beagles," Lilburne demanded that the council of state should be dissolved and the management of public affairs should be given to parliamentary committees of short duration; that greater liberty of conscience and of the press should be permitted; that a new and reformed parliament should speedily come together, and the Self-denying Ordinance be revived. Lilburne and three other of the next conspicuous Levellers—Overton, Walwyn, and Prince—were arrested and brought before the council; they were committed to the Tower. On April 25 a mutiny broke out among a troop quartered in Bishopsgate, who refused to obey an order to leave London. But Fairfax and Cromwell came up quickly and crushed the rising; fifteen mutineers were tried by court-martial, and one, Lockyer, was shot in St. Paul's Churchyard. More formidable risings took place in various parts of the country. A Captain Thompson with two hundred troopers rose in revolt at Banbury, issuing a manifesto; but he was overpowered by his colonel. From Salisbury a thousand insurgents marched towards London; they were surrounded by Cromwell at Burford, and surrendered, and the very dangerous military Levelling movement was over.

Before this, another and more harmless Levelling movement had been defeated. Some thirty men met on St. Margaret's Hill and St. George's Hill, near Cobham in Surrey, where they "digged the ground and sowed it with roots and beans." They were dispersed, and their leaders brought before the council. There, one of them, Everard, declared that "what they did was to renew the ancient community of enjoying the fruits of the earth, and to distribute the benefit thereof to the poor and needy. But they intend not to meddle with any man's property nor to break down any pales or enclosures; but only to meddle with what was common and untilled, and to make it fruitful for the use of man; that the time will suddenly be, that all men should willingly come in and submit to this community."

Cromwell's attitude towards the Levellers appears in a speech of 1654, where he declared his approval of "the ranks and orders of man whereby England hath been known for hundreds of years. A nobleman, a gentleman, and a yeoman; that is a good interest of the nation. Did not that Levelling principle tend to the reducing of all to an equality? What was the purport of it but to make the tenant as liberal a fortune as the landlord?"

T. C. Pease, "The Leveller Movement," 1916.

[W. J. A.]

Leven, Alexander Leslie, 1st Earl of (*d.* 1661). [Leslie.]

Leveson-Gower, Granville George, 2nd Earl Granville (1815-91), was first elected M.P. in 1836. In 1840 he became under-secretary for foreign affairs. He acted on Liberal principles, and was a consistent supporter of free trade. In 1846 he succeeded to the peerage. In 1848 he was appointed vice-president of the board of trade; in 1851 obtained a seat in the cabinet; and in December of that year succeeded Palmerston as foreign secretary, retiring with the Russell ministry in 1852. He was appointed president of the council in 1853, and in 1855 undertook the leadership of the House of Lords. He was reappointed president of the council in 1859 in Palmerston's second ministry. In December 1868 he accepted office under Gladstone as colonial secretary, and retained that position till July 1870, when he succeeded the Earl of Clarendon as secretary for foreign affairs, which position he occupied till 1874. He became foreign secretary again on the accession of the Liberal party to power in 1880, and colonial secretary in 1886.

Biography by Lord Fitzmaurice, 1905.

Lewes, The Battle of (May 14, 1264), was fought between Henry III and the barons under Simon de Montfort (q.v.). After the failure of the Mise of Amiens (q.v.) war became

certain, though negotiations still went on for a while. At first the war was confined to the capture of a few castles on either side, but in May both armies found themselves in Sussex, de Montfort marching to the relief of the Cinque Ports, which were threatened by the king. The royal army was encamped at Lewes, and on May 13 de Montfort arrived at Fletching, a village some nine miles distant. A final offer of peace was rejected by the king, and the baronial forces prepared to fight. At the break of day de Montfort suddenly advanced, and seized the heights above the town. Thus firmly established, he induced the royal army, by skilful strategy, to take the offensive. Prince Edward opened the battle, and by a furious charge broke through the Londoners stationed on the right of the baronial army, and pursued them for some miles from the scene of action. Meanwhile, however, the royalist centre and left, crowded between the heights and the river, were completely defeated by de Montfort. The king himself, with his brother, the King of the Romans, was taken prisoner. Edward cut his way into the midst of the baronial troops, and, unable to retrieve the fortune of the day, was eventually obliged to surrender also.

W. H. Blaauw, "Barons' War," 1844.

Lewes, Mise of (1264), was the name given to the treaty made between Henry III and the barons after the victory of the latter at Lewes. By this treaty the Provisions of Oxford (q.v.) were confirmed, a new body of arbitrators (of whom all save one were foreigners) was appointed to decide disputed points, and to choose a council for the king, to consist entirely of Englishmen; the king was to act by the advice of this council in administering justice and choosing ministers, to observe the charters, and to live of his own without oppressing the merchants or the poor; Prince Edward and his cousin Henry of Almayne were given as hostages; and the Earls of Leicester and Gloucester were to be indemnified.

Lewis, Sir George Cornewall (1806–1863), elder son of Sir Thomas Frankland Lewis, was educated at Eton and Christ Church, and called to the bar at the Middle Temple (1831). In 1835 he was appointed one of the commissioners of inquiry for the relief of the poor and into the state of the Church in Ireland; in the following year was placed on the commission of inquiry into the affairs of Malta; and was a poor-law commissioner from January 1839 to July 1847, when he was first elected member for the county of Hereford. He sat for that county until 1852, and from March 1855 until his death represented the Radnor district of boroughs. He succeeded to the baronetcy on the death of his father in 1885. He filled numerous important offices in the government. He was appointed secretary to the board of control from November 1847 to May 1848; under-secretary for the home department to July 1850; financial secretary to the treasury to February 1852; chancellor of the exchequer from March 1855 to February 1858; and was appointed secretary for the home department, June 1859. On the resignation of Lord Herbert, 1861, Sir George was appointed by Palmerston secretary for war, which office he held till his death.

Liberal. [Whig.]

Ligonier, John, Earl (1680–1770), belonged to a family of French Protestant refugees. He first appears in history as a volunteer at the storming of Liége (1702), and served as a soldier of fortune under Marlborough, being present at the battle of Blenheim. He was knighted for his gallant conduct at the battles of Dettingen (1743) and Fontenoy (1745). As commander-in-chief of the British forces in Flanders he greatly distinguished himself at the battle of Roucoux (1746); but in the following year he was taken prisoner at Lauffeld (q.v.), owing to the extreme ardour of the British horse, of which he was in command. It is said that he endeavoured to pass off as one of the enemy's officers when surrounded. Marshal Saxe availed himself of the capture to make overtures for peace through Ligonier. In 1748 he was returned to parliament for Bath, and became lieutenant-general of the ordnance, and subsequently governor of Plymouth (1752). In 1757 he was removed from the ordnance, much to his disgust, but created Viscount Ligonier of Enniskillen and commander-in-chief, although no longer fit for active service. He was created an English peer in 1763, and an earl in 1766.

C. Rabaud, "Jean Louis de Ligonier," 1893.

Lilburne, John (1614–57), a man of good family, in the county of Durham, was apprenticed to a tailor in the city of London, became engaged in the circulation of the prohibited books of Prynne and Bastwick, was brought before the Star Chamber, whipped, and imprisoned (1638). On the meeting of the Long Parliament he was released, and compensated for his sufferings (November 1640). When the war broke out he entered the army of Essex, fought at Edgehill, was made prisoner at Brentford (November 1642), tried for high treason before a council of war at Oxford, and only saved from death by the intervention of the Parliament. Afterwards he escaped, and served in the Earl of Manchester's army, finally attaining the rank of lieutenant-colonel. At the close of the war he took to writing on all subjects, and was summoned before the House of Lords for attacking the Earl of Manchester, sentenced to pay a fine, and committed to prison. When released in 1648 he became one of the leaders of the party termed Levellers (q.v.), and wrote numerous pamphlets, notably the "Foundations of Freedom." In February 1649 he presented to the Commons a paper called "The Serious Apprehensions of a Part of the People on behalf of the Common-

wealth." On March 5 appeared "England's New Chains Discovered," and before the end of the month it was followed by "The Hunting of the Foxes from Newmarket and Triploe Heath to Whitehall by Five Small Beagles." For this he was committed to the Tower, where he found means to summarize his views on government in a new pamphlet called "An Agreement of the Free People," and, after six months' confinement, was tried for high treason. The jury acquitted him, and he was released in November 1649. In 1652 he was banished and fined £7,000 for a libel on Sir Arthur Hesilrige. After the expulsion of the Long Parliament he ventured to return to England, but was arrested, tried, and a second time acquitted (August 1653). In spite of this he was confined by order of the council of state in the island of Jersey, but after a time released on his promise to live quietly.

"Notes and Queries," 1888, for a list of Lilburne's pamphlets. [C. H. F.]

Lillibullero was the name of a song satirizing James II and the Catholics, written by Thomas, Lord Wharton, in 1687, and set to music by Purcell. It became very popular, and added in no slight degree to the feeling against the king. Bishop Burnet says that this "foolish ballad made an impression on the king's army that cannot be imagined by those who saw it not. The whole army, and at last the people both in city and country, were singing it perpetually. And, perhaps, never had so slight a thing so great an effect." There was some justification for Wharton's boast that he had sung the king out of three kingdoms. "Lillibulero" and "Bullen-e-lah" are said to have been passwords used by the Irish Catholics in their massacre of the Protestants in 1641.

The ballad will be found in Percy's "Reliques," in Wilkins's "Political Ballads," and in W. Scott's "Irish Minstrelsy."

Limerick, The Sieges of, occurred in 1651 and 1691. (1) The town was besieged by Ireton on June 3, 1651, during Cromwell's campaign in Ireland. The early bombardment effected little, but negotiations opened by the garrison came to nothing, and after an abortive attempt to storm the town by boats (June 23) Ireton closely invested it in August. The garrison was slowly starved into surrender (October 27). By the terms of the capitulation the citizens and soldiers went free under a general pardon, from which, however, twenty-two persons, including Hugh O'Neill, were exempted. (2) In 1691 the Irish army was besieged in Limerick after its defeat at the Boyne. Sarsfield, commanding the 20,000 defenders, repulsed the first English assault on August 27, 1690, and enjoyed a year's respite until after the battle of Aghrim, when the Irish army again retired into the town under D'Usson and Sarsfield. Ginkel invested Limerick on August 11, 1691, and stormed the bridge connecting the Clare and Connaught portions of the city. The populace clamoured for capitulation, Sarsfield was compelled to negotiate for an armistice, and on October 3 the Treaty of Limerick (q.v. below) was concluded. With the fall of Limerick the war in Ireland came to an end.

H. Mangan, "Sieges of Derry and Limerick," 1903. [A. C. F. B.]

Limerick, The Treaty of (October 3, 1691), was the result of negotiations between the English and Irish commanders at the conclusion of the second siege of Limerick. The articles of capitulation were divided into two parts—a military treaty and a civil treaty. By the first it was agreed that such Irish officers and soldiers as should declare they wished to go to France should be conveyed thither. French vessels were to be permitted to pass and repass between Brittany and Munster. The civil treaty granted to the Irish Catholics such religious privileges as were consistent with law, or as they had enjoyed in the reign of Charles II. To all who took the oath of allegiance a perfect amnesty was promised, and their lands and all the rights and privileges they had held under Charles II were to be restored. Of the Irish army eleven thousand volunteered for the French service, but of these many afterwards deserted; three thousand either accepted passes from Ginkel, the English commander, or returned home. The terms of the civil treaty were discussed in the English parliament. A bill was prepared in the Commons providing that no person should sit in the Irish parliament, enjoy any office whatever, or practise law or medicine in Ireland until he had taken the oaths of allegiance and supremacy, and subscribed the declaration against transubstantiation. This was, however, found inconsistent with the terms of the treaty of Limerick. The bill was accordingly amended by Chief Justice Holt, and accepted in that form by the Commons. The question whether Roman Catholics could be admitted to parliament was not finally settled until the reign of George IV. The Irish legislation under William III and Anne, and during the greater part of the eighteenth century, was completely opposed to the spirit of the Treaty of Limerick. [Ireland.]

Lincoln was a Celtic town before the coming of the Romans and afterwards a Roman colony. The name (Lindum Colonia) is a compound of Celtic and Latin. The Roman colony was founded about A.D. 100. It is said to have been besieged by Hengest in 475, and became an English town. It was frequently ravaged by the Danes, and became one of the five boroughs of the Danelagh. It was recaptured by Edmund in 1016. The castle was begun by William the Conqueror in 1068. The cathedral was commenced in 1086, and built chiefly in the twelfth, thirteenth, and fourteenth centuries. Stephen won and lost the town in 1141, and regained it in 1146. Prince Louis of France besieged it in 1216. The first charter

was granted by Henry II in 1157, and parliaments were held at Lincoln in 1301, 1316, and 1327.

E. M. Sympson, "Lincoln," 1906; "Victoria County History: Lincolnshire"; "The Royal Charters of Lincoln," 1911.

Lincoln, The Fair of (1217), was the name given to the battle which was fought at Lincoln at the beginning of the reign of Henry III between the Earl of Pembroke and the adherents of Louis of France. The battle was fought in the streets of Lincoln, the castle of which was being besieged by the French. Pembroke was completely victorious, and the leader of the French army, the Count of Perche, fell in the battle.

Lincoln, John de la Pole, Earl of (*d.* 1487). [Pole.]

Lincolnshire Insurrection, The (1536), was the first of the rebellious movements set on foot by the priesthood after the dissolution of the lesser monasteries. It differed strikingly from the rising which immediately followed it in Yorkshire, in that it proceeded almost entirely from the lower orders. So much aloof, indeed, did the county gentry hold themselves from the Lincolnshire revolt that the insurgents regarded them as opponents rather than as sympathizers, giving unmistakable evidence of their opinions on the subject by holding a large number of the gentry in a state of siege in the close at Lincoln. The town of Louth was the scene of the first distinct outbreak of local discontent, where the rumour industriously spread about that Heneage, one of the clerical commissioners, who, accompanied by the Bishop of Lincoln's chancellor, was then going his prescribed rounds, had instructions to carry off the more valuable contents of the church treasury was quite sufficient to excite the country people to deeds of violence. Led on by Dr. Mackerel, the abbot of Barlings, who styled himself for that occasion Captain Cobler, the people of Louth locked and guarded the menaced church; and then, carrying away with them its great cross by way of standard, set forth *en masse* to raise the neighbouring towns and villages (October). The speedy arrival, however, of the king's troops under Sir John Russell and the Duke of Suffolk prevented any very violent display of hostility, and the rebels contented themselves with sending a humble petition to the king for the redress of their grievances, which they enumerated as coming under five heads, viz.:—(1) the demolition of the monasteries; (2) employment of persons of mean birth as ministers of the Crown; (3) levying subsidies without any adequate occasion; (4) taking away four of the seven sacraments; (5) the subversion of the ancient faith through the instrumentality of several of the bishops. Suffolk, having conferred with some few gentlemen who had joined the insurgent ranks with a view to confusing and counteracting their plans, returned an absolute refusal to these requests, but promised a general pardon from the king in the event of an immediate submission and dispersal of the rebels. This had all the desired effect, and the movement, so far as Lincolnshire was concerned, came to an end on October 19, 1536. Severe measures, however, were taken subsequently by the king. In March 1537 forty-six of the leaders were hanged in Louth, Horncastle, and Lincoln.

A. F. Pollard, "Political History of England," vol. v.

Lindiswaras, The, were an Anglian tribe occupying part of Lincolnshire, and having their centre about that portion of the county still known as Lindsey.

Linlithgow, the chief town of the shire of that name, was occupied by Edward I in 1298, and soon afterwards was taken by stratagem by Bruce. It contains a royal palace, the birthplace of James V (1512) and Mary, Queen of Scots (1542), and the scene of the assassination of the Regent Moray (1570). In 1661 the Covenant was publicly burned at Linlithgow.

J. Ferguson, "Linlithgow Palace," 1910.

Lisbon figured in English history in 1147 when the English and French crusaders engaged in the Second Crusade halted at Lisbon on their way to the east and helped Alfonso I of Portugal to capture the town from the Almoravids.

Lisle, Lady Alice (1614–85), was the wife of John Lisle, one of Cromwell's lords. After his death she lived a retired life near Winchester. She was accused before Jeffreys of harbouring fugitives from Sedgemoor. Being reluctantly found guilty by the jury, she was sentenced by Jeffreys to be burned, but her sentence was commuted, and she was beheaded at Winchester (September 2, 1685).

Litster, John (*d.* 1381), was probably a native of Norwich, and, as his name implies, a dyer by trade. He headed the insurgents in Norfolk, during the Peasants' Rising of 1381 (q.v.), and assumed the title of King of the Commons. For a short while the whole country was at the mercy of the rebels; but Bishop Le Despenser of Norwich, having raised a force, defeated the insurgents of North Walsham, and caused Litster to be hanged.

Sir C. Oman, "The Great Rebellion of 1381," 1906.

Liverpool, Earls of. [Jenkinson.]

Livery and Maintenance, Statutes of (1495 and 1504), formed part of Henry VII's attempts to curb the power of the noble families and to prevent the spread of corruption among royal officials. The famous Statute of Liveries was passed in 1504, and the chief act against Maintenance in 1495. The classic case of the Earl of Oxford, who met the king at Hedingham at the head of hundreds of his

followers and was heavily fined, is well known. [MAINTENANCE.]

C. H. Williams, "England Under the Early Tudors," 1925.

Livingstone, DAVID (1813–73), missionary and explorer, embarked in 1840 for Africa after an early life of toil and hardship in a Lanarkshire mill, and worked as a missionary until 1849, when he discovered Lake Ngami. In 1852 he set out from Cape Town to explore northwards, ascending the main Zambezi and journeying through Shinte, Kioko, and Kasanji to Loanda, whence he returned by a different route, discovering the Victoria Falls of the Zambezi on his way (November 1855), and arriving at Cape Town in May 1856 after four years' absence. In 1857 he returned to England, but soon sailed for Africa again as British consul at Quilimane, with a commission to explore eastern and central Africa. This second expedition (March 1858) was remarkable for his trip up the River Shire early in 1859, his discovery of Lake Nyasa (September 16, 1859), the loss of his vessel in December 1860, his exploration of the shores of Lake Nyasa in 1861, the death of his wife from fever in April 1862, and his journey up the Rovuma in the following August. He returned to England from Mozambique in July 1864. Next year, having meanwhile finished his book on the Zambezi, he sailed for Africa again in an endeavour to find the source of the Nile. The expedition started for the interior in the summer of 1866, but ten of his fourteen men soon deserted him through fear of Zulu attacks, and he was fast being worn out by fever and privation when he sighted Lake Tanganyika on April 1, 1867. Nevertheless he pushed on, until he was met, a living skeleton, by H. M. Stanley at Ujiji (July 1871). Stanley had been sent to find him by Mr. J. Gordon Bennett, proprietor of the *New York Herald*. He stayed with Livingstone until March 1872, when the explorer set off towards Tanganyika to continue his quest. He died on April 30, 1873, in the Ilala country. His body was conveyed to England by a relief expedition sent out by the Royal Geographical Society, and buried in Westminster Abbey, April 1874. The value of his work is beyond estimation. He opened up central Africa to the influences of Christianity, was a means of abolishing the slave trade, travelled over one-third of the African continent, and discovered the Zambezi, Lakes Nyasa and Tanganyika, and the Upper Congo. His work was taken up by Stanley.

Livingstone's "Travels," 1857, "Zambesi," 1865, and "Last Journals," 1874. H. M. Stanley, "How I Found Livingstone," 1872; biographies by W. G. Blaikie, 1880, H. H. Johnston, 1891, Thomas Hughes, 1891. [A. C. F. B.]

Llewelyn. [WALES.]

Lloyd George, DAVID (*b.* 1863), born near Criccieth, practised for a time as a solicitor in London, and entered parliament for Carnarvon boroughs in 1890. In the Liberal government of 1905 he was president of the board of trade until 1908, when he became chancellor of the exchequer and submitted (1909) a notable budget which differed in many respects from previous budgets, particularly in aiming at producing an expanding revenue for future years in addition to meeting the requirements of the current year. In December 1909 the Lords refused to pass the budget before its approval by the country. But Mr. Lloyd George was returned again for Carnarvon in the two elections of 1910. In 1911 he achieved the National Health and Unemployment Insurance Acts. His scheme for land reform developed in 1912 and 1913 was curtailed by the "Marconi affair" and the Home Rule crisis in Ireland. He remained chancellor of the exchequer for the first ten months of the Great War, and then joined the Asquith-Bonar Law coalition of May 1915 as minister of munitions. As the war progressed he advocated a diversion of part of the allied offensive from the western to the eastern front, and compulsory military service. The latter plan was realized in 1916. And in June of that year, following the death of Lord Kitchener, Mr. Lloyd George resigned the ministry of munitions and became minister for war. Six months later his disagreement with Mr. Asquith on the question of reorganizing the cabinet war committee precipitated the resignation of the coalition (December 4, 1916). A second coalition was formed with Mr. Lloyd George as prime minister. In 1917 he devoted himself to the task of securing unified control on the western front, which was ultimately achieved under Marshal Foch after the German offensive of March 1918.

Before the Peace Conference a general election was held (December 1918) and the result was an overwhelming victory for Mr. Lloyd George. At the Peace Conference (January 1919) he was one of the inner council of three, composed of himself, President Wilson, and M. Clemenceau, —and played an arduous part as conciliator and moderator of conflicting claims. On his return he was met by domestic unrest and industrial strife; particularly the coal crisis of 1919 (shelved by the appointment and report of the Sankey Commission) and the national strike precipitated by the railwaymen in October 1919. Financial panic developed during the next two years, and was met by Mr. Lloyd George in the establishment of the Geddes Committee. But the ministry fell in October 1922 on its policy of concession in Ireland and resistance to the Turks at Chanak. On the elevation of Mr. Asquith to the peerage (1925) Mr. Lloyd George became the leader of the Liberal party (dwindled to 40 members) in the Commons. The party was subsequently weakened by internal dissension during the general strike of May 1926.

H. Spender, "The Prime Minister, David Lloyd George," 1922; J. S. Mills, "David Lloyd George, War Minister," 1924.

Local Government Acts. Numerous statutes were passed during the reign of Queen Victoria, giving to certain districts the power of adopting and carrying into effect the provisions of the Public Health Act, without the necessity for a provisional order of the former board of health confirmed by act of parliament. The important act of August 13, 1888, established county councils throughout England and Wales. [Councils, Civil.] The act of 1894 completed that reconstruction of English local government outside the municipal boroughs which was begun in 1888. It made the civil parish the primary unit of local administration, providing that (1) in every parish there should be a parish meeting; (2) in every parish having a population of 300 and upwards there should be a parish council of from five to fifteen members, annually elected, which should appoint the overseers, take over all the secular duties of the vestry and churchwardens in regard to parish charities, etc., and those of the boards of guardians in regard to the sale of parish property and the working of the Allotments Act. The parish might also provide for water supply and acquire rights of way. It was limited in respect of its rating powers. The power of adopting the "Adoptive Acts" [Rates] rested with the parish meeting exclusively. Parishes with a population of less than 300 might be grouped together under one parish council, or given separate parish councils by an order of the county council. District councils were also established by the act. They were popularly elected, and replaced the rural sanitary authorities in rural districts and the improvement commissioners or local boards in urban districts, and also took over the powers of the highway authorities. The act also abolished the plural or property vote in the election of boards of guardians, and *ex-officio* or nominated membership thereof.

S. and B. Webb, "English Local Government from the Revolution to the Municipal Corporations Act," 1907–8.

Local Government Board, The, established in 1871, was a committee of the privy council, and superseded the old Poor Law Board. It was concerned with sanitary arrangements, with the public health, with highways, municipal improvements, and the like. It comprised a president appointed by the Crown, the president of the council, the principal secretaries of state, the lord privy seal, and the chancellor of the exchequer; but it was a board only in name, and the work was done by the president and his staff. The president was responsible to parliament for all its acts.

The Local Government Board for Scotland consisted of the secretary for Scotland, the solicitor-general for Scotland, the permanent under-secretary for Scotland, and several appointed members. The powers of the board, though not so extensive, were similar to those of the English Local Government Board, and involved a complete control of poor law administration and the poor law authorities, and a supervision of the local government and public health authorities.

The Local Government Board for Ireland was composed of several members of the staff of the lord-lieutenant. The duties of the board were in the main similar to those of the English and Scottish boards, but the lord-lieutenant exercised certain powers which in England belonged to the Local Government Board.

In 1919 all the powers and duties of the Local Government Board were transferred to the Ministry of Health (q.v.).

Locarno, The Treaties of (December 1, 1925), which opened in post-War Europe a new period of diplomacy dominated by the question of security, were signed in London. They originated in the offer of a guarantee pact by the German ambassador in Paris to M. Herriot on February 9, 1925; a pact by which the powers interested in the Rhine entered into an undertaking "not to wage war against a contracting state." The proposal was discussed throughout Europe during the summer, and on June 19 a reply concerted between the French and British governments was sent to Germany and circulated also to the governments of Belgium, Italy, Poland, and Czechoslovakia. In August and September this draft was examined by a meeting of legal experts appointed by the powers concerned, and a resolution in sympathy with its principles was moved during the sixth assembly of the League of Nations at Geneva on September 13. The Locarno Conference on the security pact opened eventually on October 4, attended by representatives from Great Britain, France, Belgium, Germany, Italy, Poland, and Czechoslovakia. It did its work by formal meetings and informal conversations, entirely in the spirit of Mr. Austen Chamberlain's "Let the dead past bury its dead." Germany let it be known that she would not object to her future entry into the League of Nations being made a condition of the pact; the warnings of Tchitcherin, the Soviet commissioner for foreign affairs, were not allowed to prejudice the discussion; the two thorny problems of security for Poland and Czechoslovakia and of Germany's entry into the League were thrashed out; and on October 16 the Locarno Pacts (approved on the 10th) were initialled. The British representatives were the foreign secretary (Mr. Austen Chamberlain) and Sir Cecil Hurst. The pacts comprised a treaty of mutual guarantee between the five major powers and arbitration treaties and conventions signed by Germany with France, Belgium, Poland, and Czechoslovakia. They were finally signed at the Foreign Office in London on December 1, and ratified on September 14, 1926. Mr. Chamberlain's work for peace was rewarded with a knighthood of the Garter.

The Treaty of Mutual Guarantee between the

five powers, championed by the Baldwin government in preference to the Geneva Protocol of 1924 (q.v.), comprised ten articles, in which (1) the German-Belgian and German-French frontiers fixed by the Treaty of Versailles (1919—q.v.) were guaranteed inviolable; (2) France, Belgium, and Germany abjured recourse to war except for purposes of defence against attack or under Articles 15 or 16 of the Covenant of the League of Nations (q.v.); (3) disputes between the three powers were to be submitted to judicial decisions, and (4) questions touching the frontiers to the council of the League; (5) Article 3 was guaranteed by all the contracting parties, but (6) without prejudice to the Treaty of Versailles and supplementary arrangements, or (7) to the duty of the League to safeguard world peace; (8) the treaty was to be registered at the League of Nations and to remain in force until the League council decided by a two-thirds majority that the League itself offered sufficient protection to the contracting parties; (9) it imposed no obligation on the British Dominions or India without their individual ratification; and (10) it was to be ratified and preserved in the archives of the League. The treaty was thus negotiated outside the League of Nations, but its arbitral machinery provided for League intervention.

The hoped-for result, however—Germany's entry into the League—was not secured immediately. It was delayed until September 1926 by the conflicting claims of several powers—Brazil, Spain, Poland, and China—to permanent seats on the council simultaneously with Germany. Spain and Brazil ultimately notified their withdrawal from the League. [League of Nations.]

Text of Treaty of Mutual Guarantee in "Peace Year Book" for 1927; article on Locarno by Gustav Stresemann in new "Encyclopædia Britannica," 1926, vol. ii; "League of Nations Year Book," 1927.

[A. C. F. B.]

Locke, John (1632–1704), though of primary importance as a psychologist and metaphysician, wrote political and economic treatises of great historical significance. A student on the foundation of Christ Church, Oxford, he became associated with the 1st Lord Shaftesbury, and was one of his secretaries in 1672–3. For some years he resided on the continent for his health; but being suspected (without good reason) by his colleagues at Christ Church of treasonable designs, he was deprived of his studentship by a royal order in 1684. He retired to Holland soon afterwards, and was included among those English refugees whose surrender was asked for by the government from the States-General. He lived in retirement there till 1689, when the Revolution enabled him to return; and from 1696 to 1700 he was one of a commission charged with the function of inquiring into the best means of improving the state of trade and of the colonies, and setting the unemployed to remunerative work. His two "Treatises on Civil Government" (1690) are respectively a refutation of the "Patriarcha" of Sir Robert Filmer (q.v.), and a statement of the theory on which the Revolution and the Act of Settlement were justified—viz., that civil society arises out of a contract between individuals to set up a government and transfer to it their own right of self-defence, on condition that its powers shall only be used for the general welfare, and that the transfer implies a contract, "the original contract between king and people," which the people can declare void if the head of the state violates it. His "Letters on Toleration" (1689–90) urged that the civil authority should check the profession only of such creeds as were dangerous to the state. His "Considerations on Raising the Value of Money" had great influence in forwarding the reform of the currency on sound principles in 1695. Though he was a sincere Christian, his philosophical and religious teaching to some extent exhibited the rationalistic tendencies which afterwards culminated in English deism.

Locke's "Works," 1777; and biographies by H. R. Fox-Bourne, 1876, C. Bastide, 1907, S. Alexander, 1908; and a sketch of his life and writings in Prof. Fowler's "Locke" (English Men of Letters Series).

Lollards, The, is the name given to the followers of Wyclif (q.v.), though the derivation of it is somewhat doubtful. The generally received etymology is from a German word, *lollen*, to sing, from their habit of singing hymns, but it has also been derived from *lolia*, tares, and from the old English word *loller*, an idler. Wyclif himself organized no band of followers, but only sent out preachers known as "Poor Priests," who at first seem to have recognized him as their head, though before long all kinds of men joined the new movement, from the sincere honest reformer to the wild socialist visionary. The relation of Lollardy to the Peasants' Revolt of 1381 (q.v.) has been much debated. That it was a direct cause of the rising is scarcely conceivable, since by that date the "Poor Priests" had scarcely begun their ministrations; but it is certain that it had social as well as religious implications. The first act against the Lollards was passed in 1381, but was merely the work of the Lords and the king. By this statute all Lollards were to be arrested and held in strong prisons till they should justify themselves according to the law and reason of Holy Church. In 1382, and again in 1394, the Lollards addressed a remonstrance to parliament, in which, among other points, they asserted that no civil lord or bishop had any power so long as he was in mortal sin, and that human laws not founded on the Scriptures ought not to be obeyed. Still there was very little persecution under Richard II, whose opposition to Lollardy was not consistent, and whose court during the lifetime of Anne of Bohemia was even thought to be infected with the heresy. It was not until 1401 that the act *De Hæretico Comburendo* (q.v.)

was passed, and even after the passing of that statute, and notwithstanding the close alliance between the Lancastrian dynasty and the Church, only two persons were executed for heresy in Henry IV's reign, though the Lollards boasted that they numbered 100,000. It is probable that they intended a rising under the leadership of Sir John Oldcastle (q.v.), at the beginning of Henry V's reign, but the vigilance of the government prevented it, and for complicity in the projected revolt some forty persons were put to death. In 1414 an act was passed extending the provisions of the *De Hæretico Comburendo* statute, and several Lollards were executed in the early years of Henry VI's reign. By the time of Jack Cade's rebellion (1450) (q.v.) the old Lollard idea seems very largely to have died out, as in the complaints of the insurgents at that time we do not find any mention of religious grievances. The Lancastrian persecution of Lollardy had driven it underground; but it was not completely extinguished. Isolated executions for Lollard principles occur all through the fifteenth century and down to the very eve of the Reformation. The initial success of Lollardy as a popular movement was due to the general discontent which prevailed at the end of the fourteenth century, while the corruptions of the Church gave it a great stimulus. But the gradual emancipation of the villeins prevented its continuance, and the lack of any great leader and of any effective organization was sufficient to prevent the union of the various bodies of religious, social, and political malcontents.

J. Gairdner, "Lollardy and the Reformation in England," 1908.

London owes its importance to its position on the Thames, and the continuity of its history to the abiding effects of the Roman occupation. The earliest settlements were possibly Celtic pile-dwellings along the Fleet River from its junction with the Thames, and a Celtic stronghold on the height now occupied by St. Paul's. It is possible too that London was the stronghold to which Cassivellaunus fled before the advance of Cæsar—a settlement occupied by a tribal community bound by ties of blood and religion, and perpetuated in memory by the god-names Lud and Belinus, round which much controversy has raged. But according to recent research Celtic London was entirely superseded by Roman London, and it is to a Roman rather than a Celtic beginning that we must look for the continuity of London history. Roman London (43–409) flourished as an outpost of the empire; acquiring the name Augusta and later resuming its older name of Londinium, suffering in Boudicca's rising of 61 until later repaired and fortified by a wall, witnessing the collapse of the revolt of Allectus in 293, and developing as a centre of commerce. It extended from the Tower to St. Paul's and from the river to the present London Wall, with the forum probably somewhere near Leadenhall Market. Recent investigation refutes the theory that the city fell into decay and desolation after the departure of the Romans. The last definite mention of Londinium as a Romano-British city refers to the year 457, after which date there is silence until 604. But London probably lived on as a city-state, maintaining its independent existence throughout the Saxon conquest until the time of Alfred. It was administered on principles of Roman commercial and property law until late in the Middle Ages; it used Roman ecclesiastical buildings for Christian worship and preserved them intact from the Saxon ravages. The Saxons settled *out*side the city in their Padding*tons* and Kensing*tons*; and even in after-days the folkmoot of London was not the real governing assembly. Bæda's reference to London as the capital of the East Saxons at the time when Mellitus became its first bishop (604) must be taken in an ecclesiastical rather than a political sense. Saxon London began with Alfred the Great, who, realizing its importance as a position for defence against the Danes, repaired its fortifications (886–98) and entrusted it to the care of his son-in-law, Ethelred of Mercia. With Alfred London passed from a Roman imperial city to an English imperial city. Refortified, it successfully withstood the attacks of the Danes and was never once captured (the alleged sack of London in 851 is without foundation). The Danes formed their own settlements outside the walls and lived under their own laws, symbolized in the "stone cross" in the Strand. In 1016 the witan of London elected Edmund Ironside, while the witan outside elected Canute. London, with the rest of England, accepted Canute later.

The advent of the Normans, however, brought about the welding of London into the state. To the Normans London meant constitutionally as much as to the Saxons and Danes it had meant little. William I established his hold on the city partly by the Tower built outside, and partly by his charter to the Londoners, which, though it gave nothing that they had not long possessed, arrogated to the king supreme control. At the same time architectural developments began with the rebuilding of the cathedral of St. Paul (1083). Westminster Abbey had already been founded by Edward the Confessor. The Plantagenets extended both the constitutional grip and the municipal development. The charter of Henry I was granted in 1100, London was recognized as a *communa* by Richard I in 1191, obtained under John the right to elect its own mayor, and had its rights and liberties confirmed in 1215 by chapter 13 of Magna Carta. The second London Bridge (of stone) was begun in 1176 and finished in 1209. (It remained until 1832, when the present bridge was begun.) Westminster Hall and Lambeth Palace were products of Plantagenet workmanship, and the Guildhall was restored in 1411. The four-

teenth century was remarkable for the victory of the craft-gilds over the merchant-gilds, and for Edward II's charter of 1327 (temporarily abrogated by Richard II in 1392). In the Wars of the Roses London was strongly Yorkist.

In the Tudor period, dominantly commercial, the city became "modern London in all essentials," with a vigorous commercial and industrial life typified in the May Day Riots of 1517 and in the formation of the London Merchant Adventurers. This again was an age of building—notably the Tudor additions to York House (Whitehall), the bishops' houses in the Strand, and the Henry VII chapel in Westminster Abbey. During the Stuart period London was the centre of Presbyterianism in the Civil War, opposing the king at first and the army later. It was occupied in 1648 by the army and in 1660 by Monck. In 1665 and 1666 it suffered from the Plague and Fire (q.v.), which were followed by a period of rebuilding under Sir Christopher Wren, whose monumental work is St. Paul's Cathedral. This was also the age of river journeys in preference to road travel, and of gorgeous river pageants immortalized by Pepys. The reign of James II was a stormy one for the city, which resisted the royal Catholic policy, experienced violent riots in 1688, and regained the charters which had been annulled by Charles II in 1683. During the next century London was the centre of advanced Whig principles and the scene of the Wilkes riots of 1768 and the Gordon riots of 1780 (q.v.). It extended meanwhile to Hyde Park and Limehouse by 1745, and to Marylebone and Camden Town by 1800.

The greatest feature of nineteenth-century London was expansion and consolidation, beginning with the foundation of the University. The building era opened in 1832 and soon carried the suburbs far into Middlesex, Surrey, Kent, and Essex. The Metropolitan Board of Works, created in 1855, functioned unsatisfactorily until 1888, when the London County Council was created by statute. Until 1900 the city was governed by upwards of a hundred local bodies, since it had not been included within the operation of the Municipal Reform Act of 1835 (q.v.); but in 1894 a royal commission reported in favour of the unification of London government, and in 1900 the administrative county (exclusive of the City) was divided into twenty-eight municipal boroughs each under a mayor, aldermen, and corporation.

J. Stow, "Survey of London," 1598 (ed. C. H. Kingsford, 1908); Pennant, "London," 1790; W. J. Loftie, "History of London," 1883; Walter Besant, "London," 1894; Sir L. Gomme, "Governance of London," 1907, "Making of London," 1912, "London," 1914; Gordon Home, "Roman London," 1926, and "Medieval London," 1927; G. Stirling-Taylor, "Historical Guide to London," 1911; "Victoria History of London," ed. W. Page, 1910, etc.

[A. C. F. B.]

London, Conference of (December 4, 1908—February 26, 1909), was attended by representatives of Great Britain, France, Germany, the United States, Italy, Austria-Hungary, Russia, Japan, Holland, and Spain. It met to draw up a code of international maritime law in time of war. The rules it adopted were concerned chiefly with blockades during war, contraband, and the destruction of neutral prizes.

——, Convention of (October 22, 1832), between Great Britain and France for the purpose of coercing Holland. It declared that unless the Dutch troops evacuated Belgian territory before November 12, 1832, the two contracting parties would place an embargo on Dutch shipping in their ports, station a squadron off the coast of Holland, move a French army into Belgium, and expel the Dutch garrison from Antwerp. Holland refused to comply: whereupon the French troops entered and captured Antwerp on December 23. A treaty was finally concluded in May 1833 satisfactory to the powers and the Belgians. Holland accepted it in February 1838.

——, Treaty of (July 6, 1827), was concluded between Great Britain, France, and Russia in an endeavour to end the War of Greek Independence which had been raging since 1821. It bound the three powers to offer their joint mediation to the Ottoman Porte in order to settle Greece on a basis of self-government under Turkish suzerainty, each contracting party disavowing any designs of aggrandizement for itself. A secret article provided that should the Porte not have accepted the proffered mediation within a month, the three powers would take steps to approximate with the Greeks (by exchanging consular agents, etc.), and their admirals would be instructed to intercept all supplies of men and stores coming to the Turkish and Egyptian armies in Greece—though without entering into hostilities. The importance of the treaty for British history is (*a*) the fact that Canning united Russia to Britain and France and so sundered the "Neo-Holy Alliance" of Russia, Prussia, and Austria, (*b*) the fact that it resulted in the battle of Navarino (October 20, 1827), of which the new Wellington administration disapproved, (*c*) the fact that Wellington endeavoured to restrict the advantages which the treaty foreshadowed for Greece, and pursued a pro-Turkish policy which ultimately restricted the territorial limits of the Greek state (February 3, 1830) and lowered British prestige among both Greeks and Turks.

——, Treaty of (October 15, 1831), was concluded between Great Britain, France, Russia, Prussia, and Austria for the settlement of Belgium, which had revolted from Holland on August 25, 1830. It prescribed that Luxemburg should be divided, the eastern part being given to the Germanic Confederation and the western part to the Belgians; that Limburg should be similarly divided; that the Belgians should have a right of way through Maestricht and free navigation in the Scheldt and all waters between it and the Rhine; and that the Belgian share of the public debt of the Netherlands since 1815 should be assessed at 8,400,000 florins.

The Belgians accepted the treaty grudgingly: Holland refused it. The ensuing period of difficult negotiation led to the Convention of London, 1832 (q.v.).

London, Treaty of (1832), between Great Britain, France, Russia, and Bavaria, finally settled the future of the young Greek kingdom by conferring its sovereignty on Frederick Otto, son of the King of Bavaria, and according to the limits fixed by the London protocol of September 26, 1831. The Ottoman government ratified this settlement on December 26.

——, Treaty of (July 13, 1841), concluded between Great Britain, France, Russia, Prussia, Austria, and Turkey, marked the re-entry of France into the European Concert after a period in which the foreign policy of Thiers had threatened to provoke war with Great Britain, and gave a new lease of life to the Ottoman Empire by bringing that empire into the European system. It restored to the Porte Syria, Arabia, and Crete, confined Mehemet Ali to Egypt, and closed the Dardanelles to foreign warships while Turkey was at peace. It represents Palmerston's victory over Russian ambitions in Turkey and French ambitions in Egypt.

——, Treaty of (January 17, 1871), was signed between the signatory powers of the Treaty of Paris of 1856 (q.v.), the clause of which treaty relative to the neutralization of the Black Sea it abrogated. Russia had repudiated the Black Sea clause of the Treaty of Paris in 1870, taking advantage of Europe's preoccupation in the Franco-Prussian War. The Conference of London met at Bismarck's suggestion, and it was unable to do more than make a virtue of necessity and confirm the abrogation, declaring, however, that "contracting powers could rid themselves of their treaty engagements only by an understanding with their co-signatories."

Texts of Treaties of 1827 and 1841 are in K. Strupp, "Diplomatische Aktenstücke zur Orientalischen Frage," 1918 (French texts); Treaties of 1832 and 1871 in Oakes and Mowat, "Great European Treaties of the 19th Century," 1918. [A. C. F. B.]

London Company, The, formed 1606, obtained a charter from James I to colonize Virginia. It was to have the southern half of the territories between the thirty-fourth and forty-fifth degrees north latitude. The government of the new colony was to be vested in a council resident in England, appointed by the king, another council in the colony being charged with the duties of administration. In 1609 a new charter was obtained, vesting the appointment of the council in the shareholders, and of the governor in the council. In 1625 the company, which had been commercially a failure, was dissolved.

"London Gazette," The, is said to be the oldest English newspaper, and is the official channel of all public announcements. A *Gazette* was first published in 1642, but the first of the existing series (written by Henry Muddiman) was issued at Oxford, November 16, 1665, whither the court had gone to escape the Great Plague. On February 5, 1666, the London series began. Until after the Revolution its meagre two pages, published twice a week (Tuesday and Friday), formed the only newspaper.

Londonderry. The town of Derry, in Ulster, was the seat of a monastery founded by Columba about 546. It was made a bishopric in 1158. During Tyrone's rebellion of 1566 it was garrisoned by the English. It was surprised by Hugh O'Neill, and burnt to the ground during his rebellion (1608). The corporation of London rebuilt it, getting a grant of the town and 6,000 acres adjoining (1613–30). In the rebellion of 1646 it held out against the insurgents, though in 1649 it was only owing to Owen Roe O'Neill's assistance that it was able to do so. In December 1688 Lord Antrim, with a regiment of 1,200 men, was sent by James II to garrison the town. Though the corporation and bishop were willing to admit them, thirteen young apprentices closed the gates before the eyes of the troops, and they had to retire. The citizens, however, were induced to admit a small Protestant garrison, under Lieutenant-Colonel Lundy. That officer was, however, unable to prevent the proclamation of William and Mary in 1689. By this time some 30,000 Protestants of Ulster had fled to Derry for refuge. Lundy also sent to James, who was now approaching (April 1689), and promised to surrender. But when James himself, on April 17, had got to within a hundred yards of the gate, the inhabitants rose, and shouting "No surrender!" manned the walls. James and his escort fled for their lives. Lundy was now deposed, and in the night fled from the town. Major Henry Baker and George Walker, a Protestant clergyman, were appointed governors. Presbyterians and Anglicans uniting heartily against the common foe, 7,000 men were soon under arms. On the 19th all terms were finally refused, and the siege began. It was destined to last for 105 days—till July 30. In order to prevent any help reaching the town from the sea a boom was placed by the besiegers at the mouth of the river leading into Lough Foyle, and batteries were erected to protect it. On June 15, Kirke was sent by William to try to raise the siege. He hesitated for some time to force his way through the works of the besiegers. Meanwhile the town was in a state of famine, and its surrender was a question of days. But at length Kirke, having received positive orders to force the boom on July 30, sent off the *Dartmouth* frigate, with two transports laden with provisions, with this purpose. They succeeded without much difficulty, and by ten in the evening the town was saved. On August 1 the besiegers withdrew after burning their camp. The garrison had been reduced by famine and by the sword to 3,000 men; the loss of the besiegers is said to have exceeded 5,000.

Walker, "True Account of the Siege of Londonderry," 1689; P. Dwyer, "Siege of Derry," 1893.

Londonderry, Robert Stewart, 2nd Marquis of (1769–1822). [Stewart.]

Long Parliament, The. This name is that which has been commonly applied to the parliament which met on November 3, 1640. Out of a total of 493 members, 294 had sat in the "Short Parliament" of the previous April. They came together now with the determination to remove all grievances, and "pull up the causes of them by the roots." The first few months were occupied by the trial of Strafford (March 1641) and the impeachment of Laud and other delinquents. The attempt which was made to use the army to save Strafford caused an appeal to the people called the Protestation, and was followed by a bill preventing the king from dissolving the present parliament. The meeting of future parliaments had already been secured by the Triennial Bill (February 16, 1641). The Star Chamber (q.v.) and other special courts were abolished, and by the votes on ship-money, and the Tunnage and Poundage Bill, the levy of taxes without consent of parliament was made impossible. On these purely political questions parliament was united, and its work was permanent and became part of the constitution. But on ecclesiastical questions a division arose which made the Civil War possible. One party wished to abolish the bishops, the other merely to limit their power; but Presbyterians and Episcopalians both strove to realize their ideal of a church, and neither was prepared to accept the solution of toleration. The Episcopalian party under the leadership of Hyde and Falkland rallied round the king, and formed a constitutional Royalist party. One bill for removing the bishops from the House of Lords had been rejected by the Lords in June. A second bill for the same purpose was sent up from the Commons at the end of October (1641), and a protest on the part of twelve bishops that parliament was not free, directed against the mobs which flocked to Westminster, was used to suspend them from sitting, and commit them to custody. At the same time the Commons, by the Grand Remonstrance (q.v.), passed a vote of no confidence in the king, and appealed to the people for support. The king replied by impeaching and attempting to arrest five of the parliamentary leaders (January 3, 1642), but this only brought about the closer union of the two Houses. The House of Lords passed the Bishops Exclusion Bill, and united with the Commons in the demand that the king should entrust the command of the militia and fortresses to persons in whom they could confide (February 1, 1642). The king's attempt to get possession of Hull (April 23), and the intolerant treatment of the Kentish petitioners by the House of Commons (March 28), embittered the quarrel. Parliament summed up the guarantees it demanded in the Nineteen Propositions (June 2), and after their refusal by the king prepared for war. The parliament put in force its ordinance among the militia, and the king his commissions of array. Thus the Civil War began even before the king set up his standard at Nottingham. Some thirty or forty peers took part for the parliament, and about sixty sided with the king. Of the House of Commons less than a hundred at first joined the king, and though their number increased in the next two years it never reached two hundred. Parliament entrusted the conduct of the war to a Committee of Safety of ten commoners and five lords sitting at Derby House. It also commenced the nomination of an assembly of divines to be consulted on the proposed ecclesiastical reforms. The ill-success of the first year's war led to the formation of a peace party, and negotiations were opened at Oxford in February 1643; but an agreement proved impossible. Again in August the House of Lords brought forward a number of peace propositions, which passed the Commons by a small majority, but the tumults which the news of these terms caused in the city obliged parliament to abandon them (August 7). The Parliamentary leaders turned to Scotland for aid, and in September the parliament signed the Solemn League and Covenant as the price of a Scottish army. Representatives of Scotland entered the Committee of Safety (which now took the name of the Committee of the Two Kingdoms), and joined the English divines in the Westminster Assembly. In spite of their reverses the Parliamentary leaders remained firm, and refused to treat as equals with the assembly of Royalist members which the king gathered round him at Oxford, and dignified with the name of a parliament (February to April 1644). In the spring of 1645 the position of the Parliament was entirely altered by the Self-denying Ordinance, which obliged all members of either House holding military commands to resign them, whilst at the same time the reorganization of the army produced what soon claimed to be a rival authority (April 1645). During the autumn of 1645 and during 1646 the composition of the House of Commons was seriously changed by the election of 230 new members to supply the place of those who had deserted or been expelled. Thus a strong independent party was formed in the House sympathizing with the army outside. The vain negotiations carried on with the king during the winter of 1645–6, and during his presence in the Scottish camp, ended in January 1647, with his delivery to the commissioners of the parliament. Whilst the king still delayed to come to terms with the Presbyterian majority in parliament, the conflict between the army and that assembly broke out. The army demanded its arrears of pay before it disbanded, toleration for its religious views, and a voice in the settlement of the country. It required also the suspension of eleven leading Presbyterian members charged with causing the misunderstanding between the parliament and the army. The eleven members withdrew voluntarily to save the

dignity of the House (June 26), but a few weeks later a riot took place, and the Londoners restored the eleven members to their seats. Indignant at mob-dictation, the Speaker, with 100 members of the Lower House and fourteen of the Upper, took refuge with the army (August 3). The soldiers occupied London, and the eleven members fled or were impeached. Seven of the Lords shared the same fate, and a large number of Presbyterians seceded from the House. Thus the army secured in parliament a majority favourable to its own views, which, after the king had refused to accept the Four Bills in which the terms of peace were comprised, declared that no more addresses should be made to him (January 3, 1648). Three months later the second Civil War began; the seceding members took advantage of it to return to their places, the eleven members were recalled, a persecuting ordinance was passed against sectarians, and negotiations reopened with the king. On December 5 the House, by 129 to 83, voted that the king's answers were sufficient ground to proceed upon for the settlement of the kingdom. A second time the army interfered to put an end to Presbyterian rule, and prevent an unsatisfactory settlement. On December 6 and 7 a couple of regiments, directed by Colonel Pride, surrounded the House, excluded ninety-six of the leading Presbyterians, and arrested forty-seven others. The attendance in the House of Lords dwindled to six or seven, that in the Commons to fewer than sixty members, but the remainder were all bound to work in accordance with the army. On January 1, 1649, the Commons passed a resolution defining it as treason for the king to levy war against the parliament and kingdom, and an ordinance appointing a High Court of Justice to try Charles. The king's trial lasted from January 20 to 27, and his execution took place on the 30th. On February 6 the Commons proceeded to vote that "the House of Peers in parliament is useless, dangerous, and ought to be abolished." The next day they resolved "that it hath been found by experience, and that this House doth declare that the office of the king in this realm, and to have the power thereof in any single person is unnecessary, burdensome, and dangerous to the liberty, safety, and public interest of this nation, and therefore ought to be abolished." These resolutions were followed by acts giving effect to them, and crowned on May 19 by an act declaring and constituting the people of England to be a Commonwealth and free state. At the same time a resolution was passed to consider the constitution of future parliaments, and this question occupied the House more or less for the next six years. The executive power was in the hands of the council of state containing all the important members of parliament, but the committees of the House, and the House itself, still retained great power. After the consolidation of the republic by Cromwell's victories, the members present in the House increased considerably, rising on some occasions in 1652–3 to as many as 120 members. After Worcester Cromwell succeeded in persuading the House to fix November 1654 as the period of their own dissolution, and urged on the question of the Reform Bill. But when he found that the bill they proposed would perpetuate the powers of the Rump, as it was called, by providing that they should keep their places without re-election, and be sole judges of the election of new members, he endeavoured to stop the progress of the measure by a private arrangement. When that failed he expelled them from the House by force (April 20). They did not reassemble till six years later, when the republicans, who had allied themselves with the army to overthrow Richard Cromwell, procured the restoration of the Rump (May 8, 1659). The members expelled as Royalists and those excluded by Pride's Purge were still, in spite of their protests, kept out of the House. This assembly consisted of sixty or seventy members, and continued to sit till October 13, when it was expelled by Lambert in consequence of the attempt to exercise control over the army. On December 26 it was restored again in consequence of the divisions in the army and the advance of Monck. Monck entered London on February 3, 1660, just as the Rump was preparing to carry out the scheme for enlarging its numbers, frustrated by Cromwell in 1653. After a moment's hesitation, the resistance of the city emboldened him to declare for a free parliament (February 10), and to reinstate the members excluded (February 21). According to their agreement with Monck, these members resolved that a new parliament should be summoned (February 22), and proceeded to pass a bill summoning it for April 25, and dissolving themselves. The last sitting of the Long Parliament took place on March 16, 1660. The Restoration swept away most of its work, but the abolition of the extraordinary courts, and of the king's claim to levy taxes without the consent of parliament, were solid and lasting gains. Two of its later measures also, the institution of an excise (1643), and the abolition of feudal tenures (1646), were maintained and re-enacted.

May, "History of the Long Parliament"; J. Forster, "Five Members," 1860, and "Grand Remonstrance," 1860; lists of members in Masson's "Life of Milton" and Carlyle's "Cromwell"; electoral map for 1642 in Gardiner; C. H. Firth, "Cromwell," 1890.

[C. H. F.]

Longchamp, William de (*d.* 1197), was a Norman of low origin, who managed to ingratiate himself with Richard I before his father's death. On his patron's accession to the throne Longchamp was at once made chancellor and Bishop of Ely, and on the king's departure on crusade he was appointed co-justiciar of England with Hugh de Pudsey. He soon quarrelled with Hugh, and early in 1190 succeeded in concentrating all power in his own

hands. His subsequent appointment as papal legate made him supreme in both Church and State. His arrest of Geoffrey, Archbishop of York, and his oppressive taxation, combined with a haughty demeanour and unattractive manners to render him unpopular; and in 1191 John, whose treasonable pretensions Longchamp had consistently opposed, was able to unite the baronage against him and to secure his deposition. Longchamp fled to the continent, and early in 1193 he joined the captive Richard in Germany, where he participated in the negotiations leading to the king's release. He enjoyed throughout Richard's confidence, and although his unpopularity in England did not abate, he retained the chancellorship till his death. In spite of his arrogance and tyrannical conduct Longchamp was by no means devoid of ability. Stubbs says of him that "his public policy as distinct from his personal favour was intelligent and energetic."

Longsword (or, LONGESPÉE), WILLIAM (*d.* 1226), was the natural son of Henry II, by an unknown mother (traditionally Rosamund Clifford, q.v.). He married Ela, heiress to the earldom of Salisbury, and received the title of earl himself. He supported John against the barons and the French king, and was taken prisoner at Bouvines (1214). After temporarily deserting to Louis of France in 1216, he espoused the cause of Henry III and the "national" party. He died at Salisbury in 1226. There is no evidence to support the assertion of Matthew Paris that he went on crusade in 1219.

Longsword, WILLIAM (*d.* 1250), was the eldest son of the preceding. For some unknown reason he did not receive his father's earldom, although he is sometimes styled Earl of Salisbury. In 1240 he accompanied Richard of Cornwall on crusade; and in 1249 himself led a force of English knights to the assistance of Louis IX of France at Damietta. He was slain at the battle of Mansourah in 1520.

Loos, THE BATTLE OF (September 25–8, 1915), was fought on the Western front during the Great War, between the British and German armies, the British attack being intended, in conjunction with a French attack on Vimy Ridge, to relieve the situation on the Russian front. The four-day offensive, preceded by four days of artillery bombardment, resulted in the capture of a stretch of the German front line, but it was found impossible to effect a break-through. The French attack in Artois similarly failed to take Vimy Ridge.

Lopes, SIR MANASSEH (1755–1831), was a baronet of Jewish extraction, who was elected to parliament for Barnstaple (1818). The election, however, was petitioned against on the ground of gross bribery. The committee found that he had expended £3,000 on the election; that out of 300 resident electors 63 had received £5 each; and that the out-voters had been given £20 apiece. The House of Commons thereupon unseated Sir Manasseh (1819). He was also indicted the same year for bribery at a previous election at Grampound. The case was tried at Exeter, and it was found that Sir Manasseh had regularly bargained with one of the electors to be returned for the borough for the sum of £2,000, which was, of course, distributed among the voters. He was sentenced to pay a fine of £1,000, and to be imprisoned for two years.

Lopez, RODERIGO (*d.* 1594), a Jewish physician in the service of Elizabeth, was charged by the Earl of Essex with being in the pay of Spain. He was acquitted once, but Essex pursued his investigations, and obtained his conviction on the evidence of two Portuguese, and he was executed. It must still remain a question whether Lopez was really guilty.

"Lord Collingwood," THE, was a British merchant vessel seized in 1821 by a Spanish cruiser and condemned in the Spanish courts on the ground that she was found trading with Buenos Ayres, one of the revolted Spanish colonies, which had already practically obtained independence. The owners complained to their government, and the latter remonstrated at Madrid. In October 1822 Canning, who had succeeded Castlereagh at the foreign office, immediately sent a firm note to the Spanish government. The latter was now informed that Great Britain would take steps to secure her commerce, and that for this purpose a squadron would be ordered to Cuba to destroy the strongholds of these pirates. The Spanish government, which was anxious for British support at the Congress of Verona, at once gave way. A decree was issued recognizing the right of other governments to trade with the former Spanish colonies, and compensation was awarded to the plundered British merchants.

Lords, HOUSE OF. The existing constitution of the Lords dates from the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries. At that time their status and their office in the state became actually fixed, and their order received that impress which has ever since distinguished it from the rest of the community. But the Lords may be traced in an unbroken descent to the witenagemot, which indeed in character and function they still resemble. They are in theory the noble and wise of the kingdom, are counsellors of the sovereign, are legislators in a personal or official capacity, and are an august court of justice. The Conquest converted the witenagemot into, at least potentially, a general gathering of feudatories holding their lands immediately from the king, and thus brought the institution a step nearer to its modern character. This, however, was a large and unwieldy body; a process of selection inevitably set in, and the tenants-in-chief of larger holdings became recognized as a special class more closely attached to the king, and entitled to certain peculiar marks of consideration, of

which the personal summons addressed to them by the king when their services were required was the most significant. The final stage of their development was reached when this personal summons had given the person summoned and his heirs a distinctive title to a place in the order, independent of any other qualification. Neither tenure of land nor nobility of birth, however extensive the one or unblemished the other, now availed to bestow rank in the favoured class, though the vast majority were great feudal landowners and of noble birth; it was henceforward simply the will of the sovereign, expressed at first in a personal writ of summons, that alone had this virtue. And this writ afterwards was taken to have such efficacy as to extend the rights and functions that were its outcome to the representatives of the person to whom it had originally been sent, for ever. In the later Middle Ages, however, patent took its place as the regular manner of expressing the will of the sovereign in the creation of a peer. Thus the historic House of Lords was developed, consisting "of the hereditary counsellors of the Crown, the right to give counsel being involved at one time in the tenure of land, at another in the fact of summons, at another in the terms of a patent. . . . The nobleman is the person who, for his life, holds the hereditary office denoted or implied in the title" (Stubbs). But the position had no legal value for any but the actual holder; all his children were commoners. These formed the lay element in the Lords when the parliamentary system split into separately-acting Houses; and with them were associated as a spiritual element the archbishops, bishops, and summoned abbots and priors. These were included in the baronial body, either because they held their lands on the baronial tenure, or from the reverence naturally due to their offices and learning. Since the falling away of the clerical estate from parliament, these spiritual peers have been its only representatives in the legislature. Among the members of this composite body there were several degrees of title and honorary rank, but equal rights and powers. The judges also were called to the assembly, but never became full peers; it was their part to guide it by their counsel, not to vote. The House has still a right to their advice.

During mediæval times the Lords were the more powerful division of parliament, and generally took the lead in and directed all constitutional struggles. They were the one effective check on the will of the king, and could carry most points that they deemed vital. Yet their numbers dwindled. The decrease was mainly among the abbots and priors; these soon sank from 80 to about 27, while the bishops were constant at 20, and the temporal lords never varied much from 50. It was in Henry VI's reign that the practice of making peers of any dignity by patent, hitherto occasionally used, became general. The Wars of the Roses, by thinning the ranks, greatly diminished the political weight of the Lords; and their order was of comparatively small account in Tudor times; and the fall of the monasteries struck nearly 30 peers off their roll at a time when it contained barely 90 names in all. But 50 temporal peers were summoned to the last parliament of Elizabeth. The rule of the Stuarts added to both their numbers and consideration, though the advancing pretensions of the Commons checked the growth of the latter. More than 120 temporal lords sat in the Long Parliament, of whom a third took the Roundhead side in the great conflict. Between the Restoration and the union with Scotland their history is marked by many disputes with the Commons, and a small increase in numbers and importance. In Charles II's reign they established their right to act as a supreme court of appeal in all civil causes, though they had to abandon their claim to any kind of original jurisdiction. Their judicial function, which they inherit from the old *concilium regis*, involved them in an embittered quarrel with the Commons in Anne's reign, when a disputed question regarding the rights of electors at Aylesbury came before them for a final decision. In 1707 the union with Scotland added 16 representative temporal peers to their numbers, in 1801 that with Ireland 24 temporal and 4 spiritual. These last, however, were taken away by the Irish Church Act, while the temporal peers have since vanished as a result of the grant of Dominion status to southern Ireland. The Lords escaped a great danger by the failure of the Peerage Bill in 1719, which would have limited their numbers to about 200, and thus kindled against them vehement envy and jealousy. Their political importance reached its highest point in the eighteenth century, in the last years of which they began to increase rapidly by new creations. This numerical expansion has gone on steadily since; they are now many times as numerous as they were under the Tudors. Recent years have, however, witnessed a grave decline in the powers of the Upper House. In 1909 the Lords, who had long since lost any right to initiate money bills, endeavoured to assert their control in financial matters by refusing to pass the budget before it had been submitted for approval to the country. The response of the Liberal administration to this challenge was the Parliament Act of 1911 (q.v.), which divested the Upper House of all remaining influence in purely financial questions, and limited its legislative powers by providing that any measure passing the Commons on three successive occasions should automatically become law. This radical measure was intended merely to bridge over the time which must necessarily elapse before the long overdue reform of the Lords could be undertaken. The outbreak of the Great War in 1914, however, led necessarily to a postponement of this question, which was revived by the Conservative administration of Mr.

Stanley Baldwin (1927). Some modifications of the constitution and powers of the British House of Lords will, it may be confidently predicted, be effected in the near future. [Barons; Peerage.]

O. L. Pike, "Constitutional History of the House of Lords," 1894; A. F. Pollard, "Evolution of Parliament," 1920; C. H. Firth, "The House of Lords during the Civil War," 1910; A. S. Turbeville, "The House of Lords in the Reign of William III," 1913, and "The House of Lords in the 18th Century," 1927.

Lords Appellant. [Appellants.]

Lords of the Articles. [Articles.]

Lords of the Isles. [Isles, Lords of the.]

Lords Ordainers. [Ordainers.]

Lose-coat Field, The Battle of (1470), was the name given to a battle fought near Empingham between the forces of Edward IV and the Lincolnshire insurgents under Sir Robert Welles. The royal troops were victorious, and the rebels, in their anxiety to escape, threw off their tabards, whence the battle got its name.

Louth, John Bermingham, Earl of (*d.* 1329). [Bermingham.]

Lovat, Simon Fraser, Baron (1667?–1747). [Fraser.]

Lovell, Francis, Viscount (*d.* 1487?), was one of Richard III's chief supporters and advisers, and was made lord chamberlain of the household. He fought in the battle of Bosworth; raised a rebellion in the north in 1485–6; supported the claims of Lambert Simnel (q.v.), and fought in the battle of Stoke in 1487, where he was supposed to have been slain. But the discovery of a skeleton in a secret chamber at Minster Lovel makes it probable that he escaped to his house, where he died, perhaps of starvation.

Lowe, Robert, Viscount Sherbrooke (1811–92), was educated at Winchester and University College, Oxford. He became M.P. for Kidderminster in 1852, and vice-president of the board of trade in 1855, and was vice-president of the committee of council on education from 1859 to 1864. In this capacity he was instrumental in establishing the Revised Code [Education in England]. In 1866 he headed the "Adullamite" (q.v.) schism in the Liberal party. Later he was elected member for the University of London (1868), and became chancellor of the exchequer in the Gladstone ministry of December 1868. Here he made considerable reforms of and reductions in taxation; but his proposal for a match-tax (1871) excited violent hostility, and was abandoned. He was home secretary 1873–4; but after 1876, partly through failure of his sight, he practically retired into private life. After the general election of 1880 he was created Viscount Sherbrooke.

Lower Canada. [Quebec.]

Lucan, Patrick Sarsfield, titular Earl of (*d.* 1693). [Sarsfield.]

Lucaycos, The, an alternative name for the Bahamas (q.v.).

Lucius (or Lud) was a second-century potentate who sent an embassy to Rome during the pontificate of Eleutherius, entreating that he might be made a Christian. An early legend, which is repeated by Nennius and Bæda, makes him a king of the Britons, and relates that through him Britain first received the Faith. Actually Lucius appears to have been king of Edessa, which he ruled from the centre of Birtha (Britium)—a name easily confused with Britain. The confusion first occurs in the "Liber Pontificalis," which was probably compiled about A.D. 530.

Lucknow, The Defence of (1857), was one of the most remarkable episodes in the Indian Mutiny. Owing to the foresight of Sir Henry Lawrence, the Residency at Lucknow was armed and provisioned to stand a siege. On July 1 the enemy appeared before Lucknow, and the British withdrew to the Residency. On July 2 they lost their gallant leader. For three months, however, they held out. At the end of July they hoped to be relieved by Havelock, but the hope proved to be false. But on September 19 and 20, 2,500 British soldiers, under Sir James Outram, Havelock, and Neill, crossed the Ganges. On the 25th, Neill leading, the defences of Lucknow were attacked. The fire poured upon the assailants was tremendous, but they succeeded in making their way into the Residency. Outram now assumed the command of the garrison. The rebel forces now pressed the siege more closely with augmented numbers. On November 9 Sir Colin Campbell advanced to the relief of Lucknow, and on the 19th the position was evacuated.

——, Siege of (January 1—March 21, 1858). The operations for the recovery of Lucknow from the rebels began early in the new year. On January 1 Brigadier Hope was sent forward by Campbell to prevent the destruction of the iron suspension bridge over the Kalli Middi. This was done successfully, and the bridge repaired. Campbell entrenched himself strongly in the Dilkusha Palace, March 2. Heavy guns were brought up and Outram attacked the rebels in their strong position in the Kaiser Bagh on the 9th, and drove them before him till he could plant his batteries so as to enfilade the works on the canal and the iron and stone bridges. On the 11th Sir Edward Lingard inflicted heavy loss on the enemy. Brigadier-General Franks on the 14th successfully stormed the Imambarrah. The enemy now began to evacuate the city, and on the 19th a combined movement inflicted great loss upon them. On the 21st Lingard successfully stormed the last rebel stronghold in the heart of the city; Campbell drove the retreating rebels six miles from the city with heavy loss, and Lucknow was won.

L. Inglis, "Siege of Lucknow," 1893; Sir G. W. Forrest, "Indian Mutiny."

Lucy, Richard de (*d.* 1179), was a supporter of Stephen against Maud, who won the confidence of Henry II and became one of his most trusted ministers. He was appointed justiciar conjointly with Robert de Beaumont either before or immediately after Henry's accession, and on his colleague's death he continued to hold office alone. He helped to draw up the Constitutions of Clarendon (q.v.), for which he was excommunicated by Becket. In 1173 he defeated the forces of Henry's rebel sons at Fornham, and was most energetic in suppressing the revolt. In 1179 he resigned the justiciarship and retired to his abbey of Westwood to die.

Luddite Riots, The (1811–16), were the expression of an ignorant notion among the workpeople, especially of Yorkshire, Lancashire, and Nottinghamshire, that the prevailing distress, which was terrible and almost universal among the poor, was caused by the introduction of machinery. A quarter of a century before, one Ned Ludd, a half-witted boy in a Leicestershire village, made himself notorious by destroying two stocking-frames. The Yorkshire rioters chose to take a name from this poor creature. The distress was widespread; there was little work to be done; prices were very high; the continental war was still draining the resources of the country. The causes of the trouble were not far to seek; yet the use of machinery, which alone kept some few people in work, was set down as the cause of all the mischief: and the poor, ignorant half-starved crowds set to work busily to destroy all the machinery they could reach. During 1811–12 the northern counties were in a perpetual state of disturbance; the army was busily employed in the Peninsula; and except where here and there a resolute mill-owner overawed the rioters, no machinery was safe from the marauding bands. In 1816 the riots broke out again. The conclusion of peace was expected to bring back prosperity immediately, but the expectation was not fulfilled; and disappointment developed quickly into exasperation, producing constant disturbances. The government of Lord Liverpool was not of a kind to deal with such conditions; they made no attempt to go to the root of the evil—which was the utter misery of the poor—but, on the contrary, thought only of coercion. If the riots were quelled in one place, they broke out in another; and the repressive policy of the government only had the effect of manifesting to the people the necessity of union among themselves by means of secret societies. With the return of prosperity the riots gradually died out.

"State Trials," vol. xxxi.

Ludford, The Rout of, is the name applied to the sudden dissolution of the Yorkist forces in October 1459, on the approach of the king's army. Margaret of Anjou had taken the offensive against Richard, Duke of York, in May, and although Salisbury had defeated a Royalist detachment at Blore Heath, the Yorkists became demoralized on the approach of the main army led by Henry himself. Eventually, when confronted across Ludford Bridge by the Lancastrian host, York's men broke up in confusion, and the leaders were compelled to seek safety in precipitate flight. The duke himself escaped to Wales, while Warwick, Salisbury, and the young Edward, Earl of March, fled to Calais.

R. B. Mowat, "Wars of the Roses," 1914.

Ludlow, in Shropshire, was the most important stronghold of the Middle March of Wales. The castle, built in the twelfth century, was besieged by Stephen in 1138. It was taken by de Montfort in 1264. In 1459 it was occupied by Henry VI, and subsequently became the residence of Prince Edward, son of Edward IV, and of Arthur, son of Henry VII. In 1646 it was captured by the Parliamentarians. From the reign of Edward IV to 1685 the lord president of the Council of the Marches officially occupied Ludlow, when the office was abolished, and the castle allowed to decay. The holding of the Council of the Marches there made the town in a sense the capital of nearly all South Wales.

T. Wright, "History of Ludlow," 1826; H. T. Weyman, "Ludlow in Bygone Days," 1913.

Ludlow, Edmund (1617 ?–92), member of a good family in Wiltshire, was, at the outbreak of the Civil War, a student in the Inner Temple, entered Essex's Guards, and served under Waller and Fairfax. In May 1646 he was elected member for Wiltshire, and took his seat amongst the Republicans. He sat in the High Court which judged the king, and became a member of the council of state of the Commonwealth. In 1651 he was sent to Ireland as lieutenant-general of the horse, and after Ireton's death held for six months the supreme command until superseded by Fleetwood (November 1651—July 1652). He remained at his post in spite of Cromwell's expulsion of the Long Parliament, but opposed the proclamation of the Protectorate, and resigned his share in the civil government of the country in order not to recognize the new authority. In Richard Cromwell's parliament he vigorously opposed the government, and urged on the army leaders the restoration of the Rump. In July 1659 he was sent again to Ireland to succeed Henry Cromwell as head of the government, with the title of lieutenant-general of the horse. In October, having returned to England, he was nominated by Lambert one of the Committee of Safety established by the army, but steered a middle course between army and parliament, and wished for the restoration of the Rump. After Monck restored the excluded members, Ludlow ceased to attend the House, but still continued his vain attempts to unite the remains of the Republican party. He was a member of the Convention parliament, took his seat, and surrendered under the

proclamation ordering the regicides to deliver themselves up as prisoners, but remained at large on security. Thus, when he found his life in danger, he was able to fly to France (August 1660). He fixed his residence first at Geneva, then at Vevey, where he remained till the Revolution. Then he ventured to return to England, but the House of Commons presented an address to the king requesting his arrest, and he was obliged again to fly. He died at Vevey in 1692.

Ludlow's "Memoirs," 3 vols. 1698–9, ed. C. H. Firth, 1894, describe his experiences from 1640 to 1668, and are particularly valuable for the history of the Civil War in Wiltshire, his personal relations with Cromwell, and the events of the year 1659.

[C. H. F.]

Lulach was the son of Gilcomgan, mormaer of Moray. On the death of Macbeth (1057) he was declared King of Scotland by the supporters of Macbeth. After a reign of a few months he was slain at Essil, in Strathbogie (March 17, 1058).

Lumley, John, Lord (*d.* 1609), was restored in blood by an act of parliament, 1547, his father, George, Lord Lumley, having been implicated in the treason of Sir Thomas Percy and Lord Darcy. In 1569 he was arrested and placed in confinement on suspicion of being favourable to the Catholic lords in the north. After the collapse of the rebellion Lumley resumed his treasonable correspondence with Spain, and speedily became involved in the Ridolfi conspiracy, on the discovery of which he was sent to the Marshalsea (1571). He was subsequently pardoned, and acted as a commissioner at the trials of Mary, Queen of Scots, and the Earl of Essex.

Lundy's Lane, The Battle of (July 24, 1814), during the American War of 1812 was fought near Fort George, on Lake Ontario, between the British troops, under Sir G. Drummond and General Riall, and an American force under General Brown. Both sides claimed a victory.

R. Johnson, "American War of 1812–15," 1889.

Luxemburg Question. In 1830, at the Conference of London, the Belgian question (q.v.) was complicated by the Luxemburg question. Luxemburg was really part of the Germanic Confederation, and though it had been ceded to the King of the Netherlands in 1814, it formed no part of Holland. Palmerston wished it to be united with Belgium; Talleyrand wished it to be handed over to France. The conference decided that it should remain part of the Germanic Confederation, but that its western part should be ceded to Belgium [London, Treaty of, 1831]. The conference eventually separated without having effected anything, but the provisions of the Treaty of London (November 1831) were enforced by Great Britain and France (1832).

Lyndhurst, John Singleton Copley, Baron (1772–1863). [Copley.]

Lynedoch, Thomas Graham, Baron (1748–1843). [Graham.]

Lyons, Edmund, 1st Baron (1790–1858), was the fourth son of John Lyons, of St. Austen's, Hants. He went to sea in 1803. In 1828 he became captain of the *Blonde*, in which he co-operated with the French in expelling the Turks from the Morea. In 1835 he was appointed minister at the new court of Athens. From 1849 to 1851 he was minister at Berne; from 1851 to 1853 minister at Stockholm. In 1853 he was appointed second in command of the Mediterranean fleet. In the *Agamemnon* he arranged, superintended, and made possible the embarkation of the allied forces at Varna and the Isle of Serpents, and their landing near Eupatoria. He served all through the Crimean War. In June 1855 he became commander-in-chief, and next year was created Baron Lyons.

Lyttelton, Edward, Lord (1589–1645), was a member of a distinguished family of lawyers, and the son of Sir Edward Lyttelton, chief justice of North Wales. He entered parliament in 1625, and at once joined the popular side, taking a leading part against Buckingham. In the parliament of 1628 he was one of the chief advocates of redress of grievances, but by 1631 he had made his peace with the king, and in 1634 was appointed solicitor-general, in which capacity he conducted with great ability the case against Hampden. In 1641 he was made lord keeper and received a peerage. During the debates with the Long Parliament Lyttelton had a difficult part to play, and at length, finding that moderate counsels were unavailing, he fled to the king at York, taking the great seal with him. On the outbreak of the war he raised a regiment consisting of gentlemen of the Inns of Court and others, and acted himself as colonel. But being unused to military service, his exertions were too much for his strength, and he died before very long. "He was a man of great reputation in the profession of the law," says Clarendon, "for learning and all other advantages which attend the most eminent men . . . and was not only very ready and expert in books, but exceedingly versed in records."

Lyttelton (or, Littleton), Thomas (*d.* 1481), was a distinguished lawyer, appointed one of the judges of the Common Pleas from 1466 to 1481. He is famous chiefly for his "Treatise on Tenures."

The "Treatise on Tenures" was printed (in Norman-French) at Rouen, probably about 1481, and translated into English in 1538. It was edited by H. Roscoe, 1825. Coke's "Commentary," called "Coke upon Littelton, or the First Institute," appeared in 1628.

Lytton, Edward George Earle Lytton Bulwer, 1st Baron (1803–73). [Bulwer.]

M

Macartney, George, Earl (1737–1806), after a distinguished diplomatic and political career, was sent out in 1775 as governor of the Caribbee Islands. In 1779 he was taken prisoner by Count d'Estaing, and sent to France until exchanged. From 1780 to 1785 he was governor of Madras, and in 1792 was sent to Pekin as ambassador. In 1796 he was made governor of the Cape of Good Hope, where his first act was to attempt to check the aggression of the colonists by the proclamation of exact boundaries. During his tenure of this office (1796–8) he managed to restrain in a great degree the turbulence of the Boers.

Biography by H. H. Robbins, 1908.

Macaulay, Thomas Babington, Lord (1800–59), the historian, was the eldest son of Zachary Macaulay, an African merchant, and a leading mover in the agitation against the slave trade. He was educated at Trinity College, Cambridge, where, in 1824, he obtained a fellowship. He was called to the bar in 1826, and in 1830 entered parliament as member for Calne. He joined the Whigs and took a prominent part in the debates on the Reform Bill, making some brilliant speeches. Lord Grey appointed him secretary to the board of control. In 1834 he went to India as legal member of council, and assisted to draw up the Indian penal code. On his return he was appointed secretary at war (1839–41), and was paymaster of the forces from 1846 to 1848. In 1857 he was raised to the peerage, but his health would not allow him to take any further part in public affairs. He died December 28, 1859, and was buried in Westminster Abbey.

Macaulay, "Essays," 1843; "History of England," 1848–61; biography by Sir G. O. Trevelyan, 1876 and 1908.

Macbeth, son of Finlay or Finel, Thane of Glamis, was mormaer of Ross and Moray, and the general of King Duncan against the Norwegians Thorfinn and Thorkell. In 1040 he went over to the enemy, slew Duncan, whether by treachery or in battle is uncertain, at Bothnagowan, near Elgin, and divided the kingdom with Thorfinn, taking to himself the districts south and west of the Tay, with the central district in which Scone is situated. It is somewhat difficult to separate the Macbeth of history from the Macbeth of Shakespeare and tradition, but he appears to have ruled Scotland well, and to have benefited the Church in no small degree. Although he had married Gruach, the granddaughter of Kenneth IV, Macbeth was always regarded as a usurper, and in 1045 we find Crinan, abbot of Dunkeld, making an unsuccessful effort to reinstate his grandchildren on the throne. In 1050 Macbeth made a journey to Rome, but on his return he was attacked by Siward, Earl of Northumbria, and defeated at Dunsinane in 1054. Siward succeeded in establishing Malcolm, son of Duncan, as king in the southern districts of Scotland. In 1057, on the death of his powerful ally Thorfinn, Macbeth was again attacked by Malcolm, and slain at Lumphanan. From this time hereditary, instead of collateral, succession became the rule in Scotland. The reign of Macbeth is shrouded in the mysteries of legend and romance. It must be remembered that the well-known stories of Banquo, the march of Birnam Wood, and the like, are mere inventions of the chroniclers.

P. Hume Brown, "History of Scotland," 1911; C. S. Terry, "History of Scotland," 1920.

Macdonald, Flora (*d.* 1790), was a lady of South Uist, who is famous for the help she gave the Young Pretender, Charles Edward Stuart, in escaping after the battle of Culloden. She caused the prince to be dressed in woman's clothes, and to pass as her maidservant, and by her courage and resource succeeded in bringing him safely to the Isle of Skye, where he escaped to France. Flora Macdonald was arrested and imprisoned in the Tower till July 1747. She married a relation, also named Macdonald, and went with him to America, but subsequently returned to Scotland.

Biography by A. Macgregor, 1901.

MacDonald, James Ramsay (*b.* 1866), was born at Lossiemouth and educated at Drainie board school. As a journalist in London he became a Socialist, joined the Independent Labour Party in 1894, and unsuccessfully contested Southampton in 1895. In 1899 he became secretary of the Labour Representation Committee established as a result of the Trade Union Congress of that year, and in 1906, when the committee succeeded in returning 29 members to parliament, he became member for Leicester, and in 1911 leader of his party. On the outbreak of the Great War in 1914 he dissented from the government view that there was an "obligation of honour" to declare war. This attitude brought him into great unpopularity. He was out of parliament during the years 1918–22. But in 1922 he became leader of the opposition at the head of 140 Labour members, and on January 22, 1924, he formed the first Labour ministry in British history, himself taking the posts of prime minister and foreign secretary. The problem of the Ruhr he mitigated by the London Settlement of August 16 dealing with reparations, and he contributed (with M. Herriot, the prime minister of France) the Geneva Protocol (q.v.) of September towards the cause of disarmament and security. Simultaneously he dealt with the problems of unemployment and housing, and improved the relations existing between Great Britain and Russia by recognizing the Soviet Republics. But in October 1924 his ministry was defeated on its Russian policy after nine months of office, and resigned.

Macdonald, John, 4th and last Lord of the Isles, and 11th Earl of Ross (*d.* 1498), took up arms against the king (James II) in 1453 to avenge the murder of Douglas and

his own private wrongs. He was defeated at Strathfleet and came to terms with James. He fought on the Scottish side at the siege of Roxburgh (1460), for which service he was appointed a warden of the Marches. In 1462, however, he entered into a treaty with Edward IV of England and declared himself King of the Hebrides. He remained unmolested until 1475, when, on the news of his dealings with England becoming known, he was attainted and his estate was declared forfeit. Next year, however, John made his submission. His former earldom of Ross was vested in the Crown, but the bulk of his lands were restored and he was created a lord of parliament as John de Isla, Lord of the Isles. An attempt of his natural son Alexander to recover Ross again brought John into disgrace, but in 1494 he once more submitted and lived in peaceful retirement till his death.

Macdonald of the Isles, Alexander (*d.* 1449), was one of the rebellious Highland chieftains summoned by James I to appear at Inverness in 1427. He was there thrown into prison, but, having made his submission, was released in 1429. His first act was to burn Inverness, and to invade Lochaber, where, however, he was defeated and compelled to surrender. He was imprisoned at Tantallon Castle; but was later pardoned, and thenceforward remained loyal.

Macdonnell, Alexander, 3rd Earl of Antrim (1615–99), was a Roman Catholic, and an active supporter in Ireland of James II after the Revolution. He was sent with 1,200 men to occupy Londonderry, but the inhabitants shut the gates in his face, and he thought it prudent to retire to Coleraine. At the battle of the Boyne his cavalry fled without striking a blow. He was attainted of high treason, but was subsequently included in the provisions of the Treaty of Limerick (q.v.), and his honours and estates were restored to him.

Macdonnell, Randal, Marquis of Antrim (*d.* 1683), was employed in 1641 to gain over the Irish army, and he greatly ingratiated himself with the Catholics. Though a Catholic and a Cavalier, he was eager to fight the Ulster rebels, and offered his aid to Monro, who, however, treacherously seized him, and kept him a prisoner for eight months, when he escaped, joined Owen O'Neill, and became one of the Kilkenny Council, pretending that he would bring 10,000 men over to England. The 1,500 men under Kolkitto who joined Montrose in 1644 were sent by him. Clarendon says of him that he was a narrow-minded and vain man, and aspired to supplant Ormonde as a commander, though wholly unfit for the post.

Clarendon, "History of the Rebellion," 1702–4.

MacGregor, Robert (1671–1734), better known as Rob Roy, was at first a grazier, but entering upon large speculations in cattle-breeding had ill-luck, and finally absconded in 1711 with money borrowed from the Duke of Montrose, who thereupon seized his small estate. Rob Roy gained the patronage of the Duke of Argyll, and proceeded to wage a predatory warfare against Montrose, and also against all who favoured the union with England. He took part in the rising of 1715 and was attainted, but evaded capture. He submitted to General Wade in 1722, and spent some time in Newgate, until pardoned in 1727 on the eve of being transported to Barbados.

Macheth, Malcolm, son of Angus, Earl of Moray, maintained his father's cause after the battle of Stracathro, causing great trouble to King David, who, however, at length took him prisoner (1137), and confined him in the castle of Roxburgh. He was finally liberated by Malcolm IV (1157), after twenty-three years of captivity.

Mackay, General Hugh (1640–92), of Scourie, in Sutherlandshire, having served abroad for thirty years, was sent by William III to Scotland in 1689, where he endeavoured to bring Claverhouse to bay, fixing his headquarters at Inverness. For some time he was unsuccessful, but at length forced an engagement at Killiecrankie (q.v.—July 27, 1689), where, although he suffered defeat, he had a more than counterbalancing gain in the death of his great opponent. The following year Mackay built Fort William (q.v.). He then went to Ireland, where he served under Ginkel (q.v.), and was present at Aghrim. He was killed at the battle of Steinkirk, July 24, 1692.

Biography by J. Mackay, 1836.

Mackintosh, Sir James (1765–1832), was born at Aldourie, Inverness-shire, and educated at King's College, Aberdeen. He became a member of the Royal Medical Society and also of the Speculative Society. In 1789 he published a pamphlet on the Regency question, in which he supported the views of the Whigs. In 1791 he became known to the world as the antagonist of Burke in his "Vindiciæ Gallicæ." The talent he displayed made him many illustrious friends in the opposition, but he was soon converted by Burke himself. In 1795 he was called to the bar. In 1803 he defended the French journalist Peltier. He held for some time the appointment of professor of General Polity and of Law in the East India College at Haileybury and the office of recorder of Bombay. He was knighted in 1803. He returned in 1811, and was elected member for Nairn (1813), and Knaresborough (1818). He devoted himself during his parliamentary career to the improvement of the penal code.

M'Leod Affair, The (1841). During the Canadian rebellion an American steamer called the *Caroline*, which had been engaged in carrying arms to the rebels, was boarded in the night by a party of loyalists, set on fire, and driven over the Falls of Niagara. She was

lying at that time within the territorial jurisdiction of the State of New York, and an American citizen lost his life in the struggle. The matter caused some excitement in the United States; and in January 1841 Alexander M'Leod, a British subject, was arrested in the State of New York on a charge of murder, for being concerned in the attack on the *Caroline*. The British government at once demanded his release, asserting that he was acting under and within his orders, and that in consequence the responsibility rested solely with them. The United States government replied that they could not interfere with the internal affairs of the State of New York. Palmerston retorted that the execution of M'Leod would be followed by war. M'Leod was tried at Utica in October, and was declared not guilty. This was a simple solution of what seemed likely to prove a very disastrous affair.

Macnaghten, Sir William Hay (1793–1841), was for several years a member of the Madras army before he entered the Bengal civil service in 1814. He gained great distinction at the college of Fort William, and in the judicial branch of the service. He entered the political department during the administration of Lord William Bentinck, and in 1837 was secretary to Lord Auckland. In 1838 he was sent to Lahore to negotiate the triple alliance with Ranjit Singh (q.v.). He accompanied the Afghan expedition as political envoy. On December 23, 1841, he was assassinated at Kabul by Mohammed Akbar Khan.

Macquarie, Colonel Lachlan (*d.* 1824), was sent out as governor of New South Wales in 1809. By his amelioration of the condition of the discharged convicts he did much to develop the colony, whilst his employment of convict labour in the construction of roads had the effect of opening out the country to an extent hitherto unknown. On his return to England in 1822 he left New South Wales "four times as populous and twenty times as large as when he went out."

Marion Phillips, "A Colonial Autocracy: New South Wales Under Governor Macquarie, 1810–21," 1909.

Mad Parliament. [Henry III.]

Madras was granted to the English as a site for a trading factory, with a small adjacent factory, by the Raja of Bijnagur, in 1639. A fort, called Fort St. George, was erected here. In 1654 it was created a presidency. It speedily grew in importance, and became almost the largest trading station of the English in India. In 1702 the fort was strong enough to hold out successfully against the besieging army of the Emperor Aurungzeb. In 1746, however, it was captured by the French general, La Bourdonnais (September 1), and remained in the hands of the French till restored to the British by the Peace of Aix-la-Chapelle (1748). In the Seven Years' War it was besieged (December, 1758) by Lally, till relieved by Admiral Pococke (February 1759). In 1769 and 1780 it was threatened, though not actually attacked, by Hyder Ali. In 1809 a mutiny of the officers took place. In 1817 the town was besieged by the Pindaris. In 1833 a bishopric was established there.

W. Foster, "Founding of Fort St. George," 1902; H. Dodwell, "Nabobs of Madras," 1926.

Madras Mutiny, The (1809), was a serious disturbance among the European officers of the East India Company's army. The retrenching theories of the directors induced them to reduce some of the perquisites of the officers. The whole army mutinied. One hundred and fifty-eight officers signed an address to government demanding the repeal of the obnoxious order and the restoration of the officers. Supported by the new commander-in-chief and the king's regiments, Sir George Barlow appealed to the sepoys against their officers. This was done so successfully that only in Seringapatam was there any disturbance, where 150 native troops were killed and wounded. Lord Minto succeeded in conciliating the disaffected officers.

Magasætas (or Hecanas), The, were a group of Anglian settlers occupying an area rather larger than the present county of Hereford. The region was apparently annexed by Wulfhere of Mercia in the latter half of the seventh century. It was, a little later, given a bishop of its own.

Magdalen College, Oxford, Case of (1687–8), was one of the causes leading to the downfall of James II. In 1687 the presidency of Magdalen College fell vacant, when James II issued a letter ordering the election of one Anthony Farmer, a Roman Catholic, as president. Farmer was not only disqualified technically from holding the appointment, but was a man of notoriously immoral life and bad reputation. In spite of the royal injunction, the fellows elected one of their number, Dr. Hough, to the presidency, whereupon they were cited before the Ecclesiastical Commission. The proofs of Farmer's disgraceful conduct were indisputable, and the commission cancelled his nomination; but James insisted on the election of Parker, Bishop of Oxford, another Catholic, to the presidency. Again the fellows refused, and for this all except two, who yielded to the king's wishes, were suspended and eventually deprived of their fellowships. On the death of Parker, early in 1688, James gave the presidency to Bonaventura Giffard, one of the vicars apostolic sent to England by the pope, and the college was transformed into a Catholic seminary. But by the end of the year James, being anxious to conciliate his subjects, restored the ejected fellows, and accepted Hough as president.

Magedauc, The Battle of (750), was a victory for the Britons of Strathclyde over the Picts. Magedauc is Mugdoch, in Dumbartonshire.

Magna Carta. The Charter that is called Great, to mark its prominent value among the charters granted by the Norman and Angevin kings, was "given under our hand," that is, sealed by King John with the royal seal, on June 15, 1215. It has been variously described as a formally enacted law, a treaty, the royal answer to a petition, and a declaration of rights. Its precise juridical nature is, in point of fact, difficult to determine. It was the result of a bargain between the Crown and the rebel magnates, and took when committed to writing the form natural to the age—viz., that of a charter duly authenticated by the seal of the grantor. W. S. McKechnie has described it as "a treaty or contract which enacts or proclaims a number of rules and customs as binding in England, and reduces them to writing in the unsuitable form of a feudal charter granted by King John to the freemen of England and their heirs." But it had to undergo several changes before reaching a final form. As originally granted, it contained sixty-three clauses, which, among other provisions, set limits to the usuries of the Jews, pledged the king to raise no scutage or aid save through the "common council" of the realm ("per commune consilium regni"), or on the three ordinary feudal occasions, prescribed the forms of summoning this council, forbade any increase of the customary farms, empowered everyone to go away from and come back to the realm unhindered, mitigated the oppressiveness of the Forest Laws, and banished the royal mercenaries. When first confirmed, in 1216, by the Earl of Pembroke, for the boy-king Henry III, it had lost all these and some other concessions; and thus its clauses were abridged to forty-two. At its second confirmation, made in 1217, these forty-two had grown to forty-seven, one of which settled the times of holding the county court and view of frankpledge, while another restricted grants in mortmain. The fifth confirmation, made in 1225, reduced the clauses once more, to thirty-seven this time, and these proved the final and accepted legal version. Even in this form it is a sufficiently comprehensive document. To the Church it guaranteed the freedom that mainly meant liberty to choose its prelates; to tenants-in-chief relief from the oppressive enforcement of feudal obligations; from disparagement of heirs and spoliation of widows; to mesne tenants it promised in general terms similar securities against mesne lords; to London and other cities and towns all their ancient franchises; to merchants full licence to go about buying and selling from, to, or through England unfleeced; to villeins that their wainage should not be distrained to pay fines; to the collective community that Common Pleas should be held in a fixed place; that fines should be assessed on oath, by upright men of the venue, and be proportioned to the offence; that weights and measures should be uniform, and that the sheriffs should be curbed in the exercise of their manifold authority. But the most famous clauses of the Charter are those which assure to every freeman in his person and property security from every kind of damaging process, "save through the lawful judgment of his peers or the law of the land," and pledge the king not to sell, refuse, or postpone the doing of justice to anyone. The later confirmations are almost beyond reckoning; fifteen are found in Edward III's reign alone. Never has law been held in higher esteem; the very day that Charles II entered London as a restored king, the Commons asked him to confirm the Charter. The extrinsic importance of Magna Carta is, however, greater than its intrinsic importance. The unhistorical view which made it the source of our modern liberties, the foundation of the principle of "no taxation without representation," and of trial by jury, and which saw in it a great national achievement, has in recent years been much discredited. It has been pointed out that Magna Carta was in origin and in essence a feudal document, concerned primarily with the rights and privileges of the feudal classes, and that it is the foundation of our liberties only in the sense that it marked the first successful limitation of the royal authority and supplied for posterity a symbol of the triumph of "lex" over "rex." The Magna Carta of popular legend was, it may be said, as much an invention of the seventeenth-century lawyers as was the "feudal system."

W. S. McKechnie, "Magna Carta," 1905 and 1914; H. E. Maldon (ed.), "Magna Carta Commemoration Essays" (Royal Historical Society, 1917); F. Thompson, "The First Century of Magna Carta," 1925.

Magnus Maximus, a Spanish officer who had seen much service in Britain, rebelled in 383 against Gratian, and was proclaimed emperor by the legionaries. He established his power in Britain, Gaul, and Spain, and in 387 invaded Italy with an army largely composed of British troops. He expelled the new emperor, Valentinian, but in 388 he was himself defeated and slain by Theodosius.

Maharajpur, The Battle of (December 29, 1843), took place during the Gwalior War. The impossibility of restoring order to the Gwalior state belonging to Sindhia, except by an appeal to arms, determined Lord Ellenborough to dispatch an army to effect this. On December 20 the army under Sir Hugh Gough advanced on Gwalior. Sindhia's troops had taken up a strong position, and during the night seven battalions of infantry entrenched themselves with 20 guns of heavy calibre in the village of Maharajpur. The discharge of the masked batteries gave the first notice to Gough of the proximity of Sindhia's army. The heavy guns had been left behind, and so the British commander at once launched his troops on the Mahratta batteries, which were served till all the gunners were shot down at their posts. After the guns were captured, the infantry maintained their ground with great determination, and the victory was not gained till 1,000 British fell, killed and wounded.

Mahratta Ditch, The, was an entrenchment cut around Calcutta in 1742, on the occasion of a Mahratta invasion of Bengal. The work was suspended, however, on the withdrawal of the invaders.

Mahrattas, The, consisted of several tribes of Hindu mountaineers whose origin and early history are obscure. They were brought into prominence towards the end of the seventeenth century by the chief Sivaji, who took advantage of the weakness of the Moguls, and the wars of Aurungzeb, to extend his dominions. Plundering hordes sallied forth from Satara in every direction, until the whole surface of India was studded with their possessions. The break-up of the Mogul empire enabled them to extend their dominions from Delhi in the north to the Tumbuddra, and from the Bay of Bengal to Gujarat on the west. During the reigns of Sivaji's weak successors all authority was usurped by the principal officers of state. Two powerful kingdoms were formed, the one under the Peshwa, or prime minister, whose capital was at Poona, and the other under the commander-in-chief, who fixed his capital at Nagpur, and was known as the Raja of Berar. The authority of the Raja of Satara became merely nominal, and all power resided in the Peshwa, who became head of the Mahratta Confederacy. A herdsman founded a sovereignty in Gujarat, fixing his court at Baroda, and was known by the title of the Gaekwar. Another band sallying south founded the state of Tanjore; all these chieftains, including the Raja of Berar, or the Bhonslah, acknowledged the supremacy of the Peshwa, and marched to battle under his standard. This ill-cemented confederacy tended to split up owing to the weakness of successive peshwas and the rise of other chieftains, such as Sindhia and Holkar, who waged almost independent wars in Rajputana and Malwa. This disintegrating tendency was shown at the Peace of Salbhye, when Mahdaji Sindhia assumed an almost independent position as mediator between the Poona state and the British government. The confederacy, however, still held together, and in 1795, for the last time, the whole Mahratta army assembled under the banner of the Peshwa, to crush the Nizam. The civil wars and disturbances which attended the accession of Baji Rao II, and the rivalry between the various chiefs, especially Dowlat Rao Sindhia, and Jeswunt Rao Holkar, caused the total break-up of the confederacy by the Treaty of Bassein. The result of the wars which followed was to reduce the Peshwa to the position of a dependent on the British government, and to establish Sindhia, Holkar, and the Raja of Berar as independent sovereigns. Tanjore had already fallen to the British, and the Gaekwar was bound by a defensive alliance to the conquerors of India. The dissatisfaction of the Peshwa at his dependent state, and his attempts to recover independence, in which he was aided by the Raja of Berar, Appa Sahib, caused the deposition of the former, the annexation of his territories, and the final dissolution of the Mahratta Confederacy (1818).

The chief members of the Mahratta Confederacy were:

The *Raja of Satara*, the descendant of Sivaji. The authority of this prince, long obsolete, was revived in 1819. This reorganization was dangerous as supplying a fresh nucleus for Mahratta intrigue. In 1839 it was discovered that the raja was in correspondence with Portuguese and other enemies of the British government with the object of exciting a confederacy against his benefactors. Lord Auckland deposed him and elevated his brother to the throne on the same conditions of dependence. The latter governed the country with great vigour and beneficence for ten years. As he left no legitimate heirs and had not obtained the consent of the British to adopt a son, Lord Dalhousie held that the Satara state had now fairly lapsed to the company. It was therefore annexed (1848).

The *Peshwa*, resident at Poona; ruling in Poona, Khandeish, the Konkan, and Gujarat, with a nominal supremacy over the whole confederation. His territory and power were greatly diminished by the Treaty of Bassein, and the rise of the other chieftains. His dominions were finally annexed by the treaties of 1817 and 1818.

The *Raja of Berar*, resident at Nagpur; ruling what now constitutes the Central Provinces. The Berar state was annexed in 1853 on the same principle as the annexation of Satara.

The *Raja of Tanjore*, ruling at Tanjore. [Tanjore.]

The *Gaekwar*, ruling at Baroda. [Gaekwar.]

Sindhia, ruling at Gwalior. [Sindhia.]

Holkar, ruling at Indore. [Holkar.]

The *Raja of Bundelkhand*. In 1786 two Mahratta chiefs had established an insecure throne in Bundelkhand. In 1803 the Peshwa Baji Rao, as head of the Mahratta state, ceded his claims on Bundelkhand to the British. The province was definitely annexed, and in 1817 the Peshwa formally gave up all claims on it.

The *Raja of Kolhapur* was the possessor of a jaghire in the Poona state.

J. C. Grant Duff, "Mahrattas," 2 vols., 1826 and 1921.

Maintenance is defined in the law books as "the act of assisting the plaintiff in any legal proceeding in which the person giving the assistance has no valuable interest, or in which he acts from an improper motive"; or, less technically, it is simply "interference with the due course of justice." It was often found easier in the England of the Middle Ages for a man to have recourse to some powerful neighbour who would "maintain" his cause, than to seek, on his own motion, for the expen-

sive, uncertain, and cumbrous remedies of the law courts. In return for help, which might be warrantable, but which was more commonly a gross perversion of the course of justice, the person assisted became the dependent or client of the baron who supported him. In other cases, lawyers were guilty of similar acts of "maintenance." Allied with maintenance was the custom of giving livery, which, besides its more direct political result in exciting and stimulating dynastic factions, was commonly resorted to as giving a colourable excuse for maintenance. In conjunction the customs of livery and maintenance produced a "chronic organized anarchy, striking at all law and government whatsoever." Associations were formed to maintain the suits of their members. Great lords conferred with lavish profusion their liveries on all who would wear them, and regarded it as a point of honour to "maintain" the causes of their clients. A long series of statutes and proclamations were directed against these evils, but to very little purpose. By the Statute of Westminster the First it was ordered that no sheriff or officer of justice should maintain parties in quarrels. Two other enactments of Edward I's reign, in 1285 and 1305, were to the same effect. In 1327 and 1346 stronger measures, which in themselves were evidences of the development of the custom, were passed. By forbidding the return to parliament of maintainers of false suits, an indirect but effectual blow was aimed against the practice. But maintenance was never more flagrant than when Alice Perrers, the mistress of Edward III's dotage, took her seat in the courts of law to maintain the causes of her friends, or when John of Gaunt and Percy "maintained" Wyclif when attacked for heresy by the Bishop of London. A series of statutes in the reign of Richard II had little effect, and maintenance flourished during the weak government of the fifteenth century. Meanwhile the practice of livery had increased also, and the importance laid on heraldry during the later Middle Ages largely brought this about. During the period 1377–1468 a long series of acts of parliament limited the right of nobles to confer liveries as well as strengthened the laws against maintenance. But their weakness for good lay in the fact that there was no efficient court to carry them out, since the law courts were themselves brought into contempt by the custom of maintenance. A famous act of Henry VII (the Statute of Livery and Maintenance, 3 Hen. VII, c. i) remedied this defect of previous legislation by constituting a court of royal officials, who were by their position free from the fear of violence and corruption that beset the assizes. This measure, in conjunction with the stricter government of the Tudors, soon brought an end to maintenance. An act of Henry VIII passed in 1540 was indeed directed against maintenance, but its provisions show that fraud, not force, was the means then sought to pervert the course of justice; and the offence of maintenance in subsequent periods has consisted of fraudulent rather than forcible attempts to interfere with the due course of justice.

W. S. Holdsworth, "History of English Law," 1922.
[T. F. T.]

Maitland, Sir John (1545 ?–95), brother of Maitland of Lethington, was made lord privy seal (1567), though in 1571 he was deprived of his office by act of parliament for favouring the queen. In 1584 James VI made him secretary of state, and in 1587 chancellor. He was a great enemy of the 2nd Earl of Bothwell, who in 1591 attacked Holyrood House with a view to seizing him. In 1589 he accompanied James to Norway to fetch his bride, Anne of Denmark, and in 1590 was created Lord Maitland of Thirlestan.

Maitland, John, Duke of Lauderdale (1616–82), born at Lethington, took part with the Covenanters against the king, became one of the Scottish representatives in the Westminster Assembly, and commanded a Scottish infantry regiment at the battle of Marston Moor. In December 1647 he was one of the Scottish commissioners who signed the secret treaty with the king at Carisbrooke, and took up arms with Hamilton and the Engagers. Obliged to fly from Scotland when Argyll regained power, he returned with Charles II in 1650, was taken prisoner at the battle of Worcester, and remained in confinement till March 1660, when he was rewarded for his services by being made secretary of state for Scotland. He opposed the re-establishment of Episcopalianism in that country, and by his skilful intrigues finally succeeded in overthrowing his rival Middleton (1663). From this moment he was virtually governor of Scotland, which he ruled through Lord Rothes and Archbishop Sharpe. "His great experience in affairs," says Burnet, "his ready compliance with everything that he thought would please the king, and his bold offering at the most desperate counsels, gained him such an interest with the king, that no attempt against him, nor complaint of him, could ever shake it, till a decay of strength and understanding forced him to let go his hold. He was in his principles much against popery and arbitrary government, and yet, by a fatal train of passions and interests, he made way for the former, and had almost established the latter. Whereas some by a smooth deportment made the first beginnings of tyranny less discernible and unacceptable, he by the fury of his behaviour heightened the severity of his ministry, which was liker the cruelty of an inquisition than the legality of justice." His great object was to exalt the power of the Crown, and though he did not scruple to use the greatest severity against the zealous Presbyterians of Fife and the south-west, he aimed at preventing the Episcopalians from

becoming too strong, and maintaining for the king the preponderance over both parties. He instigated the decree of 1669, by which a large number of expelled Presbyterian ministers were reinstated. He obtained for the king from the parliament of 1669 the fullest possible recognition of the royal supremacy, and the control of the militia. In England he exercised a great influence as a member of the privy council, and was one of the persons to whom the king's Treaty of Dover against Holland was confided (1670). He was credited with advising the king to use the forces of Scotland against the English parliament, which, with other causes, led the Commons to demand his removal from the king's service (1674). The king created him Duke of Lauderdale in the Scottish and Earl of Guildford in the English peerage (1672). In spite of all attacks he retained his power until the Scottish insurrection of 1679. According to Burnet, "the king found his memory failing him, and so he resolved to let him fall gently, and bring all the Scotch affairs into the Duke of Monmouth's hands." He died on August 20 or 24, 1682.

"Lauderdale Papers" (Camden Society); biography by W. C. Mackenzie, 1923. [C. H. F.]

Maitland, William, of Lethington (1528 ?–73), eldest son of Sir Richard Maitland, well known as an able and inscrutable politician at an early age, for some years played an almost continuous part in the history of Scottish politics, and in 1558 was appointed secretary of state to Queen Mary, who continually employed him as her envoy to the English court. He played a prominent part in the Treaty of Edinburgh (q.v.—1560). Although he joined the Lords of Congregation, he was nevertheless in favour of extending toleration to the queen as to her religion. In 1565 he supported the marriage with Darnley, but a year later persuaded the queen to sue for a divorce. After Darnley's murder he accompanied Mary to Seton in Haddingtonshire, but deserted her on symptoms of danger appearing in 1567, and joined the Confederate Lords on Mary's captivity in England. However, he openly joined her party, and in 1569 was arrested and sent to Edinburgh as one of Darnley's murderers, but was acquitted, and resumed his office of secretary of state, and remained faithful to Mary until the surrender of Edinburgh Castle placed him in the hands of his enemies. He is alleged to have poisoned himself, June 1573. His policy was characterized by a craft and depth that made him no bad match for the astute Cecil, but his whole course of action is steeped in mystery as to its motive and its end.

Skelton, "Maitland of Lethington," 1887–8; E. Russell, "Maitland of Lethington," 1912.

Major-Generals (or Majors-General). In 1655, after the disagreement with his first parliament, and the rising under Penruddock, Cromwell devised the plan of dividing England into military districts, to be governed each by a major-general, responsible only to the protector and council. The major-generals were entrusted with the command of the militia, with the duties of putting down all attempted insurrections, carrying out the protector's police regulations, and raising the 10 per cent. income tax imposed on Royalists. The first appointed was Desborough, in May 1655, for the six south-western counties; but the whole organization was officially announced in October. Including Wales, there were, in all, twelve districts. When Cromwell's second parliament met, after a vigorous defence of his "poor little invention," he was obliged to abandon it. The House of Commons, on January 29, 1657, rejected, by 121 to 78, the second reading of a "bill for the continuing and assessing of a tax for the paying and maintaining of the Militia forces in England and Wales," and thus deprived the protector of the machinery by which the system of major-generals was maintained. The period of rule by the major-generals has been regarded as the most frankly militarist of the Cromwellian regime. Oliver's apologists have, however, pointed out that the breakdown of the traditional scheme of local government necessitated some measure of reconstruction, and that the appointment of the major-generals was only a first step towards the creation of such a new system of local administration.

Biographies of Cromwell.

Malabar Coast is the coast of India west of the Western Ghauts, south of Canara, and north of Travancore.

Malacca. [Malaya, British.]

Malaun, The Siege of (April 15, 1815), occurred during the Gurkha War. General Ochterlony succeeded in confining Amir Singh, the Gurkha general, to the fort of Malaun, which was situated on a mountain ridge. On April 16 a sally was made upon the British works, but the Gurkhas were obliged to retire, with the loss of 500 men. The majority of them soon deserted to the British. When the British batteries were about to open, Amir Singh felt unwilling to sacrifice in a forlorn conflict the lives of the men who had adhered to him, and accepted the terms offered, thus ceding the whole of the conquests which the Nepalese had made west of the Kali. Ochterlony allowed him to march out with his arms, colours, and personal property. [Gurkha War.]

Malaya, British, consists of the Straits Settlements, the Federated Malay States, the Non-Federated Malay States and the Protected State of Johore.

Straits Settlements, The, consist of the island of Singapore with its dependencies of Penang, Malacca, the Cocos or Keeling Islands, Christmas Island, and Labuan, governed by a governor, an executive council of ten, and a nominated legislative council of twenty-six, half of whom are unofficial. Singapore was occupied in 1819, ceded in 1824, and is now a

free port. Labuan was ceded by the sultan of Brunei in 1846. Malacca was occupied by the Portuguese from 1511 until they were expelled by the Dutch in 1640. It was captured by the British in 1795 and restored in 1818, but changed hands again in 1829, British possessions in Sumatra being given to the Dutch in exchange.

Federated Malay States are controlled under treaty (1895) by Great Britain, viz. Perak, Selangor, Negri Sembilan, and Pehang. They are ruled by native rulers who use European officers for their police. The other Malay States of Kedah, Perlis, Kelantan, and Trengganu virtually surrendered their sovereignty in 1909, when, by the Anglo-Siamese Treaty, Great Britain became suzerain and protector and was given administration and control. Johore has been ruled by the sultan, acting on the advice of the British resident, since 1885.

F. A. Swettenham, "British Malaya," 1907; R. J. Wilkinson, "Papers on Malay Subjects," 1907; A. R. Wallace, "The Malay Archipelago," 1912; A. Wright and T. H. Reid, "The Malay Peninsula," 1912. [H. R.]

Malcolm I, King of Scotland (943–54), son of Donald, succeeded to the throne of Alban on the resignation of Constantine II (943). One of his first acts was to attack and slay Cellach, the provincial King of Moray. In 945 Edmund of England made over to him the province of Cumberland, on condition that he should "be his fellow-worker both by land and sea," a compact which was renewed by Edmund's successor, Edred. Whether this transaction implied that Malcolm became the vassal of the West Saxon king is a controversial question. In 949, however, Malcolm, having broken the condition, ravaged Northumbria as far as the Tees. He was slain (954), perhaps at Alwin, near Forres, by the men of Moray, or at Fetteresso, by the men of the Mearns.

Malcolm II, King of Scotland (1005–1034), son of Kenneth II, came to the throne of Scotland as the successor of Kenneth III (1005), and at once attacked Northumbria, besieging Durham with a large army. He was, however, defeated by Uchtred, son-in-law of Aldun, Bishop of Durham. Unsuccessful in his attempts to wrest Caithness from the Norwegian earls, he concluded an alliance with Sigurd, Earl of Orkney, in 1008, giving him his daughter in marriage. Their son, Thorfinn, he made Earl of Sutherland and Caithness (1014). In 1018 Malcolm retrieved his former defeat by a brilliant victory at Carham over Eadulf, brother of Earl Uchtred, who was forced to cede Lothian to the Scottish king as the price of peace. In 1031 Malcolm submitted to Canute and became "his man," in return for his confirmation in possession of Lothian. He died in 1034. In him the direct male line of Kenneth MacAlpin came to an end. During his reign Strathclyde finally became part of the Scottish kingdom. Malcolm was the first king to be called King of Scotia. Under him the union of the four kingdoms—of the Picts, of Strathclyde, of Dalriada, and of Bernicia—was completed, and modern Scotland came into being.

P. Hume Brown, "History of Scotland," 1911; C. S. Terry, "History of Scotland," 1920.

Malcolm III, King of Scotland (1057–1093), surnamed Canmore (Great Head), was the eldest son of King Duncan, slain by Macbeth in 1040. On their father's death, Malcolm and his brother Donaldbane, who were mere infants, found refuge in England. In 1054 Malcolm secured the aid of Earl Siward of Northumbria, who defeated Macbeth near Dunsinane, and on his death, of Tostig, son of Earl Godwin. The cause of the young prince was also espoused by Edward the Confessor, with the result that Macbeth was slain at Lumphanan (1057), and that Malcolm obtained undisputed possession of the throne a few months later, being crowned at Scone (April 25, 1058). In 1061 the king broke his alliance with Tostig, and ravaged Northumbria, but became reconciled to him, and gave him shelter on his defeat by Morcar (1065). About 1068 Edgar the Atheling, his mother and two sisters, with a number of Saxon exiles, took refuge at the Scottish court, and were well received by Malcolm, out of gratitude for the aid formerly received from the Confessor. Shortly afterwards the Scottish king married Margaret, Edgar's sister, as his second wife (his first having been Ingibiorga, widow of Thorfinn of Caithness), a marriage which, in conjunction with the asylum granted to Saxon refugees, had a most important effect in improving the condition of the country, by promoting both civilization and education. Malcolm, in 1070, bound by his alliance with Edgar, harried the northern districts of England, upon which William retaliated by penetrating as far as Fife, in 1072, where, at Abernethy, the Scottish king swore fealty to him, and surrendered his son Duncan as a hostage, receiving in return the grant of certain lands in England. These obligations, however, sat but lightly on Malcolm. In 1079, during William's absence in Normandy, Malcolm ravaged England as far as the Tyne, drawing down by this act a fruitless invasion of Scotland by Robert in the following year. In 1091 Malcolm again espoused the cause of Edgar the Atheling, and invaded England, meeting William Rufus in Lothian; here, however, a peace was concluded by the exertions of Robert and Edgar, Malcolm renewing the conditions of Abernethy (1092). Next year Rufus reduced Cumberland, and refortified Carlisle to guard the west end of the border as Newcastle guarded the east end. Malcolm protested against this action, and in August 1093 was summoned to Gloucester; but was there treated with so much arrogance by William that he asserted his independence and hurried back to Scotland, where he collected an army with which he invaded England. He was

surprised on the banks of the Alne, near Alnwick Castle, and slain by the hand of Morel of Bamburgh (November 13, 1093), and buried at Tynemouth. His son Edward perished at the same time. Malcolm had six sons and two daughters, the elder of whom, Maud, married Henry I of England; the younger, Mary, Eustace, Count of Boulogne. The reign of Malcolm, from its effects in civilizing and consolidating Scotland, forms a most important epoch in the history of that country; but many of its consequences must be ascribed to the direct and subtle influence of the king's strong, saintly Saxon wife.

P. Hume Brown, "History of Scotland," 1911; C. S. Terry, "History of Scotland," 1920.

Malcolm IV ("the Maiden"), King of Scotland (1153–65), son of Prince Henry and Ada de Warenne, succeeded his grandfather, David I (1153). A few months after his succession a revolt occurred under the leadership of Somerled of Argyll and Donald, son of Malcolm MacHeth, which lasted for three years. In 1156 Malcolm was forced to surrender to his cousin, Henry II of England, the counties of Northumberland and Cumberland, although he was granted the earldom of Huntingdon, for which he performed homage at Chester. Malcolm attended Henry in France, on the Toulouse expedition, 1159. This recognition of his vassaldom seems to have provoked a rising in Scotland against him in 1160, but Malcolm successfully quelled it. He also subjected Galloway and Moray in the same year. In 1164 Malcolm defeated and slew Somerled, who was invading his territory. He died at Jedburgh at the early age of twenty-four (December 1165). The permanent absorption of turbulent Galloway gives to Malcolm's reign its chief importance.

Malcolm, natural son of Alexander I, conceived the idea of making himself king of the country north of the Forth and Clyde, in place of David I. In this project he was aided by Angus of Moray. He was, however, defeated in 1130, and finally reduced to subjection (1134).

Malcolm, Sir John (1769–1833), was born at Burnfoot, in Dumfriesshire. In 1783 he went to India as a cadet. He served during the second Mysore War and was appointed Persian interpreter in the camp of the Nizam. In 1798 he became assistant to the resident at Hyderabad. He served during the third Mysore War, and at its termination was appointed secretary to the commission which was to arrange the settlement of Mysore. When the commission had done its work Malcolm was sent to the Persian court (1799), where he successfully concluded a treaty of alliance against the French. He acted as private secretary to Lord Wellesley in 1801–2 and as political agent in Lord Lake's camp during the Holkar War, and negotiated the Treaty of Raipur Ghaut (1806) (q.v.). In 1807 he returned to Mysore, to act as resident. In 1808 he was dispatched on a second mission to Persia, in which he was totally unsuccessful; but in 1810, on his third visit, he was well received. In 1811 his "History of Persia" was published. He was present as Madras political agent and general during the Mahratta War (1817–18). He fought with great courage at Mehidpur, and negotiated the treaties with Holkar and Baji Rao. He was prominent in the settlement of Central India (1818–19), and was appointed political agent. In 1822 he returned to England and was created G.C.B. In 1827 he returned to India as governor of Bombay till 1830. He died in 1833.

Sir J. Kaye, "Life of Malcolm," 1856.

Maldive Islands. [Ceylon.]

Maldon, The Battle of (991), was fought between the English, under Brihtnoth, alderman of Essex, and the Danes, led by Guthmund, and Olaf Tryggvason. The invaders were boldly resisted, but proved victorious, and Brihtnoth and a large number of the English fell. This battle owes prominence in English history to the grand song which was written in commemoration of it.

The story of Maldon may be read in Sweet's "Anglo-Saxon Reader." A translation by W. P. Ker is given in R. W. Chambers, "England Before the Norman Conquest," 1926.

Maletote, or Malatolta, meaning literally "an evil tax," was the term generally applied to the levies upon wool arbitrarily imposed by Edward I and other kings, notably Edward III. It was renounced by Art. vii of the *Confirmatio Cartarum* (q.v.) of Edward I (1297), but was revived again during the early years of the Hundred Years' War. After a protracted conflict between king and parliament the practice was condemned by statute in 1340, and the prohibition was renewed in 1348, 1362, and 1371.

"Malignants," The, was the name used by the Parliament to describe the king's evil advisers. It occurs frequently in the Grand Remonstrance (q.v.—1640). "All the fault is laid upon ill ministers, who are there called a malignant party" (May). The Commons began by saying that for the previous twelve months they had laboured to reform the evils which afflicted the kingdom, and "do yet find an abounding malignity and opposition in those parties and factions, who have been the cause of those evils." They went on to say that "the root of all this mischief" was "a malignant and pernicious design of subverting the fundamental laws and principles of government, upon which the religion and justice of this kingdom are firmly established." Strafford and Laud were the heads of this "malignant party," who were "the actors and promoters of all our misery." This party the Commons declared to be still in existence, thwarting the work of reformation and sowing discord between king and parliament, and

between parliament and people. The name came to be applied afterwards to all who supported the king against the Parliament. The lord mayor of London, Sir Richard Gurney, says Clarendon, "grew to be reckoned in the first form of the malignants, which was the term they imposed upon all those they meant to render odious to the people."

Malplaquet, The Battle of (September 11, 1709), was fought during the War of the Spanish Succession, between the British and the troops of the Empire, under the Duke of Marlborough and Prince Eugene, and the French, under Marshal Villars. The battle was the most bloody and obstinately contested of the whole war. The French fought with a determination such as they had not shown in the earlier battles, and their desperate resistance made the conflict a slaughter. Twelve thousand of the French were slain, and not fewer than 20,000 of the allies fell. The object of Marlborough and Eugene was gained, however, and the strong town of Mons was forced to surrender.

H. M. A. Parnell, "War of the Spanish Succession," 1905.

Malsnechtan, "King of Moray," was the son of Lulach (q.v.). In 1077 he rebelled against, and was defeated by, Malcolm Canmore. He died in 1085, having obtained a partial independence.

Malta, the largest of the Maltese Islands, is a British possession whose internal affairs are governed by a senate of sixteen and a legislative council of from thirty-two to forty, elected by proportional representation and controlling its ministers, while reserved matters are left to the governor (who is also commander) in council assisted by a nominated council of five officers. Originally Malta was a colony of the Phœnicians. Carthaginians arrived in the sixth century, and the island later surrendered to Rome. On the division of the Empire (395) it was included in the eastern half, against the central authority of which it joined the Arabs in attacking (870). In 1090 suzerainty was transferred to Roger of Sicily and in 1194 to Constance, wife of the Emperor Henry IV. In 1265 Pope Alexander IV conferred it upon Charles of Anjou, and after the "Sicilian Vespers" it lapsed to Peter of Aragon. It was raided by the Turks in 1427. In 1530, however, it was granted by the Emperor Charles V to the Order of the Knights of St. John which had been expelled by the Turks from Rhodes. Soliman II was repulsed in 1565 after the famous siege, and Malta became the centre of piratical raids against the Turks. In 1775 occurred the Rebellion of the Priests against bad government, and in 1790 it was captured by Napoleon, who reorganized the government. Nelson's blockade was helped by internal revolt and the island fell to the British, who restored it in 1802 to the knights, only to receive it again in 1814, the Maltese having vigorously protested against the surrender. Self-government was granted by the British, trial by jury introduced in 1829, and a nominated council granted in 1835. In 1849 eight out of the eighteen composing the council were made elective. Italian refugees and the Crimean War brought prosperity, but from 1858 to 1881 Malta was ruled by a military governor. In 1881 an executive council was appointed. In 1883 the franchise was extended, and in 1887 the "Mizzi" constitution, granted under Strickland, allowed for an elective majority in the legislative council and three elected members in the executive council. In 1909 two of the elected legislative councillors were given seats on the executive, and in 1921 the new constitution of senate, council, and governor was granted.

W. Hardman, "History of Malta, 1798–1815," 1909; W. Porter, "History of the Knights of Malta," 1858; Gov. Strickland, "Remarks and Correspondence on the Constitution of Malta," 1887; H. Seddall, "Malta," 1870; R. N. Bradley, "Malta and the Mediterranean Race," 1912; M. N. Baclou, "Story of Malta," 1893.

[H. R.]

Man, The Isle of, was in early times inhabited by a Celtic population belonging to the Goidelic stock. According to Bæda, it was included in the empire of Edwin of Northumbria. Subsequently it was settled by Norse pirates, and its political institutions have since been mainly of the Norse type, the bulk of the population and the language remaining Celtic. On its conversion to Christianity it became the seat of a bishopric called the Bishopric of Sodor (i.e., the Southern Isles, *Sudreyjar*) and Man, which first depended on Trondhjem, but ultimately on York. In 1266 Alexander III of Scotland acquired the Southern Isles by purchase from Magnus of Norway, and in 1275 finally subdued the Manx men. Shortly afterwards the island came into the hands of the English, and in 1290 was granted by Edward I to John Baliol. In 1307 Piers Gaveston (q.v.) was made lord of the island by Edward II, though he did not retain his territory for long. Man now passed successfully through the hands of the Montacutes, Scropes, and Percys until it was given in 1406 to Sir John Stanley, who became Lord or King of Man; the island remained in the possession of the Stanley family (Earls of Derby) until 1736, when it became the property of the Dukes of Atholl. They sold their sovereign rights, together with the customs revenue, to the Crown in 1765, and their remaining rights and perquisites in 1818. In 1651 Castle Rushen, at Castletown the capital, was bravely defended by Charlotte de la Trémouille, Countess of Derby, against the Parliamentary forces, and was only surrendered at last owing to the treachery of the governor, Christian. The island was given back to the Stanleys at the Restoration. During the eighteenth century it was notorious as the resort of smugglers. The government of the island is independent, and is administered by a lieutenant-governor and the Tynwald, which is

composed of two houses—namely, the Upper House, or Council, consisting of certain officials (usually ten in number), and the House of Keys, which consists of twenty-four of the principal islanders, elected by male and female owners or occupiers of property. There are two deemsters, or judges, who try civil and criminal cases; there are courts of Exchequer and Chancery besides Common Law courts.

A. W. Moore, "History of the Isle of Man," 1900; "The Diocese of Sodor and Man," 1893.

Manchester was a Roman settlement and was in occupation during the Anglo-Saxon period, although little is known of its history. One of Edward the Elder's fortresses was built there in 923. A market and fair were granted to Manchester in 1227, and it was an important seat of the woollen manufacture early in the fourteenth century. In the Civil War of the seventeenth century Manchester declared for the Parliament. It was besieged by the Earl of Derby, September 1642, but was successfully defended by Colonel Rosworm. In the rebellion of 1745 it was occupied for a few days by Prince Charles Edward, and raised a contingent for his service. During the American War the citizens of Manchester (where by this time a cotton manufacture was flourishing) were very hostile to the colonists, and equipped a volunteer regiment to serve against them (1777). During the industrial revolution Manchester was the scene of much unrest and distress. Serious riots against the introduction of machinery took place on October 9, 1779. In March 1817 a meeting of the "Blanketeer" (q.v.) rioters took place, and preparations were made for a march on London. In 1819 (August 16) occurred the so-called "Peterloo" Massacre (q.v.), when a large meeting of reformers was dispersed by the yeomanry. Manchester was made a parliamentary borough by the Reform Bill of 1832, with two members, received three in 1869, six under the acts of 1884–5, and now returns ten under the act of 1918. In 1847 Manchester was made the seat of a bishopric, the collegiate church built in 1421 being constituted the cathedral.

Histories of Manchester by J. Whitaker, 1771, J. Reilly, 1861, E. Baines, 5 vols., 1886–93; J. F. Wood, "Story of Manchester," 1915.

Manchester, Earls of. [Montagu.]

Mandeville, William de (*d.* 1189), Earl of Essex and Aumale, was one of the commanders in Henry II's French wars, and was frequently employed by that king on diplomatic business. On Richard's accession Mandeville was appointed justiciar and regent of the kingdom in the king's absence on the Crusade, conjointly with Hugh de Pudsey, but he held this office only two months, when he suddenly died.

Mangalore, Treaty of (May 11, 1784), was concluded between the British and Tippoo. It was based on a mutual restitution of conquests; Tippoo was recognized sovereign of the Carnatic Balaghaut, which he had conquered from the Nizam. The kingdom of Travancore was declared to be under British protection.

Manitoba. [Canada, Dominion of.]

Manners, Charles, 4th Duke of Rutland (1754–87), was appointed viceroy of Ireland by Pitt in 1784. He found Ireland in a state bordering on open rebellion. His firmness, however, prevented a proposed congress from meeting (1784); and, though unable to carry the commercial treaty by reason of the alterations which it suffered in the English parliament after passing the Irish parliament, he put down the Whiteboy insurrection, and restored internal quiet.

Manners, Henry, 2nd Earl of Rutland (*d.* 1563), was instrumental in procuring the condemnation of Lord Seymour of Sudeley in 1549. In the same year he was employed in the relief of Haddington, besieged by the French; and in 1553 was imprisoned as a supporter of Lady Jane Grey. In 1558 he collected a small fleet for the relief of Calais, but arrived too late to save the town. In 1560 he became lord president of the Council of the North.

Manners, John, Marquis of Granby (1721–70), British general, was the eldest son of John, 3rd Duke of Rutland. In 1759 he went to Germany as second in command to Lord George Sackville. After the battle of Minden, for his conduct in which he was thanked, he was made commander-in-chief, and greatly distinguished himself at Gravenstein and Homburg (1762). He resigned in 1770.

Biography by W. E. Manners, 1899.

Manners, John James Robert, 7th Duke of Rutland (1818–1906), Conservative statesman, was second son of John Henry, 5th duke. In his youth he was an enthusiastic member of the Young England party (q.v.). He entered parliament for Newark in 1841. In Lord Derby's ministry of 1852 he was first commissioner of works, which office he held again in 1858–9 and 1866–8, when he had a seat in the cabinet. From 1874 to 1880, and in 1885–6, he was postmaster-general, and from 1886 to 1892 was chancellor of the duchy of Lancaster. He succeeded to the dukedom in 1888.

C. Whibley, "Lord John Manners and His Friends," 1925.

Manners-Sutton, Charles, 1st Viscount Canterbury (1780–1845), the elder son of Charles Manners-Sutton, Archbishop of Canterbury, was called to the bar, 1806, and first sat in parliament for Scarborough, 1806. In 1817 he succeeded Abbot as Speaker of the House of Commons, which office he held till 1834. The activity of commercial enterprise which followed the re-establishment of peace led to a rush of private business in the House

of Commons, and Manners-Sutton showed great skill in dealing with it. When Earl Grey resigned in 1832 Manners-Sutton assisted Wellington to form his temporary ministry; this was apparently to oblige the king, who rewarded him with the order of the Bath. In 1834, when Melbourne was suddenly dismissed from office, a rumour was started that Manners-Sutton was to be the Tory premier; and in consequence of this, and of his active negotiations in forming the Peel ministry, the Whigs threw him out, and elected Abercromby Speaker in his place. In the same year (1835) he was called to the Upper House.

Manny (or DE MAUNY), SIR WALTER (*d.* 1372), was a native of Hainault, and came over to England in the train of Queen Philippa. He took a very prominent part in the French wars of Edward III's reign. Shortly before his death he founded the Charterhouse in London.

Manor, THE MEDIÆVAL. A manor, in the words of a sixteenth-century manuscript, "is a thinge compounded of demeasnes and services by long continuance. . . . It seemeth that this name mannor began with the Normans, and that it was not heere before thare Arryvall." The term manor does not appear until Domesday, and then it seems to mean a rural estate, sometimes of great extent, sometimes of little more than 100 acres. There are nearly always two elements, a lord and, dependent on him, a group of lesser land-holders and others who have rights in common. We know from the Domesday survey that at the time of the Conquest the village groups of large sections of the old Danelagh consisted of free, economically independent, men. These had perforce to be regarded as manorial groups by the Domesday compilers, whose terminology, though curiously unreal from some points of view, yet seems to be employed with a careful accuracy if Danegeld assessment is to be regarded as the chief end of the survey. During the reign of the Conqueror we may watch these Danelagh manors approximating more closely in character to the manors of Mercia and Wessex, and at the end of the eleventh century, although we cannot say that England was sown from end to end with manors standing edge to edge, the form is so common a feature of rural organization that it must be regarded as the predominant type of agrarian and social relationship. Between the tenth and the fourteenth centuries the lord, the villein, and the small free tenant on the manor play the three landowning parts. It is the manorial organization which binds them together, and the usual mode of rent payment is by labour services. Investigators of the early history of the manor have not yet reached complete agreement as to its origin. The manorial system was found already more than half developed by the Normans. Of its growth before this time we know very little. The village community may have had a continuous history as an organization of servile workers from Romano-Celtic times, its character being only slightly modified by Teutonic custom after the Anglo-Saxon invasion, when a new English owner took the place of the old proprietor of the *villa*. It is more generally believed, however, that the Domesday manor was of comparatively recent growth, the pressure of circumstances forcing the members of what were originally free settlements of English villagers, farming in association, into subjection to a local lord. This view holds that the movement was one from independence to servitude. The process, it is argued, must have been quickened during the period of Danish attacks when every circumstance conspired to reduce the free smallholder to dependence upon the powerful. Danegeld forced him to borrow or to lend his services; the weakness of the government compelled him to seek protection nearer home, and so commendation and seigneurial jurisdiction were developed. At the same time the ecclesiastical landowners were experimenting with a system of lending land for a number of lives. The wars led to the formation of a class of fighters, freed from direct contact with the processes of farming, and these military men became the territorial lords of those who remained at home to till the soil. In the "Rectitudines Singularum Personarum," a document of the end of the tenth century, we see the different social classes with their duties and obligations set out as the compiler of the document conceived them to be. The services of the thegn, the late Anglo-Saxon "manorial lord," are mainly military, but he has other local duties as well. Corresponding to the free tenant of the later manor are the cottar and the gebur. On a much lower level is the humble class of bond slaves, people who served the thegn or his tenants, and whose status was below that of their successors, the tenants in villenage. In addition to these mutually exclusive classes are various orders of workers with special functions, herdsmen, bee-keepers, woodwards, and others, some of whom were clearly slaves, others probably freemen.

After the Conquest a number of changes in the character of the manorial unit are to be observed. We must generalize only with great care, since local conditions varied greatly and there was never a period of rest in manorial development. We notice a greater uniformity with the implantation of continental notions of rural organization by the Norman ruling class. Every manor now has its court and scheme of jurisdiction. The free village disappears in all but remote districts. The freemen of the time of Edward the Confessor are found to be depressed in the scale; some remain free still, though they are bound to render suit and service and to pay a fixed rent in money or labour service [SOCAGE]. The eastern counties are still the area of their thickest survival. Those who have lost their freedom

have become villeins, a numerous class of land-holding servile tenants recruited from above and below. The slave class dissolves and its members become serfs, some, it would seem, rising to be villeins. Others who are called bondars and cottars hold a cottage, a few acres of land, and do manual work for their lord. The villein class was the backbone of the mediæval manor; it was the most numerous; its interests were involved in almost all the functions of the common machinery of the unit. [Villenage.]

Since the manor is not always the same in area as the vill (village or hamlet), and since, even where the two coincide, they are not one and the same thing, it is possible to distinguish some of the purely manorial activities of the lord and the villagers against the background of their daily lives. [Systems of co-operation in the common fields are described in the article on Common Lands.] The lord stood at the head of the community both as landowner and as the holder of a local jurisdictional franchise. As landowner he was tenant of the king or of some intermediate tenant, and he owed service to his lords, just as he expected it from his manorial tenants [Feudalism]. In return for their lands the latter provided him with labour services on his demesne—of a fixed and determined amount in the case of the free tenants—did special boon-work for him in his harvest season, and made a contribution to his stock when they entered on a new tenancy. He had other claims upon his villeins as well. He would, for example, exact a special payment when the daughter of an unfree tenant was married. As head of the manorial jurisdiction he held courts for both criminal and administrative purposes. We cannot be certain, in most cases, how these judicial powers came into his possession. They may have been granted by higher authority as a local franchise; they may have been an assumption by him of the authority of the original court of the old free village. We may be able to trace it back to an old looser sac and soc (q.v.) jurisdiction in the lands of his Anglo-Saxon predecessor. The Norman manorial lord's jurisdiction was at all events established on a strong footing. The Court Baron (*baron* = freeman) dealt with the free tenants; a corresponding customary court dealt with the villein tenants; a Court Leet had jurisdiction in small criminal cases. The distinction between these was not yet clearly drawn, but it was afterwards to become so. If the Court Baron was legally the most important of these (the essence of a manor is said to be the existence of this court), yet from every local point of view the Customary Court was the central feature of manorial life. It dealt with the domestic and financial affairs of the community, confirmed permission given for absence, apprenticeship, and marriage, and imposed the customary fines. It was the place of decision for some of the arrangements in the co-operative working of the village farm. It dealt with the transference of land, sales from an old tenant to a new one, and it arranged leases. View of frankpledge (q.v.) was also undertaken by the lord's representative in the manorial court, where it was part of the former's franchise. Civil proceedings between the lord and his free tenant were taken in the common-law courts when these became organized under Angevin rule. The villein on the other hand could only seek redress against his lord in the manorial court, and this formed one of the great distinctions between the free and unfree forms of tenure. It was only to be expected that, as national jurisdiction went on its way picking out for itself the powers of the local courts, the manorial lord should lose many of the civil and criminal privileges of his courts. In some cases there were few powers to lose, in others a criminal jurisdiction existed which in the early twelfth century fell short only of the powers of life and death. We should notice these differences and remember that the manor was a complex structure built up around two elements, (1) the political, and (2) the economic predominance of the local magnate. In each case local history determined whether one aspect or the other or both should be fundamental in the growth of that manor. This dubiety only serves to emphasize the warning against the hasty formation of too general conclusions upon the character of the manorial unit throughout England.

The next survey on a big scale after Domesday that the historian obtains of the manorial organization is furnished by the Hundred Rolls (q.v.), compiled early in the reign of Edward I. "In the thirteenth century the system may be said to have been at its zenith." This may be another way of saying that this is the period of the manor of which we know most, and that the variations from our standard which are indicated in earlier and later centuries spoil the completeness of the traditional picture. At all events, these were years of comparative agricultural prosperity. The villein tenant, whose condition had been depressed after the Conquest, had now consolidated his position, which was so strongly supported by a network of custom that, although in legal theory he still held land at the will of his lord, it was extremely difficult for the manorial officials to interfere with his normal habits of life or with his privileges. Improvement in the methods of husbandry had bettered the position of all the members of the village community, and especially of the free tenants, whose numbers had grown, on some manors with the leasing of part of the lord's "inland" or demesne, and on others with the extension of the boundaries of the common, cultivated farm outwards, as the reclamation of the surrounding waste proceeded. Manorial accounts had been worked up into an efficient and complex system, every minute detail of the works and obligations of the tenants being scrupulously recorded from year to year. The great monastic houses, which depended on

the work of a large number of manors, developed a system of visiting officials to check and co-ordinate returns. A seneschal, or steward, was given the task of general supervision, where a group of manors was involved. The bailiff on each estate would be responsible for the closer management of the farm, protecting the lord's property from damage, seeing that the customary services of the tenants were performed, superintending harvesting and thrashing, and marketing the unused produce. On the large manor the work of management was divided between the bailiff and his subordinate, the reeve (q.v.), a kind of foreman of the working villagers, elected by them and being responsible, to some extent at least, for their shortcomings.

One of the most important sources for manorial history is the *Minister's Account*, which presents us with the actual book-keeping of the manor year by year. It is by patient work on this type of record that most of our accurate knowledge of the economic life of the manor has been obtained. The *Court Rolls* have been less carefully explored. They enable us to approach the daily life of the villager from the legal side. *Surveys* give us a wider view. Beginning with Domesday Book, this succession of mediæval documents, in which the "Hundred Rolls" of Edward the First's Quo Warranto inquiry stand out as the most valuable, throw light on the development and decay of manorial customs and institutions. Among these may be mentioned the "Boldon Book" (for the See of Durham) and the "Domesday of St. Paul's." Finally there are the *technical treatises* on husbandry and estate management. These, too, are of value particularly for the thirteenth century, since the best of them all, by a writer of extraordinary competence, Walter of Henley, described methods and conditions in the middle of it, and was drawn upon by the anonymous author of 'Fleta" (q.v.), which was compiled between 1290 and 1293, perhaps in the Fleet prison.

It is commonly said that the manor, having passed through its period of highest achievement as a social institution in the twelfth and thirteenth centuries, went into decline in the fourteenth century, while the first half of the fifteenth saw its final decay. This is a correct view if it is regarded as a coherent economic unit, the essence of which was the cultivation of the lord's demesne by bondmen. But if it is viewed simply as the organized village farm from a special angle, it is more correct to hold that it underwent transformation rather than decay in the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries. Mediæval systems of co-aration and co-tenancy of the meadows and waste were hardly less important than the relations of lord and villein in determining manorial structure. These prevailed longer in that large area of England in which the fourteenth-century manor was still true to type, and the agrarian history of later years is largely concerned with the further break-up of "manorial" methods of husbandry. [Common Lands.] What the end of the Middle Ages saw was the disappearance of the bondman and, with him, the decline of demesne farming by the lord. The process was one of steady transformation lasting over a period of quite two hundred years. In fact, three processes were manifesting themselves side by side. (1) The growth of commutation, by the use of which the villein tenant holding his land by labour service exchanged his liabilities for a money rent, is discussed elsewhere. [Villenage; Commutation.] (2) Where the lord decided to retain his demesne in spite of the changes in his relations with his tenants, he could employ his new income from money rents in living wage labour, and cultivate his strips as before. (3) Frequently he would prefer to entrust the employment of the demesne lands to a "farmer," who would often take over the stock as well as the land and buildings and hold them for a term of years, either for a rent in kind (in which case the conservative instincts of the lord could still persuade him that no more than a temporary alienation of control had been effected), or for a money rent. The manor still had its lord, and still retained some part of the old official organization with its stewards and bailiffs; it still had its tenants, holding at the will of the landlord, according to local custom. But the classes of tenants were no longer the same. The free tenant was free-er than before; the tenant in villenage was now a copyholder; the cottagers and lesser folk of the village were supplemented by hired labourers from the outside world, who had settled on the manor, and whose relations with their master were fundamentally those of employee to employer, and no longer those of bondservant to manorial lord. [Domesday; Common Lands; Black Death; Commutation; Villenage; Copyhold.]

Pollock and Maitland, "History of English Law"; Maitland, "Domesday Book and Beyond," "Select Pleas in Manorial Courts" (Selden Society), "History of a Cambridgeshire Manor"; Hone, "The Manor and Manorial Records," "A Mannor and Court Baron"; Vinogradoff, "Growth of the Manor," "Villeinage in England"; Seebohm, "The English Village Community"; Coulton, "The Mediæval Village"; Davenport, "The Economic Development of a Norfolk Manor"; Tawney, "The Agrarian Problem in the Sixteenth Century"; Cunningham, "Growth of English Industry and Commerce," pt. i.; Walter of Henley's "Husbandry" (ed. Lamond); Williams's "Law of Real Property," 1926 (for recent legislation).

[A. V. J.]

Mansfield, William Murray, 1st Earl of (1705–93). [Murray.]

Maori Wars. After the transfer of the sovereignty of New Zealand to the Crown by the Treaty of Waitangi, 1840, the settlers were engaged in constant disputes with the natives respecting land. The first Maori War took place 1843–7, and resulted in the definition of boundaries. In 1863, in consequence of the encroachments of the whites, war broke out

again, and was ended by the submission of the natives, August 1864. In 1868 there were renewed disturbances, and a massacre of the settlers at Poverty Bay and Mohaka. The third war broke out in consequence in July 1869, and lasted till January 1870, when the natives submitted. [New Zealand, Dominion of.]

A. J. Harrop, "New Zealand from Tasman to the Taranaki War," 1926.

Mar, Donald, 12th Earl of, was the son of Christian, sister of Robert Bruce. He spent most of his youth in captivity at the English court, only returning to Scotland in 1327. In 1332 he was chosen regent on the death of Randolph; but ten days later he was routed and slain at Dupplin (q.v.) by Edward Baliol.

Mar, Earls of. [Erskine; Stewart.]

March, Agnes, Countess of, was a daughter of Randolph, Earl of Moray, and from her dark complexion was known as "Black Agnes of Dunbar." In 1337–8, in the absence of her husband, Patrick, Earl of March, she gallantly and successfully defended the castle of Dunbar against an English force under the Earl of Salisbury.

March, The Peerage of. (1) English: [Mortimer; York]. (2) Scottish: In 1619 James I created Esmé Stuart, afterwards Duke of Lennox, Earl of March; but this creation became extinct at the death of his grandson Charles, 3rd Duke of Richmond, in 1672. Three years afterwards the Lennox titles were granted to Charles Lennox, natural son of Charles II, by whose descendants they have been since held.

Marches, The. [Borders; Wales.]

Margaret, Queen (*b.* 1282?–1318), second wife of Edward I, was the daughter of Philip III of France, and was married to Edward I in 1298. Her character is highly praised by contemporary writers: "she was good withouten lack," says Peter Langtoft; and she seems to have been a worthy successor to Eleanor of Castile. After her husband's death she lived in retirement, and devoted her time and her wealth to acts of charity.

Margaret of Anjou, Queen (*b.* March 23, 1430, *d.* August 25, 1482), wife of Henry VI, was the daughter of René, Count of Guise, afterwards Duke of Lorraine and Anjou, and titular King of Naples, Sicily, and Jerusalem. It was her relationship to the French king whom her father's sister, Mary of Anjou, had married, that caused her to be selected by Suffolk and Beaufort as the wife of Henry VI. Her marriage, which took place on April 22, 1445, was to be accompanied by the cession of Anjou and Maine to King René, and it was hoped to found on it a permanent peace. The queen became a violent political partisan, a strong supporter of Suffolk and Somerset, and a bitter enemy to Gloucester (whose death has been with very little evidence attributed to her) and to the Duke of York. Margaret's first child, Edward, was born on October 13, 1453, during the king's insanity, and this event placed her in immediate competition with the Duke of York for the regency. The death of the Duke of Somerset, at the first battle of St. Albans, deprived her of her most trusted counsellor, and forced her still more into the foreground. Her preponderance helped to ruin the cause of her son and her husband. From the beginning she represented an unpopular policy, and her strong partisanship in domestic affairs and her foreign connexion increased that unpopularity. She had no scruples about intriguing with the native Irish, the Scots, or the French to damage the Duke of York, nor did she shrink from making Calais the price of French aid. When the three earls landed in Kent in 1460 she was in the north of England, and their victory at Northampton (June 1460) obliged her to take refuge in Scotland. She raised in the north a new army, defeated and slew the Duke of York at Wakefield (December 1460), and marched south to beat Warwick at St. Albans. But the battle of Towton (March 1461) forced her to fly again to Scotland. She contrived by French and Scottish help to maintain war on the Border until in 1464 the battles of Hedgeley and Hexham put an end to the struggle. For the next six years she lived in exile, mainly at Bar, in Lorraine. In 1470 Warwick was forced to fly from England, and Louis XI brought about a reconciliation between the earl and Margaret, and an interview took place at Angers, in which it was agreed that Prince Edward should be restored by Warwick's arms and marry his daughter Anne. But the queen and the prince did not land at Weymouth till the day on which the battle of Barnet had destroyed all hopes of their restoration (April 14, 1471). The prince was taken and killed at the battle of Tewkesbury (May 4, 1471), and the queen herself remained in prison till 1476. Louis XI ransomed her by the payment of 50,000 crowns of gold, but she was obliged to renounce in favour of Edward IV all her claims to the English throne, and to cede to Louis her rights in the inheritance of her father and mother (Bar, Lorraine, Anjou, and Provence). She was handed over to the officers of Louis on January 29, 1476, and spent the remainder of her life in poverty and retirement.

M. A. Hookham, "Margaret of Anjou," 2 vols., 1872. [C. H. F.]

Marlborough, The Statute of (1267), re-enacted in more formal fashion the Provisions of Westminster (q.v.) of 1259. Very few alterations were made, the most important being that the appointment of the royal ministers, and the sheriffs was now left in the hands of the king.

Marlborough, Duke of (1650–1722) [Churchill, John]; Duchess of (1660–1744) [Jennings, Sarah.]

Marne, Battles of the, were fought on the western front during the Great War of 1914–18.

The first battle (September 1914) marked the first successful resistance by the allies against the German advance, and resulted in the German armies being driven back to the Aisne. The allied plan was to attack northwards from Meaux towards Château-Thierry and from Nancy towards Metz, and endeavour to envelop the Germans. The battle opened on September 5, and soon involved the loss of Maubeuge for the allies, and for the Germans a Franco-British wedge between the Ist and IInd Armies. On September 9 the British crossed the Marne and the French VIth Army (left wing) occupied Château-Thierry, while slight confusion in the German plans increased the isolation of the Ist and IInd German armies from the main body and their separation from each other. Von Bülow therefore caused the German IInd and IIIrd Armies to retreat (September 9), and the Crown Prince on the right followed suit when his attack on the Verdun area failed (September 11). The Germans have dubbed the first battle of the Marne the turning-point of the war.

The second battle (July–August 1918) opened the allied offensive which finally closed the war on November 11. It was known to Marshal Foch that the German command had planned an offensive in Champagne to open about July 10 and be followed by an offensive in Flanders. He resolved to reply by means of a defensive movement in Champagne and a simultaneous counter-offensive in the region of Soissons, utilizing 112 divisions comprising British, French, and American troops. The German attack opened about 5 a.m. on July 15, from Château-Thierry to Massiges, but degenerated next day into a series of separate actions, though it contrived to cross the Marne at Dormans. Foch pushed on his preparations, and on July 18 launched his counter-offensive. The allied reserves broke the German position on July 18–19; the centre recaptured Château-Thierry by the 21st; an advance was made along the River Ourcq on July 23–4; and after a lull during the last two days of July the French armies entered Soissons on August 2, and the Germans fell back to the Vesle. The battle secured for the allies 30,000 prisoners, 3,700 guns, a front shortened by over 40 miles, and the safety of Paris. It turned the tide of the final German offensive and ushered in the closing stages of the war.

A. Corbett-Smith, "The Marne and After," 1917; Sir F. Maurice, "The Last Four Months," 1919.

[A. C. F. B.]

Marprelate Tracts, The, were a series of printed pamphlets, issued in 1588 and 1589, containing scurrilous attacks against Archbishop Whitgift and the bishops. The first tract was issued from Waldegrave's secret press at Kingston in October 1588, and subsequent issues were produced at Fawsley (Northants), Coventry, Wolston, and Warrington. When the press was seized at Warrington (in August 1589) Knightley, Hales, and Wigston were put on trial for issuing the tracts from their houses (February 1590). But although it is known that John Perry and Job Throckmorton were probably the persons most responsible, the authorship of the tracts was never discovered. At the time John Udall and John Field were suspected. The purpose of the tracts, however, was very largely thwarted by their revolting scurrility.

Marprelate Tracts, ed. W. Pierce, 1911; J. Dover Wilson, "The Marprelate Controversy," 1909, and "Martin Marprelate and Shakespeare's Fluellen," 1912.

Marquis [Marquess] was in early times used to denote the Marchers or lords of the borders. It was first used in its later sense as a title of nobility in England by Richard II, who created his favourite, Robert de Vere, Marquis of Dublin (1385). The etymology of the word was entirely forgotten, and it was simply used as a title of honour, superior to that of earl, and inferior to that of duke. It has always been sparingly given in England.

Marriage, The Right of, is usually bracketed with that of wardship as one of the incidents of tenure by knight service and by sergeanty. In the case of an infant heir the lord had not merely the custody of his lands and person during his nonage, but also the right to dispose of him in marriage. This right extended in England, somewhat illogically, to male as well as to female tenants; and was regarded as a source of considerable profit to the lord, who, subject to the proviso that he should not "disparage" his ward, was free to dispose of his hand to the highest bidder. If the heir were a tenant-in-chief his marriage belonged to the king in virtue of his prerogative; if he were a sub-tenant it was awarded, with the custody of his person, to the lord of whom he held by the oldest feoffment. The right, which was liable to grave abuse, was eventually abolished by 12 Car. II, c. 24. [Wardship.]

Marriage Laws. In the Middle Ages the marriage fines exacted by the king and other lords from wards, and widows of their tenants, formed one of the most oppressive of feudal incidents. This is shown by the fact that though a lord could bestow his female —and, by the time of Henry III, his male— ward in marriage, yet the king's licence was necessary; and that the abuse of giving widows in marriage against their will had to be guarded against in Henry I's Charter of Liberties (clause 3) and in Magna Carta (clause 6). The civil disabilities of marriage were for the most part incorporated into the common law from the canonical law, the prohibited degrees

being regulated by 32 Hen. VIII, c. 38; and 2 & 3 Ed. VI, c. 23. Gradually the law drifted into an uncertain state. The number of forms which constituted a pre-contract multiplied, so that subsequent marriages were liable to be suddenly dissolved; and the consent of parents and guardians was evaded by the aid of Fleet parsons. The act 26 Geo. II, c. 33, commonly called Lord Hardwicke's Act (1753), provided therefore that marriages must be performed in the parish church (those of Jews and Quakers alone being excepted) after the publication of banns, or by special licence granted by the archbishop. Any clergyman breaking these restrictions was liable to transportation for seven years. Further regulations for marriages within the Church of England were provided by the act of 4 Geo. IV, c. 76. The hardships inflicted upon Dissenters under these acts occupied for some time the attention both of Lord John Russell and of Sir Robert Peel. In 1836 the latter carried the Dissenters' Marriage Act, by which marriage by notice to the registrar of a district was legalized, as well as the publication of banns or licence, and marriages of Dissenters might be solemnized in their own chapels; or, if they preferred it, they might enter into a civil contract before the superintendent-registrar. In the previous year all marriages thereafter celebrated between persons within the prohibited degrees were made absolutely void instead of being valid until annulled by sentence of the ecclesiastical court. The marriages of members of the royal family were regulated by 12 Geo. III, c. 11, the Royal Marriage Act of 1772 (amended by the act 3 & 4 Vict. c. 2), by which the consent of the sovereign was required for the marriage of the heir to the throne. In Scotland the law is considerably more lax with regard to the recognition of irregular marriages, and in other respects remains in the state in which it was in England before Lord Hardwicke's act. In Ireland cruel and unnecessary restrictions were imposed under the penal laws on the marriages between Protestants and Catholics. These, however, have since been repealed, and in 1844 the law relating to marriages in Ireland was practically assimilated to that existing in England and Wales. [Marriages are now regulated wholly by statute; in particular, by the acts of 1823, 1836, 1886, 1898, 1915, 1921. The British divorce law was modified by the Matrimonial Causes Act of 1923.]

Phillimore, "Ecclesiastical Law," vol. i, 2nd. edn. 1895; Statutes 4 Geo. IV, c. 76; 5 & 6 Will. IV, c. 54; 6 & 7 Will. IV, c. 85; 7 & 8 Vict. c. 81; W. P. Eversley and W. F. Craies, "The Marriage Laws of the British Empire," 1910. [L. C. S.]

Marshal, The, was one of the great officers of the household of the Norman and Plantagenet kings, and appears to have ranked next in dignity to the constable, with whom he was intimately associated. His original function was that of master of the horse; but the importance of cavalry in mediæval warfare led to the association of his office with military command, and he came to share with the constable the leadership of the feudal host. From this again arose his judicial and executive functions. He was responsible for the maintenance of order in court and camp, and for the decision of questions relating to the practice of chivalry. With the constable he acted as a judge of the court of arms and honour. The office of Chief Marshal, which emerges in the reign of Henry I, became hereditary in the family of John FitzGilbert. His most famous descendant was William Marshal (q.v.), who became, in right of his wife, Earl of Pembroke. From him the marshalship passed by female descent to the Bigods, Earls of Norfolk, and was later held by the Mowbrays, the Howards, and the Arundels. The term "Earl Marshal" first began to be loosely used in the early fourteenth century, but the first formal grant of the *style* of Earl Marshal in addition to the *office* of Marshal of England was made in 1386 in favour of Thomas Mowbray, Earl of Nottingham. The Earl Marshal is still head of the Heralds' College and appoints officers of arms. In Scotland the office of Great Marischal early became hereditary in the family of Keith, for whom the dignity of Earl Marshal was created in or about 1485.

The office of Marshal of Ireland was created in 1207 for John Marshal, nephew of the great Earl of Pembroke; and passed in 1317 by female descent to the house of Morley.

"Complete English Peerage," ii, App. D; J. H. Round, "The King's Serjeants and their Coronation Services," 1911, and "The Commune of London."

Marshal, Richard (*d.* 1234), was the second son of the great William Marshal, Earl of Pembroke and Striguil. He succeeded to the earldom on his brother's death in 1231, and soon came forward as the champion of the English against Peter des Roches and the foreign courtiers. He was declared a traitor, and the king marched against him (1233). The earl allied himself with the Welsh, and defeated the royal troops (1234). Des Roches now had recourse to treachery. He stirred up Pembroke's rivals to attack his Irish estates; and, having thus induced him to go over to Ireland to defend his possessions, took care that he should be betrayed. He fell mortally wounded at Kildare, having been drawn into a battle against overwhelming odds by the agents of des Roches.

Marshal, or Mareschal, William, Earl of Pembroke and Striguil (*d.* 1219), was trained to arms in the French wars of Henry II. In 1170 he was placed by the king in charge of his eldest son Henry, whose loyal friend and supporter he remained until his death in 1182. After serving with great distinction in Syria from 1183 to 1187, he was taken into high favour by Henry II, whom he served faithfully for the rest of his reign. On

the accession of Richard I, Marshal offered the same unswerving loyalty to the new king, who rewarded him with the hand of the heiress of Strongbow, Earl of Pembroke, and appointed him one of the subordinate justiciars on his departure for Palestine. In 1199 Pembroke upheld the claim of John to the throne, and during the conflict with the baronage he was foremost among the king's advisers and supporters. On John's death he was at once appointed regent for the young Henry III, whom his wisdom and ability securely established on the throne. He defeated Louis of France and compelled him to quit England in 1217; confirmed the Great Charter; and restored the unruly baronage to order. His chief characteristic was an uncompromising fidelity, and he has been called, not unjustly, "one of the noblest of mediæval soldier-statesmen."

Marston Moor, The Battle of (July 2, 1644), was fought during the Civil War. York was besieged on May 20, 1644, by the Scottish army under the Earl of Leven, and the Yorkshire army under the command of the Fairfaxes. They were joined on June 3 by the army of the Eastern Association under the Earl of Manchester. On July 1 the combined armies raised the siege at the news of the approach of Prince Rupert, who by skilful manœuvring contrived to enter the city without a battle. Against the advice of the Marquis of Newcastle he determined to offer battle, and pursued the Parliamentary army for that purpose. The allied army, numbering in all about 15,000 foot and 9,000 horse, was posted between the villages of Long Marston and Tockwith. The Royalists, about 22,000 strong, were ranged on Marston Moor itself. The battle began about seven in the evening with a general attack on the part of the allies. On the left Cromwell and David Leslie routed Prince Rupert's horse, and, aided by the Earl of Manchester's foot, put to flight a portion of the Royalist infantry. Meanwhile the whole right wing was utterly defeated, with the exception of Fairfax's own regiment, which succeeded in joining Manchester's horse on the left. A desperate struggle now took place in the centre. The Scottish infantry were attacked in front by Newcastle's foot, on the flank by Goring's victorious cavalry, and at the third charge the regiments of the reserve broke and fled. But the greater part maintained their ground, and their resistance gave time for Manchester's foot, and the cavalry of the left wing under Cromwell and David Leslie, to come to their help. This decided the day. Goring's horse were driven from the field, the Royalist foot scattered, and Newcastle's own regiment of white-coats, which made the most desperate resistance, cut to pieces. The pursuit was continued by moonlight to within three miles of York. The losses on both sides were heavy. The killed alone numbered 4,150, of whom 3,000 were Royalists. The whole of the artillery and baggage of the conquered army was captured, with 100 colours and 10,000 arms.

[C. H. F.]

Mary I, Queen (*b.* February 18, 1516; *s.* July 19, 1553; *d.* November 17, 1558), was the daughter of Henry VIII and Katharine of Aragon. Several marriage alliances were arranged for her in childhood. In 1518 a treaty was concluded for her marriage with the Dauphin Francis, and when this was broken off it was arranged that she should marry Charles V (1522), and the project of marrying her to Francis I of France was also discussed (1527). She was carefully educated, and was an accomplished and precocious child. On the rise of Anne Boleyn the young princess was treated with great harshness. By an act of 1534 she was declared illegitimate, and she was refused permission to see her mother. She was compelled to subscribe a document in which she declared her own illegitimacy and the invalidity of her mother's marriage. She was again declared illegitimate in 1536, but by an act of 1544 the succession was settled on her after Edward VI. In the reign of Edward VI she refused to obey the Act of Uniformity; but the council, though they threatened her, were afraid to proceed to violent measures with her because of her popularity with the people; and though she felt in such danger that she attempted to escape to the continent, she was nevertheless able to resist all the attempts of the council to compel her to accept the New Service Book (1551). On the death of Edward she laid claim to the crown (July 9, 1553). Lady Jane Grey was proclaimed queen in London on the following day. But she was absolutely destitute of support; and Mary, advancing from the eastern counties, was joined by considerable numbers of the gentry and nobles, and found herself at the head of a large body of followers. The Duke of Northumberland's forces melted away, and Mary was proclaimed in London (July 19). On August 3 she entered London, and her reign began. She was a firm and sincere Roman Catholic, and to her cousin, Charles V, she looked for assistance and support. Her first act was to liberate the Catholic bishops imprisoned during her brother's reign, and to prohibit preaching without a licence; while some of the prominent reformers, Hooper, Cranmer, and Latimer, were imprisoned. She was declared legitimate by act of parliament, and crowned by Gardiner, Bishop of Winchester (October 1553). In January 1554, much to the disappointment of her subjects, she concluded a marriage treaty with Philip of Spain, son of Charles V. Henceforward her reign, which had opened well, was unhappy and disastrous. The insurrection of Wyatt in Kent followed, and though this was put down without much difficulty, it led to the execution of Lady Jane Grey (February 12, 1554), who had been tried and found guilty in the previous November,

together with her husband and father. In July the Spanish marriage took place. Cardinal Pole came to England, and the Catholic reaction advanced. All statutes passed against the pope since the twentieth year of Henry VIII were repealed, though the monastic lands were not resumed. The following year the persecuting statutes of Henry IV and Henry V were revived, and under them Hooper and many other eminent reformers were burnt. Under the investigation of Pole and the Spanish court the persecution continued during 1556, and Cranmer, with Latimer, Ridley, and a large number of clergymen and others, were put to death as heretics. In the midst of the gloom and distress caused by this persecution Philip persuaded Mary to declare war against the French. The Spaniards and English won a brilliant victory at St. Quentin (1557); but the campaign was disastrous to England, since it resulted in the capture of Calais by the Duke of Guise (January 1558). The queen, who had long been sinking under the perplexity and strain of public affairs, and the failure of her measures, never recovered from this last blow. She died a few months after it (November 17). Mary's character has been indelibly stained in popular opinion by the sanguinary persecution of her reign. Yet it is probable that the full extent of the martyrdom was hardly known to her, for during a great part of the time she was in a state of depression and inaction owing to mental and bodily ill-health. She seems to have been by no means harsh or cruel in her disposition, and conscientiously anxious for the welfare of her country, as well as for the good of the Church to which she was devotedly attached. The unfortunate Spanish marriage was responsible for the worst evils of her reign.

Tytler, "Edward VI and Mary"; "Chronicle of Queen Jane and Queen Mary" (Camden Society); R. P. B. Davey, "Mary Tudor," 1897; J. M. Stone, "History of Mary I," 1901. [S. L.]

Mary II, Queen (*b.* 1662, *s.* 1688, *d.* 1694), wife of William III, was the daughter of the Duke of York, afterwards James II, and Anne Hyde. By the command of Charles II she was educated in the Protestant religion. At the age of fifteen she was betrothed to William of Orange, and married to him in 1677. In 1687 they sent a joint expression of their opinion to James, condemnatory of the Declaration of Indulgence. Mary approved of William's expedition to England. She probably never cared for her father, who had established a system of espionage at The Hague, and had refused her pecuniary assistance. In company with the rest of the world, she believed the Prince of Wales to be supposititious. A large section of English statesmen determined, on the flight of James II, to proclaim her as queen. She might, they thought, make her husband prime minister, or even give him the title of king. The leader of the party was Danby, while Halifax was the chief supporter of William's interests. At length, in February 1689, Burnet thought it right to declare her determination to surrender her power, with the consent of parliament, into the hands of her husband. At the same time she wrote an earnest letter to the same effect to Danby. She arrived that month in London. Before her arrival the dispute had been settled. The crown was tendered to William and Mary jointly, and accepted by them. They were proclaimed in London on February 13, 1689. Mary immediately, from her amiable qualities, gained deserved popularity. The court, owing to William's infirmities, was removed from Whitehall to Hampton Court, and thence to Holland House, Kensington. On April 11, 1689, Mary was crowned with her husband. In the same month they received the crown of Scotland. During William's campaign in Ireland, Mary, aided by the steady friendship of Burnet, acted with admirable decision. Clarendon, her uncle, and several other suspected Jacobites, were lodged in the Tower. On receiving the news of the battle of the Boyne, she wrote to William, imploring that no harm should happen to her father. In 1692 the treachery of Marlborough was discovered, and he was dismissed from his employments, much to the anger of Princess Anne. The quarrel between the two sisters was final. The guard of honour previously allotted to the princess was taken away; the king and queen went to unjustifiable lengths in their resentment. But Mary soon regained her lost popularity. Once more William left England, and the French fleet was known to be about to escort a French invading army across the Channel. The English navy was understood to be disaffected. The queen sent a dispatch, written by Nottingham, in which she refused to believe the reports in circulation, and placed her entire confidence in her naval officers. All disaffection was checked at once, and the battle of La Hogue (1692) resulted in a glorious victory over the enemy. By the queen's order, those wounded in the engagement were relieved at public charge. In 1694 she sickened of the smallpox, and it was evident that her end was near. William remained day and night at her bedside. Before she died she received a letter of reconciliation from the Princess Anne. Her death took place on December 28.

Burnet, "History of His Own Time," ed. O. Airy, 1897–1900; M. F. Sandars, "Princess and Queen of England," 1913; Queen Mary's "Memoirs," ed. R. Doebner, 1886.

Mary, Queen of Scots (*b.* December 7, 1542; *s.* December 14, 1542; *d.* February 8, 1587), was the daughter of James V and Mary of Guise, and was born at Linlithgow, a week only before her father's death. In 1543 a treaty with England arranged for a marriage between the young princess and Prince Edward of England. In August 1548 Mary was taken to France for greater security, a marriage being arranged between her and the dauphin. This marriage took place on April 24, 1558, the

dauphin receiving the title of King of Scots from the Scottish Commissioners. The following year, on the death of Henry II of France. Mary became Queen of France and was also declared Queen of England by the French and Spanish courts (being the granddaughter of Margaret, daughter of Henry VII). In December 1560 her husband, Francis II, died, an event which seems to have caused the young queen deep grief, and the following year (August 1561) she returned to Scotland. Here her devotion to the Romish Church at once brought her into collision with Knox and the reformers. But the lavish splendour of Mary's court, her beauty, and her accomplished wit, soon rendered her exceedingly popular amongst her people. The first years of her rule in Scotland were taken up with overcoming the disaffection of the Catholic lords of the north, finding a *modus vivendi* with the reformers, and discussing various projects for her marriage; in all which transactions Mary's adroitness and courage were conspicuous. In 1563 a marriage with Don Carlos, son of Philip II, was proposed by the Guises, and in 1564 fruitless negotiations took place for her marriage with Elizabeth's favourite, Robert Dudley. In July 1565, however, she married Henry Darnley, to the great disgust of most of her friends. A force quickly collected by the discontented lords was scattered at the approach of Mary and her husband at the head of the loyal army, the confederates taking refuge at the court of Elizabeth, who, in consideration of their efforts to restore Protestantism in Scotland, aided them with money. Meanwhile the vice and folly of her husband rendered it impossible for Mary's domestic life to be a happy one. The murder of her favourite, Rizzio (March 9, 1566), in her presence at Darnley's instigation, is only one of the many insults she endured at his hands. This murder was, however, followed by a feigned reconciliation, the queen escaping from the Confederate Lords in her husband's company to Dunbar Castle. Here a force raised for her protection by Bothwell caused her enemies to fall back. After the birth of her son (afterwards James VI) on July 19, 1566, Mary became reconciled to many of the rebellious lords, reserving all her resentment for her husband, to whose murder at Kirk o' Field she was almost certainly privy. After the acquittal of Bothwell for the murder, Mary was carried off by him to Dunbar Castle, and on his obtaining a divorce from his wife, Catherine Gordon, married him (May 15, 1567). She was not, however, destined to remain undisturbed for long. A month later a combination of discontented lords against Bothwell and the queen led to his flight and to her surrender to Kirkcaldy of Grange at Carberry Hill (June 1567). Insulted at Edinburgh by the people, she was removed to Lochleven Castle, where, on July 23, 1567, she was forced to sign a deed of abdication and to appoint Moray regent of the kingdom during the minority of her son. Queen Elizabeth's interference on her behalf was of no avail, but by degrees the remnants of her party collected, and on her escape in May 1568 she found herself under the protection of the Hamiltons and other nobles, and at the head of 6,000 men. Her abdication was at once revoked, and aid sought from England and France; but on the defeat of her army at Langside (May 13, 1568), she was compelled to take refuge in England. Having landed at Workington, in Cumberland, she was escorted to Carlisle, and thence to Bolton Castle. Elizabeth, however, refused to grant her a personal interview, and also refused to allow her to return to Scotland, alleging the danger to which she would be exposed as the excuse for detaining her. On October 4, 1568, a commission sat at York to settle the differences between Mary and her subjects; to consider the charges brought against her; to pronounce on the authenticity of the Casket Letters (q.v.), and to provide for the abandonment on the part of the Scottish queen of all claim to the English crown "during the life of Queen Elizabeth or her descendants." This commission was afterwards removed to London, where, on November 26, the charge of murder was sprung upon the Queen of Scots. Thereupon her commissioners, acting under Mary's instructions, demanded instant admittance to Elizabeth's presence, and on this being refused, withdrew from the proceedings. On January 10, 1569, judgment was given to the effect that Moray had not been proved guilty of disloyalty, and that there had been nothing produced or shown against Mary "whereby the Queen of England should conceive or take any evil opinion of the queen, her good sister, for anything yet seen." Elizabeth, however, still kept possession of her rival. Plots against the English queen, proposed rebellions, and the papal bull which excommunicated Elizabeth followed, and it is certain that England was in considerable danger from France, Spain, and Rome. In 1570 Mary, having been removed to Tutbury and Chatsworth, was imprisoned in Sheffield Castle till 1585, when she was taken back to Tutbury, and thence to Chartley. For participation in Babington's conspiracy (q.v.) against the queen's life (September 1566) she was tried and sentenced to death (October 1586), and beheaded at Fotheringay (February 8, 1587).

Works on Mary, Queen of Scots, are legion. The most recent are the biographies by Andrew Lang, 1901; S. Cowan, 1901; T. F. Henderson, 1905; Martin Hume, 1903; R. H. Mahon, 1924; A. H. Millar, 1927; see also F. A. Mumby, "Fall of Mary Stuart," 1921; the older works of Hosack, Labanoff, Miquet, and Gauthier; Buchanan's "Indictment of Mary, Queen of Scots," 1923 edn.

Mary, Queen of England (*b.* May 26, 1867), daughter of the Duke and Duchess of Teck, great-granddaughter of George III, married George Frederick Ernest Albert, Duke of York, afterwards George V, on July 6, 1893; became Princess of Wales 1902, and Queen Consort 1910.

Mary of Modena, Queen (1658–1718), wife of James II, was the daughter of Alfonso, Duke of Modena, and was married to James in 1673. She was unpopular in England owing to her religion. By James she had six sons, of whom James Edward, the "Old Pretender," was one. After her husband's death she lived in retirement at St. Germains or at the nunnery of Chaillot.

Biography by M. Haile, 1905.

Maryland. [American Colonies.]

Maserfield, The Battle of (642), was fought between Oswald of Northumbria and Penda of Mercia, and resulted in the defeat and death of the former and the temporary disruption of Northumbria. Its site was almost certainly Oswestry, a town which takes its name from Oswald, of whose death many miraculous stories survive in local tradition.

Masham, Abigail (*d.* 1734), Lady Masham, was a favourite of Queen Anne. Her father was a London merchant who became a bankrupt; her mother was the aunt of Sarah Jennings, Duchess of Marlborough. Mrs. Hill entered the house of Lady Rivers, and afterwards that of Lady Marlborough, who obtained for her the post of bedchamber woman to the queen. In 1707 she was privately married to Samuel Masham, one of Prince George's gentlemen. This roused the suspicions of the duchess, who soon discovered that Mrs. Masham's cousin Robert Harley, afterwards Earl of Oxford, was using her as a means of furthering his interests with the queen. It was thought to be owing to the influence of Harley and Mrs. Masham that Anne created two new bishops without consulting the minister Godolphin. In spite of her violence the duchess found herself gradually supplanted by her former dependent. On the downfall of Godolphin's ministry (1710), Mrs. Masham introduced Harley, now virtually prime minister, to the queen. She received the privy purse after her rival the duchess had been dismissed, and her husband was raised to the peerage, apparently against the wish of Anne. Harley quarrelled with her, probably about some money he had promised her out of the Asiento contract (q.v.), and now relied on the rival favourite, the Duchess of Somerset. Lady Masham joined the Bolingbroke faction, although Swift attempted a reconciliation between the two ministers at her house. There is some reason to believe that it was through her and Ormonde that the Jacobites at St. Germains induced the queen to dismiss Harley, and she had certainly reproached him for his uselessness shortly before the dismissal occurred (July 1714). Of the remainder of her life nothing is known. Her influence over Queen Anne is to be ascribed first to her political and Church principles, and secondly to her "suppleness of temper."

W. T. Morgan, "English Political Parties in the Reign of Anne," 1920.

Mason, Sir John (1503–66), distinguished himself during the reigns of Henry VIII, Edward VI, Mary, and Elizabeth as a statesman and diplomatist. He was sent in 1550 to France to discuss the possession of Boulogne with the French commissioners. He subsequently sided with Northumberland, but was employed on various missions under Mary. After the accession of Elizabeth he opposed Cecil, and warmly advocated a pro-Spanish policy. Mason was said to have brought back from his various embassies "the Italian's quickness, the Spaniard's staidness, the Frenchman's air, the German's resolution, and the Dutchman's industry." Mason himself accounts for his success in gaining the favour of four sovereigns by his "speaking little, and writing less," and by "attaining to something which each party esteemed serviceable to them, and being so moderate that all thought him their own."

Massachusetts. [American Colonies.]

Massue de Ruvigny, Henry de, Earl of Galway (1648–1720), originally bore the title of the Marquis de Ruvigny. A French Protestant general, he was sent over by Louis XIV to intrigue with the opposition leaders, Buckingham, Russell, and Holles (1678). On the revocation of the Edict of Nantes, he followed his father into England. Soon after the accession of William III he was placed in command of a regiment of Huguenot cavalry, raised by the energy of his father, who died in 1689. He served in Ireland, and, after the departure of William, became major-general. During the siege of Limerick he was chosen to hold a conference with Sarsfield (q.v.). For his services he was created Baron Portarlington, and a property given him from the forfeited Irish lands. In 1693 he took part in the abortive expedition commanded by Meinhard Schomberg (q.v.) and was taken prisoner at the battle of Landen, but his captors allowed him to escape. He was sent to Piedmont as English envoy, but could not prevent the Duke of Savoy from deserting the coalition (1696). He was created Earl of Galway in 1697. After the outbreak of the War of the Spanish Succession he was sent to Portugal as second in command, on the recall of Schomberg (1704). He met with many reverses, and on his return the Tories, urged on by the angry Peterborough, instituted a severe examination into the conduct of the war (1711). His reply was complete, and his conduct was defended by the Duke of Marlborough. But the Commons passed a resolution that he had acted contrary to the honour of the Imperial crown by allowing the Portuguese regiments to take precedence of the English. The rest of his life was spent in retirement.

G. Lambert, "The Huguenots," 1884.

Matilda (*d.* 1083), wife of William the Conqueror, was the daughter of Baldwin V, Count of Flanders. She was married to William probably in 1053, but, as she was related

to him and no papal dispensation for the marriage had been obtained, the royal couple were placed under excommunication. By Lanfranc's intercession this ban was removed subsequently. Matilda built the nunnery of the Holy Trinity at Caen as her share of the atonement required from her and her husband. Of her personal character little is known, but the story of her having vindictively deprived Brihtric—a Saxon noble who rejected her advances in the days when she was at her father's court—of all his lands, if true, is unfavourable to her character. The theory that the Bayeux tapestry was executed under her direction is now generally discredited.

Matilda, or **Maud** (*d.* 1118), the first wife of Henry I, was the daughter of Malcolm III of Scotland and Margaret, sister of Edgar Atheling. Her original name was Edith, but on her marriage the Saxon appellation was discarded for the Norman one of Matilda or Maud. She was brought up in the convent of Romsey by her aunt Christine, but never took the veil. Her title, "Good Queen Maud," seems to have been well deserved. She ministered to the poor with her own hands, and was a great supporter of Anselm, and the Church. Her later years were passed in pious seclusion.

Matilda, or **Maud** (1102–67), was the only daughter of Henry I. In 1114 she was married to the Emperor Henry V, by whom she had no issue. Her husband died in 1125, and, her brother William having been drowned, Maud was summoned to England, and homage was done to her as the future queen (1126). In 1128, contrary to the wishes of many of the barons, she was married to Geoffrey of Anjou. The unpopularity of this match gave an opportunity to Stephen to seize the crown of England on the death of Henry I, but his misgovernment quickly alienated a large number of his subjects, and in 1139 Maud (or the Empress, as she was usually styled) landed in England, and the country was practically divided, Stephen being in possession of the eastern part, Maud of the western. A period of civil war ensued with varying success till 1147, when the death of Robert of Gloucester, her great partisan, induced Maud to quit the country and content herself with attempting to establish her authority in Normandy. Her lack of success is to be attributed partly to her own overbearing and tyrannical conduct, and partly to the inveterate dislike of the Normans for the Angevins. She lived to see her son Henry crowned King of England.

Matilda, or **Maud** (*d.* 1152), wife of King Stephen, was the daughter and heiress of Eustace, Count of Boulogne, and the niece of Henry I's queen. She was extremely popular, and deservedly so, as she followed in the footsteps of her aunt, the "Good Queen Maud." She energetically supported her husband in his wars with the empress.

Mauritius (or the Isle of France), an island in the Indian Ocean, lying to the east of Madagascar, was discovered in 1505 by a Portuguese navigator named Pedro Mascarenhas, who named his discovery Cerné. In 1598 the island was occupied by a Dutch expedition under Van Neck, and called Mauritius in honour of Maurice, Prince of Orange; but no settlement was made until 1644. In 1712 the island was abandoned by the Dutch only to be occupied three years later by the French, by whom it was held until 1810, when it was taken by a British expedition under Sir Ralph Abercromby. Mauritius has ever since remained under British rule, having been finally ceded by the Treaty of Paris (1814). In 1825 a reduction of ten shillings per cwt. on Mauritian sugar caused the island to make rapid progress in civilization; and at the present day the exports of sugar, rum, and vanilla are very considerable. The government is vested in a governor, assisted by an executive council which includes the colonial secretary, the procureur-general, and the receiver-general. There is also a legislative council, consisting of twenty-seven members, ten of them elective. The Rodriguez and Diego Garcia Islands are dependencies of Mauritius.

S. B. de B. Edwardes, "History of Mauritius, 1507–1914," 1921.

Maxima Cæsariensis was one of the districts into which Roman Britain was divided under the administrative scheme of Diocletian and Constantine. Of its situation nothing is known. [Britannia, The Roman Divisions of.]

Maxwell, Sir John, 4th Baron Herries (1512 ?–83), though at first an adherent of the Lords of Congregation, became a supporter of Mary, Queen of Scots, whom he warned in solemn terms against marrying Bothwell. On the queen's escape from Lochleven he joined her at Hamilton, and, in company with Lord Fleming, was sent as her ambassador to Elizabeth, and subsequently acted as one of her commissioners at the inquiry of York. He was accused of aiding the Hamiltons against the Regent Moray, but obtained an indemnity. Lord Herries was a subtle diplomatist, and no mean rival to such men as Lethington and Cecil.

Maynard, Sir John (1602–90), was born at Tavistock, educated at Exeter College, Oxford, entered the Middle Temple in 1619, and represented Chippenham in the first parliament of Charles I. He speedily obtained eminence as a lawyer, and was in consequence appointed by the Long Parliament one of the managers in the prosecution of Strafford, and also of Laud. In 1648 he vehemently opposed the vote of no-addresses, and when it passed in spite of his opposition, for a time seceded from parliament. Thus he took no part in the measures which led to the king's execution and the foundation of the republic; nor did he again sit in a parliament until 1656. During the Protectorate Maynard was committed to the

Tower by Cromwell for his argument in Cony's case, showing the illegality of the customs duties levied by the protector. To obtain his release he was compelled to sign a submission acknowledging his fault. In spite of this incident he was offered and consented to accept from Cromwell in May 1658 the post of serjeant to the Commonwealth. In 1659 he steered his course with great skill; he did not take his seat in the first restoration of the Rump, but waited till the second, and then used his influence to pave the way for the return of the king. Thus he easily made his peace, was knighted, and appointed one of the king's serjeants. In that capacity he frequently took part in the State trials, and also acted as principal manager for the Commons in the trial of Lord Stafford (1680). In the solitary parliament of James II he opposed the encroachment of the king, and refused to appear for the Crown against the Seven Bishops (q.v.). In the Convention Parliament Maynard took a prominent part, conducted the conference with the Lords on the question of the "abdication" of James, and was nominated the first of the commissioners of the great seal.

Mayne, Cuthbert, a Catholic priest, was executed in November 1577 for having denied the queen's supremacy, and celebrated Mass. The trial is remarkable for the fact that no proof was obtained, and the prisoner was actually convicted on the ground of *strong presumption* only.

Short biography by Cardinal Allen, 1582.

Mayo, Richard Southwell Bourke, 6th Earl of (1822–72). [Bourke.]

Mayor. The title "Mayor" symbolizes municipal self-government—the possession of those rights which were implied in the recognition of a town as a "communa." The first certain instance of its use appears to be in London. Here the concession of the communa by Earl John and Walter of Rouen in 1191 is followed at once by the appearance of a mayor, Henry Fitz-Alwyn. Three years after the death of Fitz-Alwyn, who had retained the office for life, John in 1215, in order to win the support of the citizens, conceded to the barons of London by charter the right of annually choosing their mayor. The person elected was, however, to be approved by the king. Though chosen only for a year, it was usual until 1319 to re-elect the same person for several years; from that year dates the practice of an annual election. According to the evidence of the Rolls, it is to the reign of John that the possession of a mayor in the other great towns, such as Bristol, York, Norwich, Lincoln, and Winchester, is due. Local lists of mayors giving earlier dates are scarcely trustworthy. During the thirteenth century town politics turn chiefly on the question who was to elect the mayor—the aldermen, representing the propertied class, or the populace. This struggle was particularly important in London during the Barons' War, when the commons sided with de Montfort's party, the magnates with the king. The popular party were successful, and secured the election of their own candidate in 1263–5, but the royal victory in 1265 brought with it a suspension of the city constitution altogether, and the town remained under a "custos," and not a mayor, till 1270. The contest was renewed in 1272, but in 1273 the aldermen, supported by the royal council, regained their power. The suspension of the town constitution was the penalty not only for popular violence, but also for attempts of the magistracy to extend its power. Thus London was without a mayor, and under a custos, from 1285 to 1298, because the mayor had endeavoured to gain exemption for the city from the jurisdiction of the justices in eyre. The fourteenth century saw the rise of the craft gilds, and their efforts to gain control of the administration, including the election of the mayor. In these efforts they were entirely successful in the reign of Edward IV. The same general lines of development are seen in the other great towns; the struggle of the magnates against the commons for the election of the mayor, against royal interference, the occasional nomination of a custos, and the increasing importance of the trade societies. The struggle between the aldermen and the people of York happened curiously enough in 1381; whether it had any connexion with the Peasant Rising has not been ascertained. In conferring a new charter in 1389 Richard II gave the mayor his own sword: after this he assumes the title of Lord Mayor, hitherto only borne by the mayor of London. Another point of interest is offered in the conflicts between the mayors, representing town self-government, and the lords of such towns as were in the demesnes of prelates. The most notable instance is that of Reading, when in the thirteenth century mayor and abbot struggled concerning the merchant gild, and in the fourteenth concerning the nomination of constables, and when as late as the fifteenth century the abbots claimed a voice in the choice of the mayor. [W. J. A.]

Meal-Tub Plot, The (1679), was a pretended conspiracy fabricated by the informer Thomas Dangerfield (q.v.), who hoped thereby to emulate Oates and Bedloe. He declared that the Presbyterians were conspiring to raise an army and establish a republic. At first he was believed, but his imposture being discovered, he was committed to Newgate, when he suddenly turned round and declared that the pretended conspiracy was an imposture concocted by the papists to hide a real popish plot, which had for its object the murder of the king. The papers relating to this plot were, he declared, concealed in a meal-tub in the house of Mrs. Cellier, a Roman Catholic lady, who was tried with Lady Powys for the alleged plot, but acquitted.

Measures, The Assize of (1197), was issued for the purpose of securing the uniformity of weights and measures throughout the kingdom. But it was found impossible to break down local custom, and even Magna Carta (Art. 35) was not obeyed in this respect. Indeed, it is only in recent times that any serious attempt has been made to secure that uniformity which would be so beneficial.

Meath, The Kingdom of, is said to have been formed about A.D. 150, by Tuathal Techmar, as the demesne land of the *ard ri*, or overking of Ireland. For this purpose he took pieces of land from each of the four kingdoms; from Connacht the hill of Usnech, the old religious centre of the Irish, from Munster the mound of Tlachtga, from Ulster, Tailti (Teltown), and from Leinster the hill of Tara. The last became his principal residence, and the place of assembly of the under-kings of Ireland, while each of those places became a religious centre where great festivals were held. Meath now comprised the present county of Meath, Westmeath, and parts of Longford and King's County. Tuathal made Leinster completely subservient, and is said to have created a standing army, which afterwards became celebrated as the Fenians. The power of the *ard ri* was soon menaced by that of the rival kingdom of Munster, and Tuathal's grandson, Conn, "of the hundred battles," was, it is said, forced by Mogh of Munster to divide Ireland into two parts, the north being Conn's half, the south Mogh's half. The power of the *ard ri* seems to have been precarious, and the overkings were chosen from various branches of the Milesian race, until in the fifth century Niall, "of the nine hostages" founded the Hui-Neill dynasty, which from 483—when Lugaid, the son of Laeghairé, established himself upon the throne—was dominant in Ireland for five hundred years, the sovereignty alternating between the two branches. In 559 the *ard ri* deserted Tara in consequence of a curse pronounced upon it by St. Rodanus, or Ruadan, because of the violation of his sanctuary by King Diarmaid (Dermot), and their residence became unsettled, the kings of the southern Hui-Neill dynasty, whose settlements were in Meath, living in Westmeath, those of the northern race, whose possessions were in Ulster, establishing themselves in Derry. There was therefore no central power, and hence the weak resistance offered to the Teutonic invaders of whom the Fingals, or Norsemen, founded a considerable colony in Meath, and by whom a tribute was imposed upon the southern Hui-Neills. In 980, however, Malaughlan II, King of Meath, became *ard ri*, on the extinction of the direct branches of the Hui-Neills, or O'Neills as they now called themselves, and he was the last of his race who held that dignity without dispute. During his lifetime it was usurped by Brian Boru (q.v.), and remained for over a century with his descendants, the O'Briens. In fact, from the beginning of the eleventh century, the power of the O'Melachlins of Meath was, as a rule, at a low ebb, and after the Anglo-Norman invasion the province was bestowed on Hugh de Lacy, through whose great-granddaughters it passed into the families of de Geynville, lords of Trim, and of de Verdun, barons of Dundalk. The lordships of Trim passed by marriage into the hands of the Mortimers, Earls of March, and finally vested in the Crown, while the de Verdun property went to the Talbots, Earls of Shrewsbury, by whom it was forfeited to the Crown under the statute against absentees. In the reign of Elizabeth, Meath, now reduced to its present dimensions, was added to the province of Leinster. It received a large English colony during James I's later plantations, and again during the Cromwellian settlement. The ancient tumuli with which Meath is covered have been thought to be relics of the Tuatha dé Danann, one of the early invading tribes.

E. Hull, "History of Ireland," 1926; E. Curtis, "History of Mediæval Ireland," 1923; G. Orpen, "Ireland under the Normans," 1911–20.

[L. C. S.]

Meeting, The Right of Public, as opposed to rioting, first became important in 1768, when the Middlesex electors, supported by the most prominent politicians of the day, assembled to protest against the infringement of their rights by the House of Commons. Meetings were also held in their support in no fewer than seventeen counties. The question, which became intimately connected with that of petition, was again raised in 1779–80, when an agitation began in Yorkshire and spread over England, in favour of economic and parliamentary reform. The House of Commons at this time protested against the practice of sending delegates to London with petitions, but were unable to prevent it. The right of meeting was grievously abused by the Protestant associations which led to the Lord George Gordon riots of 1780 (q.v.); but the Anti-Slave Trade Association of 1787 carefully kept within the law. The terror caused by the French Revolution at length determined ministers to have recourse to repressive measures. Several societies already established, chief among which were the Revolution Society, the Society for Constitutional Information, and the London Corresponding Society, had received a fresh impulse from events occurring on the other side of the Channel, and members of the last especially had indulged in violent language. This was met by several trials for sedition both in England and Scotland, in which the sentences imposed, particularly in the northern country, were of terrible severity, and the cases invariably prejudged. The acquittal of Horne Tooke (q.v.), Thomas Hardy, and other members of the great societies on the charge of treason in 1794 was, however, a severe blow to the government, which nevertheless continued the suspension of the Habeas Corpus Act (q.v.), and procured

the conviction of Henry Redhead Yorke on a charge of conspiracy. The London Corresponding Society continued to hold meetings, one of which, being followed by an attack on the person of the king (1795), resulted in the passing, in company with a Treason Practices Act, of a Seditious Meetings Act (q.v.), which provided that no political meeting of more than fifty persons could be held without previous notice to a magistrate, who was to attend in person, and might disperse them according to the Riot Act (q.v.), if he thought them dangerous. In spite of the vehement opposition of Fox and his friends, these bills became law by large majorities. The only result was that the societies had resort to secret conspiracy in conjunction with the French clubs and the United Irishmen, and were in consequence suppressed by the stringent Corresponding Societies Act (1799). In 1817, when discontent, want, and zeal for reform had caused riots in various parts of the country and an attack on the Prince Regent, the acts of 1795 and 1799 against corresponding societies were extended to other associations, such as the Hampden and Spencean clubs. Meetings, however, only became larger and more revolutionary, especially in the manufacturing districts; and the rash action of the military resulted in the "Peterloo Massacre" (q.v.) of 1819. That criminal blunder was followed by the "Six Acts" (q.v.), one of which placed rigorous restrictions on all meetings of more than fifty persons, and entrusted magistrates with the amplest powers for their suppression and adjournment. In the following year "Orator" Hunt (q.v.), Sir C. Wolseley, the Rev. Joseph Harrison, and others were tried for unlawfully meeting together, and sentenced to various periods of imprisonment. From that time onwards the right of meeting has been generally recognized by the government, and lawful agitation is no longer confounded with riotous and disorderly assemblies. The Catholic Association (q.v.) in Ireland was allowed to continue, restrictions being placed alone on the proposal to appoint managers of petitions as being a violation of the Irish Convention Act of 1793, until it threatened to supersede parliament. It was thereupon suppressed (1825), but continued in another form; and, being revived on the expiration of the act, was again suppressed, but not until its objects had been completely gained (1829). The First Reform Bill was ushered in by the agitation of political unions throughout the country; and on its rejection by the House of Lords, these organizations exceeded their lawful limits by sending delegates to a national union in London. They were in consequence proclaimed, but continued nevertheless; and the surrender of the Lords alone prevented much violence and consequent coercion. The agitation for the repeal of the Irish Union produced some monster meetings, such as that on the hill of Tara (1843), which were so dangerous to the peace that the government had to repress them. A similar fate attended the Orange lodges, which, established about 1795 in opposition to the Catholic Association, spread into England, especially into the army, and dabbled in plots for placing the Duke of Cumberland on the throne (1835). The trades unions' procession, the object of which was the release of the Dorchester labourers, dispersed upon the refusal of Lord Melbourne to receive a deputation which relied to some extent on the exhibition of physical force (1834). A similar attitude was adopted towards the Chartists, who were not allowed to appear in large numbers at Westminster under pretence of presenting their huge petition, but whose meetings were tolerated as long as they were orderly. In Ireland the land agitation of 1880 and the subsequent years compelled the government to place restrictions on the right of public meeting. The Land League was suppressed in October 1881, and the Prevention of Crimes Act of the following year empowered the lord-lieutenant to disperse assemblies calculated to disturb the peace; which power was frequently exercised in the case of Land League, Nationalist, and Orange assemblies. By the Crimes Act of 1887 the lord-lieutenant was empowered to suppress any association which, in his judgment, was engaged in the commission of crimes, or in incitement to violence or intimidation. [Riot Act.] [The right of public meeting was made liable to restriction under the Defence of the Realm Acts (August 8, 1914, etc.) during the Great War. These defence regulations were superseded in 1920 by the Emergency Powers Act (10 Geo. V, c. 55). It was under this act that the Emergency Regulations of April–November 1926 (No. 22 of which dealt with public meetings) were issued on the outbreak of the General Strike.]

"State Trials," xxii; Erskine, "Speeches"; Sir T. Erskine May, "Constitutional History," ed. F. Holland, 3 vols., 1912. [The right, in some Continental countries expressly guaranteed by the Constitution, is legally in England a mere corollary of individual rights: *see* A. V. Dicey, "Law of the Constitution," p. 284, seqq.] [L. C. S.]

Mehidpar, The Battle of (December 21, 1817), was fought during the war against Holkar, whose army was protected by a river lined with a formidable battery of 70 guns. Sir Thomas Hislop launched his men across the river by a single ferry, in the face of a terrific fire, to seize the guns. Holkar's artillerymen were struck down at their guns; a general rout took place and the victory was complete, though at the expense of 778 killed and wounded.

Melbourne, William Lamb, 2nd Viscount (1779–1848). [Lamb.]

Mellitus, Archbishop of Canterbury (619–624), was sent over by Gregory in 601 to assist Augustine in the conversion of the English. He preached the gospel in Essex, and was appointed by Augustine the first Bishop of London. After the death of Ethelbert of Kent Essex relapsed into paganism, and Mellitus

fled to the continent (617). On the death of Lawrence he became the third Archbishop of Canterbury.

Melun, Treaty of (1593), was concluded between Elizabeth and Henry IV of France, and bound both sovereigns to maintain war against Philip II of Spain as long as he should remain in hostility to either England or France.

Melville, Andrew (1545–1622), was appointed principal of Glasgow University in 1574, and subsequently principal of St. Mary's College, St. Andrews (1580), and rector of the University in 1590. He was moderator of the general assembly, 1587–94. In 1606 he was summoned to London in company with seven other of the leading Scottish ministers to discuss the question at issue between the king and the Scottish Church. A conference took place, which ended in an explosion of rage on Melville's part against the primate. He was ordered to be imprisoned in the Tower, and kept there for four years. He was released at the request of the Duc de Bouillon, and passed the remaining years of his life as professor of divinity at Sedan.

P. Hume Brown, "History of Scotland," 1911.

Melville, Henry Dundas, Viscount (1742–1811). [Dundas.]

Members of Parliament. The House of Commons has no right to decide the eligibility of members; it can merely insist on the performance of those conditions under which alone it is lawful to sit and vote. In 1769 Wilkes (q.v.), having been expelled the House, was declared "incapable of being elected a member to serve in this present parliament," and Colonel Luttrell, though defeated by him at the poll, was admitted as member for Middlesex, but in 1782 the resolution against Wilkes was, on his own motion, expunged from the journals of the House as subversive of the rights of the whole body of electors. This principle was not acknowledged in earlier times, for in 1711 Sir Robert Walpole was declared ineligible in consequence of a previous expulsion. Nevertheless, a member though duly returned could not sit and vote until he had taken the oath provided by 31 and 32 Vict. c. 72, though Quakers, Moravians, and Separatists were allowed to affirm instead. On May 3, 1880, Charles Bradlaugh (q.v.) claimed to affirm, and his claim being rejected by a select committee, offered to take the oath. As he had declared that an oath was not binding on his conscience, the House refused to allow him to do so. His claim to affirm was referred to the law courts, and the High Court of Justice decided that it was invalid. In 1888, however, a statute was passed giving to members the right of choice between the oath and the affirmation. Any member sitting or voting before taking the oath or affirming incurs a penalty of £500 for each offence besides vacating his seat. But though a member in this case may not take his seat, he does not cease to be a member of the House; he may even sit within its walls, though he must take care that his seat is below the bar, which for this purpose is held to be without the House; and he may, like Baron Rothschild in 1858, be called on to serve on committees. A member having been sworn, or made affirmation, as he may prefer, is presented to the Speaker by the clerk of the House. The personal privilege of members formerly extended to freedom from arrest or molestation for themselves, their servants, and their goods. This privilege was of great antiquity. In Atwyll's case in 1477 the Commons affirmed that it had existed "whereof time that man's mind is not the contrary." For the reign of George III the privilege was dropped as regards servants, and now extends only to the person of members for forty days before, during, and for forty days after a session. It never covered treason, murder, felony, or breach of the peace, and since the House in 1753 took a less liberal view of its own privileges—by refusing in Wilkes's case to extend them to seditious libel—than was held by the Court of Commons Pleas, it has not covered any indictable offence. It is the duty of a judge on committing a member to prison to inform the House of the fact, that it may satisfy itself as to the question of privilege. A member is not exempted from punishment for contempt of court, for in 1831 Lord Chancellor Brougham committed Long Wellesley for contempt, and the House refused to interfere in his behalf. Later, in 1882, Mr. Gray, member for Dublin, was imprisoned for contempt at the end of the session. His imprisonment ended before the next meeting of parliament, and a select committee reported that the case did not demand the attention of the House. A member may be expelled, and expulsion may be said to follow such ill-conduct as would render a man unfit to sit in the House, while it is also inflicted on any member absconding from justice, as in the case of Sadleir in 1857. By a standing order of 1880 suspension is incurred by wilful obstruction of the business of the House. All members are bound by 5 Rich. II, c. 4, to render personal service in parliament, and their attendance may be enforced by a call of the House, though there has been no instance of such a proceeding since 1836. A member vacates his seat by elevation to the peerage, and since 6 Anne, c. 7, by the acceptance of a lucrative office under the Crown. No member can relinquish his seat, and since 1750 the custom has obtained that a member wishing to retire from parliament should apply to the Crown for a nominal office, such as the Stewardship of the Chiltern Hundreds. [Chiltern Hundreds; Oaths, Parliamentary; Parliament.]

Sir W. R. Anson, "The Law and Custom of the Constitution"; C. H. Macilwain, "The High Court of Parliament and its Supremacy," 1910; E. Porritt, "The Unreformed House of Commons," 2 vols., 1903; A. F. Pollard, "Evolution of Parliament," 1920; J. Redlich, "The Procedure of the House of Commons," 3 vols., 1908.

Merchant Adventurers, The, were an association of English merchants, composed of groups trading from various of the port towns, especially London. Their principal trade was in English cloth, and their most important area of activity stretched from the Low Countries across northern Europe to the Baltic. The origins of the fellowship are hidden in obscurity. It was claimed by members that their history went back into the thirteenth century, but it is only in the fifteenth century that we can distinguish any definite organization and not till the granting of their English charter in 1505 that they assumed the form and aspect under which they became famous throughout Europe in the two centuries which followed. Their staple, or head-quarters, was always overseas and generally in the Low Countries. The great commercial activity of Bruges in the early fifteenth century may be partly traced to their presence there, and when they transferred their staple to Antwerp the world's trade moved with them. Under the Tudors they built up a huge vested interest in the cloth trade, practically monopolizing the export trade in white and fine coloured cloths. During this time they overthrew the power of their old rivals, the Merchant Staplers, who attempted to abandon the decaying export trade in wool for the more lucrative business of selling woollen cloth. At the same time they were challenged by the Hanse League, and after a long and desperate struggle succeeded again, in the later years of Elizabeth, in asserting their power. For a time the staple town was Hamburg, a German port which was always friendly to the fellowship. Early in the seventeenth century they were firmly consolidated in the United Provinces, and there the principal centre was fixed when the association was at the height of its power. Under parliamentary attack their power was shaken, and they lost influence and security when they suffered damage from James I's ill-fated dyeing and dressing scheme in the second decade of his reign. But until the Civil War they remained the largest and richest of the English trading associations, their loose organization and efficient trading machinery often challenging a favourable comparison with the new model of close financial association with which such bodies as the East India Company were experimenting. After the Restoration their power declined, although their rights and privileges continued to be exercised until the reign of William and Mary, when their monopoly of cloth export to North and Central Europe was taken away. But there is evidence to suggest that during the eighteenth century the Adventurers were still active and powerful in Hamburg, and as late as 1805 they were still in existence there.

Lingelbach, "The Merchant Adventurers of England," and in "Transactions of the Royal Historical Society," 1902; Ehrenberg, "Hamburg und England im Zeitalter der Königin Elisabeth"; Unwin, "Studies in Economic History"; Sellers, "The York Mercers and Merchant Adventurers." [STAPLES.] [A. V. J.]

Merchants, The Charter of the (1303), was granted by Edward I to the foreign merchants, and gave them certain important privileges, in return for which he received from them a considerable sum of money in the shape of duties on wool, etc.

Rymer's "Fœdera," ii, 747.

Merchants, The Statute of (1283), known also as the Statute of Acton Burnell, was one of Edward I's important commercial measures. It provided for the registration of merchants' debts, for their recovery by distraint, and for the debtors' imprisonment.

"Statutes of the Realm," i, 53.

Mercia was the great Anglian kingdom of central England. Originally the term seems to have been confined to that particular Anglian settlement which occupied the district round Tamworth and Lichfield, and the Upper Trent valley. West of this a range of moorlands checked the progress of the invaders for a considerable period. Their proximity to the unconquered Welsh gave them the title of Mercians, or Men of the March. Nothing definite can be determined as to the date of this original Mercian settlement, but it must have been later than that of the more eastern Anglian settlements in mid-England. It was, however, probably made in the latter half of the sixth century. Nothing is known of its first king, Creoda, who died in 593 ?; Pybba (593 ?–606 ?) and Cearl (606 ?–626 ?) were of equal insignificance. But in 626 a great king, Penda, began to reign. He found Middle England split up into a large number of independent Anglian settlements. These had, perhaps, been already dependent on Ethelbert of Kent and Rædwald of East Anglia. Penda reduced them to a permanent dependence on the men of the March. Henceforth Lindiswaras and Gyrwas, Middle English and South English, Pecsaetan, Hwiccas, Hecanas, and Megasætas were but under-kingdoms of the Mercian monarch. They were still centres of local feeling. Lines of subreguli, or hereditary ealdormen, continued to reign in them. But for great political purposes Mercia is henceforth synonymous with Middle England. Penda, the creator of this greater Mercia, was also the representative of the heathen reaction which followed Augustine's mission. He was, moreover, the uncompromising foe of the rising power of Northumbria. In alliance with the Welshmen he defeated and slew Edwin the Bretwalda. Oswald, the sainted king, was equally unable to withstand him. But at last Oswy, his successor, destroyed the power of Mercia at the battle of Winwaed (655). Penda fell on the field. Oswy gave law to all England. The greater Mercia began to break up, and some parts were even conquered by Oswy. But in 659, after the death of Peada, the next king, the Mercians seized arms in despair, and led

by Wulfhere, nephew of Penda, drove out the Northumbrians, and effectually consolidated the greater Mercia. It may have been now that the Mercian boundary was pushed southward to the Thames. Meanwhile Christianity had silently become the religion of Mercia, and Theodore of Tarsus found in Wulfhere and his brother and successor, Ethelred (675–704), active and powerful auxiliaries. In 704 Ethelred withdrew to a monastery. His nephew Cenred, son of Wulfhere, reigned over the Mercians till 709, when Ceolred, son of Ethelred, succeeded, and in 715 sustained the great defeat of Wanborough from Ine of Wessex. He died in 716. His successor, Ethelbald, son of Alweo, brother of Penda (716–57), took advantage of Ine's abdication, and the growing anarchy of Northumbria, to establish that Mercian overlordship that was to endure for fully a century. A series of successful wars subdued all the neighbouring states, and Ethelbald with good reason claimed to be *rex non solum Mercensium sed et omnium populorum qui generali nomine Sutangli dicuntur*. But the end of his reign was unfortunate. In 754 the revolt of the conquered people was followed by the defeat and flight of Ethelbald at Burford. Next year he died, and even the genius of Offa (757–96), who, after a year of anarchy, became King of the Mercians, could not wholly undo this great disaster. Yet Offa became the greatest king of his day. He put his dependents in the neighbouring kingdoms, and established a series of alliances that made his power irresistible; conquered eastern Powis from the Welsh, and built the dyke that goes by his name to protect his western frontier; established at Lichfield a short-lived archbishopric that made Mercia ecclesiastically independent, and corresponded on equal terms with Charles the Great himself. Cenwulf, a successor (796–821), was hardly less powerful. But soon after his death the collapse of the Mercian power at Ellandune (q.v.)—where Beornwulf was defeated by Ecgbert—handed over the supremacy of Britain to Wessex. The power of Mercia had been based on nothing but the prowess of its kings. It retained that want of centralization which flowed naturally from its origin; and if remarkable for military ability, was behindhand in culture and civilization. The failure of the royal house, combined with the great invasion of the Danes, completed the Mercian overthrow. Ludecan and Wiglaf were mere puppet kings. When the struggle was over, half Mercia was regularly settled by Norse Vikings; the other half, that to the west and south of Watling Street, was a mere ealdormanship under the West Saxon kings. Ethelred, the new ealdorman of the Mercians, and after his death his wife Ethelfleda, "Lady of the Mercians," the daughter of Alfred the Great, were strong and vigorous rulers; but they ruled in the West Saxon interest. On the latter's death Mercia, enlarged by the gradual reconquest of the Danish portion, ceased to have a ruler of its own. Yet it retained for many generations its local patriotism. The policy of Dunstan may have conciliated it; the policy of Edwy led to its revolt and the setting up a king for itself in Edgar. But on Edwy's death conquered Mercia gave a king to the victorious West Saxons. The establishment of the great earldoms revived local Mercian feeling. Elfgar, Leofric, Edwin, and Morcar became in a sense new rulers of Mercia. Had not the Norman Conquest intervened they might have re-established Mercian independence. But the Norman administrative system for ever put an end to dreams of particularism. Despite the schemes of Earls Ralph and Roger to revive the Heptarchy in the interests of feudalism, despite the distinction of law that survived down to the days of the *Dialogus De Scaccario* (q.v.), Mercia ended its political existence with the Norman Conquest. [T. F. T.]

T. Hodgkin, "Political History of England to 1066"; Sir C. W. C. Oman, "England Before the Norman Conquest."

KINGS OF MERCIA

Creoda (?)	593?
Pybba (?)	593?–606?
Ceorl (?)	606?–626?
Penda	626–655
Peada	655–656
Wulfhere	659–675
Ethelred	675–704
Cenred	704–709
Ceolred	709–716
Ethelbald	716–755
Beornred	757
Offa	757–796
Ecgferth	796
Cenwulf	796–821
Ceolwulf	821–823
Ludecan	825–827
Wiglaf	827–839

Merciless, or WONDERFUL PARLIAMENT, THE (1388), was summoned by the lords appellant after the defeat of de Vere and the royalist party, for the purpose of obtaining a sanction to their acts. Gloucester declared his innocence of any attempt to depose the king; the judges who in the previous year had declared the commission of regency illegal were arrested and banished to Ireland; the royal ministers, including Suffolk, de Vere, Tressilian, and Bramber, were "appealed" and sentenced to death, and other offenders were punished, while £20,000 was voted to the lords appellant, among whom all the principal offices of the realm were distributed. The acts of this parliament fully establish its right to the title of "merciless" and stamp with infamy the men who, whether their political crimes were or were not salutary to the constitution, disgraced their cause by excessive and vindictive cruelty.

Merton, THE STATUTE OF (1236), was enacted in a great council assembled at Merton, January 23, 1236, shortly after the marriage of Henry III and Eleanor of Provence. It dealt with a number of questions relating to the land law, the feudal incidents, and the administration of justice; and recorded the famous reply of the magnates to the attempt of the clergy to alter the law of bastardy: "*nolumus leges Anglie mutare.*"

Metcalfe, Charles Theophilus, Baron (1785–1846), entered the East India Company's service, and in 1808 was selected by Lord Minto to negotiate the alliance with Ranjit Singh. He carried out his mission successfully, and succeeded in concluding the Treaty of Amritsar (1809) (q.v.). Subsequently he negotiated the treaty with Amir Khan (q.v.) in 1817 during the Mahratta War. In 1820 he was appointed resident at Hyderabad, and in 1825 resident at Delhi for Rajputana. In 1834 he was appointed governor of the newly-created presidency of the North-West Provinces, and in 1835, in consequence of the premature departure of Lord William Bentinck, he was obliged to return to Calcutta and assume the provisional governor-generalship, which he continued to hold for a year. On the arrival of Lord Auckland he proceeded to Agra. Soon after his arrival (1836) he learned that the press law carried by him during his governor-generalship had exasperated the India House, and that in consequence his name had not even been mentioned in connexion with the vacant governorship of Madras. He resigned his appointment. His services were fully appreciated by the Crown. He was appointed governor of Jamaica (1839–41) and Canada (1842–5), and was raised to the peerage as Lord Metcalfe in 1845. The difficulties which he experienced from factious opposition, and his own ill-health, produced his resignation (1845), and he returned to England to die in 1846.

Biography by Sir J. Kaye, 1854; E. G. Wakefield, "Metcalfe in Canada," 1844 and 1926.

Methodists. The name was first given in derision to the society formed for religious study and conversation by John and Charles Wesley at Oxford in 1729. Wesley began to hold great evangelical meetings in London and elsewhere in 1739, and in the same year he formed the first regular Wesleyan Methodist society. The society was divided into "classes" with "leaders" and "stewards." Two years before, Wesley had begun to institute lay preachers in his various local societies. In 1744 the first conference was held; but it was not till 1784 that Wesley constituted the conference the supreme authority of the sect, and vested the property of the society in trustees, under its jurisdiction. In 1784 he gave letters of ordination to Dr. Coke, and constituted him "bishop" of the American Methodist body, thus beginning the American Episcopal Methodist Church. It was not, however, till 1788 that Wesley ordained preachers to assist him in administering the sacraments to the societies in England. He died in 1791. After his death the Connexion was distracted by disputes, which ended in the "plan of pacification" in 1795. In 1797 Alexander Kilham founded the "New Connexion," the government of which was more republican than that of the older body. There have been several secessions since —notably those of the "Protestant Methodists" in 1798 (who subsequently were joined by other bodies of seceders and became the "United Methodist Free Churches"). The "Primitive Methodists" were formed in 1810. In 1907 the "New Connexion," the "United Methodist Free Churches," and the "Bible Christians" (formed in 1815) were united into one body known as the "United Methodist Church." [Wesley.]

Smith, "History of Wesleyan Methodism"; biographies of Wesley.

Methuen Treaty, The (1703), was a commercial convention between England and Portugal, concluded on December 27, 1703, by Paul Methuen. Portugal bound herself to admit English woollen manufacturers on the same terms as before the late prohibition of them. England agreed to admit Portuguese wines on payment of two-thirds of the duty imposed on French wines. The treaty was superseded by the treaty of 1835.

Military System. In the earliest times the military system of the Teutonic races appears to have reposed on the broadest basis. Ruled over by elective *duces*, encouraged to valour by the presence of kindred and neighbours, the old Teutonic host, according to Tacitus, was in a very intimate sense the army of the people. Yet even in those days the *comitatus* of the *princeps*, which, by devoting its whole energies to fighting, was probably the most efficient military force, was of other than popular origin. It was the body-guard, the personal following of the king or leader. After the migration to England the same system seems to have continued. It was a primary principle of Anglo-Saxon jurisprudence that every landholder was obliged to serve in the *fyrd* (q.v.), as the popular host was now called. Fyrdbot was part of the *trinoda necessitas*. In the monarchical period the fyrd, arranged by the shire-reeve, was simply the shire in arms. But want of cohesion between various localities made its operations uncertain, and the lack of discipline in a citizen militia frequently rendered it ineffective. The glorious fight of Brihtnoth and the East-Anglian fyrd against the Danes at Maldon (q.v.) shows what the fyrd of a limited district could do; but attempts to aggregate the national militia of the whole nation in a single body were in those early times nearly impossible. Yet, when well led, the fyrd fought well, and its national character was of great political importance as keeping alive national feeling. Still the West Saxon kings would hardly have attained to their imperial position if, in addition to the forces of the allodial system, they had not also to rely upon the services of their gesiths and thegns. These personal retainers of the monarch, the *comites* in a developed form, formed a body-guard of trained soldiers, always at hand. But as time went on, the thegn became more of a feudal noble, dwelling on his estate, and only serving his lord on occasion. Thus the thegnhood became untrust-

worthy also, until its revival in a more primitive form, in the *huscarls* of Canute, gave the king again the services of a standing body-guard of highly-trained professional soldiers.

Such was the outline of the old English military system. In it we have the germ of most of the later developments of the English army, the national militia, the feudal levies, and even permanent mercenary troops. The Norman Conquest developed the feudal element by the introduction of tenure by knight service on the Norman model and resulted in the early division of the land of England into "knights' fees," held by the tenure of providing and equipping a heavy-armed horseman to serve his lord for forty days in the year. William the Conqueror himself saw clearly the constitutional danger and the military worthlessness of the feudal army. In lack of discipline, irregularity, and incapacity for development, it surpassed the fyrd. It was, moreover, largely composed of the disloyal party of the feudal baronage, ever anxious to destroy the royal power, and consequently a source of weakness more than of strength. The military characteristics of the lesser tenants-in-chief and sub-tenants tended, however, rapidly to disappear, and the development in the twelfth century of the institution of the scutage (q.v.) hastened the decay of the feudal military system. The Angevins, partly from necessity and partly from choice, carried out still farther the policy of the Norman kings, and depended to an increasing extent on Flemish or Brabançon mercenaries, who, bound to their lord by no tie but good pay and the rough loyalty of a soldier to his general, and often composed of the very scum of society, were yet efficient military instruments. But mercenaries were expensive, unpopular, and frequently treacherous. The Norman and Angevin monarchs consequently sought, by the maintenance of the fyrd-system, to retain the services of a third body which could be counted upon to support the Crown against the feudal party. The history of the national militia subsequent to the Conquest strongly illustrates the continuity of English constitutional development. William I exacted from every freeman the old national oath to join in defending the king, his lands and his honour, both at home and beyond sea. In 1073 the fyrd took a prominent share in the conquest of Maine. William II cheated the fyrd out of the ten shillings apiece which the shires had given them for their maintenance. Yet it was always faithful to the Crown in its struggle against the feudalists. The defeat of Robert of Belesme, the repulse of David of Scotland at Northallerton, the suppression of the feudal revolt of 1173, were largely due to its valour and patriotism.

Still, the heavy cavalry of the barons was, from the military point of view, a necessary supplement to the infantry of the fyrd, and with the political importance of feudalism annihilated, there was less danger in the feudal array. Yet Henry II, while relying for foreign service mainly on mercenaries, trusted to the fyrd for home defence. His Assize of Arms (1181) (q.v.) revived and reorganized that ancient body, and devised an excellent machinery for compelling every citizen (*tota communa liberorum hominum*) to possess the arms appropriate to his station in life. The increased dread of mercenaries, through their misuse by John, and their attempts to control the destinies of the kingdom during his son's minority, gave an increased importance to the reissue of the Assize of Arms by Henry III in close connexion with the system of Watch and Ward. In the Statute of Winchester (1285) Edward I still further developed the same system, which a series of later measures of Henry IV, Philip and Mary, and James I has brought down to our own days.

The vague power, never perhaps formally taken away from the sheriff, of summoning the *posse comitatus*, was from the fourteenth to the sixteenth century supplemented by more definite commissions of array, empowering those addressed to muster and train all men able to bear arms within the counties included in the commission: while in the Tudor period the institution of lord-lieutenants in every county practically deprived the sheriff of his command of the national forces. Henceforth, the lord-lieutenant was the deputy of the Crown for all military matters, and the ultimate custodian of law and order. But the act of 1 James I, c. 25, had to some extent repealed the long series of statutes which enforced the obligation of keeping sufficient arms on each citizen. The Artillery Company of London, which still continues to exist, sprang from a voluntary association during Henry VIII's reign; and the "train bands" of the seventeenth century, which took the place of the mediæval system, though in a sense the continuation of the fyrd, were also largely of voluntary origin. The difficulties caused by the militia question in 1642, between Charles I and his parliament, and the prominent part taken by the train bands in the Civil War, rendered it necessary for the Restoration parliament to reorganize the national forces and reconstitute the militia under the headship of the Crown. Up to 1757 this force was, however, quite neglected, when the absence of the regular army on the continent caused it to be revived as a local organization for internal defence. Its importance as a recruiting ground for the army was also a great reason for its revival. Under George III and Victoria a series of acts of parliament modified the militia laws. During these reigns army reforms were effected that brought the militia into organic relation with the standing army, without destroying its local basis. Previous to these reforms, service was nominally compulsory, though a Militia Ballot Suspension Act made it practically voluntary. As a means of national defence, the militia has been at various times supplemented by a volunteer

system, self-supporting and unpaid. The Honourable Artillery Company is an early example of such a force. In 1803 the fear of French invasion caused nearly half a million of men to enrol themselves into volunteer regiments; but the cessation of the panic led to the gradual dying out of the movement. In 1859 a more permanent volunteer organization was started, and an act of 1863 gave this organization a legal status. By an act passed in 1907 great changes were made with regard to the volunteers and the militia. The former were transferred to the territorial army, and the latter to the special contingent of the army reserve, which consists of non-regulars who have undertaken to serve abroad.

Thus far the non-professional and irregular military forces have mainly been dealt with. But even in mediæval times the national militia became gradually both unfit and unwilling for foreign service, for which the shortness of the service of the feudal levies still more disqualified them. The mercenary system of the Normans and Angevins became impossible with the development of constitutional government. The need of regular forces became greater with the development of the political power of England. During the Middle Ages the feudal tenants, or the militia of the neighbouring shires, were enough to repel the Scottish or Welsh inroad; but the systematic wars with France which the fourteenth century witnessed required more systematic forces. The national professional army of modern times has its germ in the reign of Edward I, who developed in his Welsh-Scottish wars the system of employing paid native troops. After a temporary setback under Edward II, the principle triumphed under Edward III. The armies which fought in the Hundred Years' War, though to a small extent composed of forced levies of pressed men, were mainly raised by indentures or contracts made with some great noble or experienced general, who agreed to serve the king abroad with a certain number of men at a fixed rate. The pay was very high, and there was never any difficulty in raising the men. The contract generally ended with the war, so that these armies, though composed of trained troops, were not permanent. Penalties for desertion and disobedience were inflicted by statutes which anticipated the later Mutiny Acts. The germ of a standing army is found in the Yeomen of the Guard instituted by Henry VII, and in the small garrisons of Calais, Berwick, and Dover. In the reign of Elizabeth there were anticipations, in the reign of Charles I the beginnings, of a larger standing force. The complaints of martial law and illegal impressment now became general. The struggle of the Crown for the right of maintaining a standing army had now begun. It was to last until the principle was unwillingly accepted at the end of the seventeenth century. The abortive armies of Charles I and the commencement of a military law that marked his reign were soon eclipsed by the great army levied by parliament [New Model], which the genius of Cromwell moulded into the most efficient fighting machine known in English history. Under the Restoration several regiments of Cromwell's army were still maintained. At first these numbered only 3,000 men, but during Charles II's reign not only were temporary armies levied for emergencies, but several new regiments added to the permanent forces. The abolition of the feudal levies by the act 12 Car. II, long after they had ceased to be of any actual value (though they were summoned so late as 1640), made a standing army the more necessary. James II largely increased these troops, and the French war, which the Revolution involved, prevented their disbandment. But a standing army was very unpopular with all parties. To the Whigs it suggested tyranny and popery, to the Tories the military despotism of Cromwell. Only after a great struggle was an army of 7,000 men retained after the Peace of Ryswick. But those debates practically decided the question. Henceforth Great Britain has always had a standing army. The constitutional difficulty had been got over by passing an annual Mutiny Act (q.v.), which alone empowered the sovereign to govern the troops by martial law. Despite popular jealousy the numbers of the army have steadily risen. After the Peace of Utrecht the army numbered 8,000. In 1750 it was nearly 19,000. In 1792 it had decreased to 17,000 in time of peace, though in 1777 it had been 90,000; and in 1812 nearly a quarter of a million of men were under arms. The East India Company had been allowed to levy a separate army for the defence of the Indies. After the Indian Mutiny it was incorporated with the royal forces. In the years 1871 and 1872 important changes were made which had the effect of joining together all the various branches of the English military system into a single whole. [Cardwell.] In 1871 the purchase of commissions by officers was abolished by royal warrant.

The modern standing army of England has always been mainly raised by voluntary enlistment. But so late as the American War "idle and disorderly persons" were impressed for the army as well as for the navy. Difficulties in the way of recruiting were often felt. Perhaps this partly accounts for the survival of the contract system of the Edwards as late as the eighteenth century. So great was the constitutional difficulty suggested by the standing army that only 5,000 men were allowed to live in barracks at the beginning of the nineteenth century. Up to the Crimean War the military system was cumbersome. The commander-in-chief, responsible to the Crown; the "secretary of state for war and the colonies," whose power was limited to war time; the "secretary at war," the parliamentary representative of the army; the treasury, which controlled the commissariat; the home office, which governed the militia—all exercised clashing jurisdictions.

Many reforms have since been made, notably in 1904, when the office of commander-in-chief ceased to exist, a new post, inspector-general, being created, and a council of war framed on the model of the board of admiralty; and again in 1907 by the passing of the Territorial and Reserve Forces Act.

The Great War of 1914 to 1918 produced few permanent changes in the organization of the British army, and its system of command and of administration has undergone little alteration. The territorial army is now, subject to parliamentary sanction, liable for service overseas, and two entirely new corps—the Royal Corps of Signallers and the Royal Tank Corps—have been constituted. The Air Force of the United Kingdom is completely divorced from the army. The compulsory service which was introduced in 1916 was a war-time expedient, and recruiting is now once more on a voluntary basis.

J. W. Fortescue, "History of the British Army," 12 vols., 1889–1927 (dealing respectively with periods to 1713, 1713–63, 1763–93, 1793–1801, 1801–7, 1807–9, 1809–10, 1810–12, 1812–15 (vols. ix and x), 1815–38); Sir S. Scott, "The British Army," 1868–80; E. W. Sheppard, "Short History of the British Army to 1914," 1926; Sir C. W. C. Oman, "History of the Art of War during the Middle Ages," 2 vols., 1924 (periods A.D. 378–1278 and 1278–1485); E. M. Lloyd, "Review of the History of Infantry," 1908.

Mill, James (1773–1836), received an appointment in the India office, and rose to be head of the revenue department. Mill was one of the most prominent of those who understood and developed the views of Bentham (q.v.) on government and legislation. He wrote numerous works on metaphysics, economics, and political theory, which exerted great influence on the thought of the nineteenth century, and a "History of British India," 1817–18.

Biographies and studies by A. Bain, 1882, and Sir L. Stephen in vol. ii of "English Utilitarians," 1900.

Mill, John Stuart (1806–73), son of the preceding, entered the India House in 1823, and in 1856 became head of the examiner's department, from which he retired in 1858. In 1865 he was elected member for Westminster, but was defeated in 1868. In parliament he was an advanced Liberal, and supported with much earnestness woman's suffrage. Mill wrote numerous works, chief of which were his "Political Economy," 1848, "Liberty," 1859, and "Representative Government," 1861. In almost all departments of political, social, and moral philosophy Mill's influence has been very great. As the thinker who attempted to develop and adapt the utilitarianism of Bentham to the complicated needs of modern society his place is specially important; while as a political economist he forms one in the line of succession of great English writers on the subject which began with Adam Smith.

Mill's "Autobiography," 1873; biographies and studies by C. M. Douglas, 1895, J. Lubac, 1902; W. Graham, "English Political Philosophy," 1899.

Millenary Petition, The (1603), so called because it pretended to represent the views of a thousand Puritan clergy, was presented to James I on his way to London shortly after his accession. Its aim was to convert the bare tolerance in which the Puritan clergy had lived under Elizabeth into security. It suggested that clergymen should be left to choose for themselves whether or not to wear cap and surplice; that the use of the sign of the cross in baptism, and bowing at the name of Jesus, should be abolished; that services should be abridged and their music simplified; that proper observance should be given to Sunday; that saints' days on the contrary should not be observed; and that pluralities and sinecures should be abolished. The Petition was discussed and rejected early in 1604 at the Hampton Court Conference (q.v.).

Milner, Alfred, 1st Viscount Milner (1854–1925), was from 1887 to 1889 private secretary to G. J. Goschen, from 1889 to 1892 under-secretary for finance in Egypt, and chairman of the board of inland revenue from 1892 to 1897. In 1897 he succeeded Lord Rosmead as governor of Cape Colony and high commissioner of South Africa. He was first governor of the Transvaal and Orange River Colonies (1901–5), and in 1906 the House of Lords voted their high appreciation of his services in South Africa. He was created Baron Milner in 1901, and a viscount in 1902. During the Great War he was a member of the war cabinet of Mr. Lloyd George (1916), and became secretary of state for war in 1918 and colonial secretary in 1919. In 1920–1 he was sent on a special mission to Egypt, which resulted in his memorandum advocating Egyptian independence. He died on May 13, 1925.

Milton, John (1608–74), the poet, came forward in May 1641 as one of the literary champions of the Puritan party, in a pamphlet "Of Reformation touching Church Discipline in England," followed by four others directed against the moderate Episcopalians. The most important is "The Reason of Church Government" (1641). In 1644 he published his famous "Areopagitica." Within a fortnight of the king's execution he published "The Tenure of Kings and Magistrates," justifying the act. In March 1649 he was made secretary for foreign tongues to the council of state. In this year he published his "Eikonoklastes" (in reply to "Eikon Basilike") and "Pro Populo Anglicano Defensio." In 1652 he became quite blind, and practically gave up the work of his secretaryship. In May 1654 he published his "Pro Populo Anglicano Defensio Secunda." He continued to assist in the foreign correspondence of the republic till the Restoration, and tried by a series of vehement pamphlets to prevent that event. After May 1660 he lived for some months in hiding, but he was not

molested by the new government, and passed the remainder of his life in peace.

D. Masson, "Life of Milton," 6 vols. 1859–94; and biographies by W. M. Harris, 1909; W. G. Tarrant, 1908, etc.

Minden, The Battle of (August 1, 1759), was fought during the Seven Years' War (q.v.). Ferdinand of Brunswick, the commander of the allies, had under him 10,000 or 12,000 British soldiers under Lord George Sackville. He had previously made an unsuccessful attempt to recapture Frankfort from the French. The French commanders, de Broglie and Contades, pushed after him, and rapidly took Cassel, Münster, and Minden. Ferdinand maintained his position on the right bank of the Weser, and left a detachment of 5,000 men, seemingly unguarded, to lure Contades from his strong position at Minden. The Duc de Broglie was dispatched to attack this body of men, but he was compelled to summon Contades to his assistance. The French generals, thus obliged to accept battle on unfavourable ground, were defeated.

Sir L. Knowles, "Minden and the Seven Years' War," 1914.

Ministerial Responsibility. As now understood, this phrase expresses the grand working and motive principle of parliamentary and party government. That every holder of a ministerial office should have at any moment to give an account of his stewardship, not to the power that nominally appoints and dismisses him, but to the Commons and the country, who can withdraw from him the confidence that is essential to his staying in office, is a practical doctrine that has turned the nobler parts of government into a self-acting machinery of rare efficiency hitherto. This is now the outcome and function of ministerial responsibility, when the great officers of state have come to be clothed with the whole prerogative of the Crown. Once it was something different, and served another purpose. It was once a device for reconciling the inviolability of the sovereign with the rights of the subject, and the legal saw, "the king can do no wrong," with the fact that the subject was often wronged by the Crown, and the rule of law that every wrong has a remedy. Officers of the king were answerable for the king's measures to the courts of justice and to the High Court of Parliament, and might have to smart for them. This principle was early admitted; it was already an essential check on the royal authority, though somewhat halting in its operation, in 1485; and it was ruled to be the law on a most solemn occasion—the trial of the regicides in 1660. "The law in all cases," said Bridgman, "preserves the person of the king, but what is done by his ministers unlawfully, there is a remedy against his ministers for it." The higher action of the principle, that which has brought the entire ministerial system into subjection to the Commons and the country, has only recently reached its final development. Its germs, however, were sown with the rise of parliament, and attempts to reduce it to practice were made from time to time as parliament became strong. In 1341 a pledge was exacted from Edward III that the chancellor and other great officers should be appointed in parliament, and their work tested by parliament; thus implying "that it is to the nation, not to the king only, that ministers are accountable." In 1378 another was given, that during Richard II's minority the great ministers should be chosen by parliament. But neither of these engagements stood; parliament has never succeeded in permanently enforcing its will by the direct method. In the invention of impeachment the right path towards the indirect and smoother way of working the principle was hit upon; but even impeachment was premature. Under the house of Lancaster signs that this first of constitutional powers was among the births of time are easily discoverable; but under the Tudors there is not a trace of such a promise. With the Stuarts it reappears. The parliamentary prosecutions of Bacon and Cranfield, the proceedings against Buckingham, Strafford, and others, were all manifestations of the instinct that was pushing the Commons towards the momentous issue; and when Charles I thought of admitting Pym and Hampden to important office, and actually bestowed such on Essex and Falkland, he gave a hint, the earliest in history, of what proved to be the true manner of working the principle. But Pym had no perception of this; his aim was to make parliament immediate master of the administration. After the Restoration the movement began in earnest, and on the right line; in the fall of Clarendon, of the Cabal (q.v.), and of Danby, we see one thing clearly, that the Commons had learned the secret of turning out ministers. The incidents of Danby's overthrow are specially instructive; they show that the responsibility of ministers was becoming a reality, and was on its way to great ends. When the Revolution had been consummated the triumph of the doctrine was merely a matter of time. With the development of the party system the earlier idea of a criminal responsibility enforceable by impeachment gave place to the idea of moral responsibility enforceable by loss of office. Under William III and Anne the rule was gradually established that the sovereign should choose the ministers, but parliament should decide whether his choice should hold good. By one power office was given, to another the men who held it were responsible; gained by favour of one, it could be kept only by favour of the other. The voting power in the country could take away but not give. By getting the control of this voting power, at one time the great families, at another King George III, contrived to intercept the effect of the principle, and for more than a century it operated only in seasons of unusual excitement. But the first Reform Bill brought into play its logical

consequence. Since 1832 the Commons and voting power of the country have virtually indicated to the sovereign the men who must compose the ministry, as well as dismissed it when so minded. However, since a ministry is now a solid mass, usually entering on and resigning power with unbroken ranks, it would be more accurate to name the doctrine the responsibility of ministries.

Sir T. Erskine May, "Constitutional History," ed. F. Holland, 3 vols. 1912; A. V. Dicey, "Law of the Constitution," ed. 1908. [J. R.]

Minorca was taken (1708) by the British during the War of the Succession in Spain, and ceded to Great Britain by the Treaty of Utrecht. In 1756 it was recaptured by the French; and Admiral Byng, after a feeble attempt to relieve the town, left it to its fate. The island was restored to Great Britain by the Treaty of Paris (1763). In February 1782 it was again recaptured by 12,000 French and Spaniards, although General Murray and his men, reduced by sickness to 600, made a resolute defence. In the following year it was ceded to Spain, and in 1783 formally given up to her by the Treaty of Versailles. In 1798, in the midst of the struggle with Napoleon, it was retaken by General Stuart, but finally restored to Spain by the Treaty of Amiens (1802).

Sir C. R. Markham, "Story of Majorca and Minorca," 1905; H. W. Richmond (ed.), "Papers relating to the Loss of Minorca in 1756," 1913 (Navy Records Society).

Minto, Gilbert Elliot, 1st Earl (1751–1814). [Elliot.]

Mir Jafar was appointed Nawab of Murshidabad, or Bengal, by Clive after Plassey (1757), and granted the zemindary of Calcutta to the British. On the death of his son Meerun, during the Mogul invasion, he lost his reason, and his affairs fell into anarchy. His son-in-law, Mir Kasim, took advantage of this to obtain the throne from Vansittart, governor of Bengal, at the price of the cession of Midnapur, Chittagong, and Burdwan, to the company, and a gratuity of twenty lacs to his benefactors.

Mir Kasim was the son-in-law of Mir Jafar. Raised to the musnud of Murshidabad by Vansittart on the deposition of Mir Jafar (1767), he quarrelled with the British about the revenue laws, and murdered an embassy sent to effect a pacification. War was declared; Murshidabad was taken, and the nawab was compelled to fly. Before he fled he caused the whole of the British residents in the Patna factory (150 in number) to be imprisoned, shot down, and cut to pieces, their mangled remains being thrown into wells. Mir Kasim fled to Oudh. Shuja-ud-Dowlah (q.v.), the vizir, received him with favour; but the terrible defeat of Buxar, and the return of Clive to India, so alarmed the vizir that he compelled Mir Kasim to leave the country (1765).

Mitchel, John (1815–75), was one of the leaders of the Young Ireland party in 1848, and in his journal, the *United Irishman*, supported open rebellion, for which he was tried, but found not guilty. When the Treason Felony Act was passed, however, he was again arrested, and his newspaper suppressed. He was finally sentenced to fourteen years' transportation, and sent to Bermuda. By breaking his parole he escaped to the United States, where he became an ardent partisan of the Confederates. In 1874 he went to Ireland, and next year was returned to parliament unopposed for Tipperary county. On Disraeli's motion, however, he was declared incapable of sitting. A new writ being issued, he was again elected; but Stephen Moore, a Conservative, who was next on the poll, claimed the seat, and it was adjudged to him by the Irish Court of Common Pleas. Mitchel thereupon resolved to stand for every Irish county in turn, but died before he could carry out his plan.

Biography by W. Dillon, 1888.

Mogul, The Great, was the name commonly given to the Indian prince who was the descendant of Timur the Tartar, "the firebrand of the universe." Baber, one of his successors, established himself as Emperor of India at Delhi, and transmitted his dignity to his posterity. The invasion of Nadir Shah, and the sack of Delhi, 1739, struck a fatal blow at the grandeur of the Mogul empire. Already the Deccan had split off under a powerful chief, the Nizam-ul-Mulk. The government of Oudh was usurped by another; and the conquests of the Mahrattas tended to reduce the imperial authority to a shadow. In 1788 Delhi was sacked again; the wretched emperor was blinded by a ruffian, and his wives and daughters exposed and dishonoured. After the battle of Patun (1790), the emperor fell wholly into the power of Sindhia. After the battle of Delhi he became a British pensioner, with a large and liberal pension and his residence in Delhi. On the outbreak of the Indian Mutiny in 1857, after a bloody massacre, the descendant of Timur was proclaimed King of Delhi. But after the siege and capture of Delhi by Archdale Wilson he surrendered, and his two murderous sons were shot in the midst of their attendants by Captain Hodson. The Mogul himself was tried, found guilty of treason and murder, and transported to Tunghu in Burma, with his favourite wife and son.

G. B. Malleson, "Indian Mutiny," 1880; J. C. Grant Duff, "Mahrattas," 1826 and 1921.

Mohammed Ali (*d.* 1795) was the son of Anwar-ud-Din, Nawab of the Carnatic. In 1749 he was placed on the throne after the recapture of Arcot from the French and Chanda Sahib. He was shortly, however, attacked in his camp, and with difficulty escaped to Nazir Jung (q.v.). He now made overtures to the French, but Clive's success at Arcot (1751) confirmed him to the British. He now entered into an alliance with Mysore and Tanjore, and raised an army of Mahrattas under Morari Rao. The Carnatic was gradually reduced by the British

and native armies. In 1756 a suspension of arms was agreed to, and Mohammed Ali was acknowledged Nawab of the Carnatic. He was beset with difficulties, and in 1757 required the aid of a British detachment to put down the rebellion of his brothers and collect his revenue. During the war he was compelled to pay tribute to the Mahratta Baji Rao (q.v.). His rebellious subjects gave him considerable trouble. In 1769 he quarrelled with Tanjore. The result of the war which followed was the conquest of Tanjore, which was given to Mohammed Ali by the British. In 1776 he was compelled to disgorge it again. He was an object of peculiar aversion to Hyder Ali, owing to the malign influence he was supposed to exercise on the British counsels. The Carnatic became the scene of the war again on the outbreak of hostilities in 1778. During the reign of Mohammed Ali the Carnatic gradually assumed a position of complete dependence on Great Britain.

Mohamrah, The, a strong Persian fortress on the River Karoon, a branch of the Euphrates, was stormed by the British during the Persian campaign (March 26, 1857).

Mohun, Charles, 4th Baron (1675 ?–1712), "the Whig bully," was a nobleman of bad character, conspicuous at intervals during the reigns of William III and Anne. In 1692 he was tried before the Court of the Lord High Steward for aiding his friend Captain Richard Hill in the murder of the actor William Mountford. Although palpably guilty, he was acquitted. He behaved with great bravery while serving as a volunteer in the expedition against Brest (1694). In Anne's reign he was chiefly conspicuous for his uncompromising Whiggism. He spoke against Nottingham's Occasional Conformity Bill, and wished to have him sent to the Tower for an imputation on the memory of King William. He warmly defended the Godolphin ministry after its fall (1710). Marlborough chose him as his second in a duel arranged with Lord Powlett, which was stopped, however, by royal authority. Mohun was himself slain in a duel with the 4th Duke of Hamilton (James Douglas), not, however, before he had mortally wounded his adversary (November 15, 1712). The quarrel was of a private nature; but as Hamilton was about to be sent to France, it was believed with favourable messages to the Pretender, his death was regarded by the Tories as a political murder.

Moleyns, or Molyneux, Adam (*d.* 1450), Bishop of Chichester, was one of the negotiators of the marriage between Henry VI and Margaret of Anjou (1444), and also assisted in arranging a truce with France, both of which acts made him very unpopular. He was one of the victims of Jack Cade's rebellion, being murdered by the insurgents as he was on the point of escaping to France.

Monasticism. Monks were bodies of men living together apart from the world, for the purpose of leading a religious life. Monasticism first sprang up in the East, where it assumed a solitary and contemplative character; as it spread in the West its organization became more practical. The first monks who exercised any influence on Britain were the Celtic monks of Ireland, where Christianity early assumed a monastic and tribal character. The Irish Church was not so much organized round the bishops as round the monastery. The tribe was reproduced in the monastic brotherhood, of which the abbot was father and head. Celtic Christianity was poetical and imaginative. It sent forth missionaries amongst the Britons and the Picts. In the fourth century Ninian established a monastery at Candida Casa, or Whithern, in Galloway. Soon afterwards two bishops of Gaul dotted settlements along the Wye which rapidly spread. Columba's monastery at Iona was the source whence Christianity was carried into the Northumbrian kingdom (635), and Lindisfarne became the great missionary station whence the conversion of the north of England was carried on. When the Roman monk Augustine converted the Kentish kingdom he likewise established a monastery at Canterbury (598). The Roman and the Celtic Church advanced in their work of conversion till they came into collision. When in 664 it was agreed at the Synod of Whitby (q.v.) that the Roman use should prevail in the Northumbrian kingdom, the downfall of Celtic monasticism followed. Such monks as remained conformed to the Roman, i.e., the Benedictine rule; those who refused returned to Iona. Before the end of the eleventh century Celtic monasticism died away, and the more vigorous system of Rome had taken its place. There was no great difference between the objects which the two systems proposed. Prayer, work, and reading were alike the aims of the communities. The monks settled on unoccupied lands, and by their labour brought them under cultivation. They taught the neighbouring folk, and by their active lives gave a standing protest against the prevalent sensuality of a rude people. The monasteries were the homes of peace and learning, and were the means of spreading civilization. The Northumbrian thegn, Benedict Biscop, founded his monasteries of Wearmouth (674) and Jarrow (682), where rose a band of English scholars, of whom Bæda is the chief. But even before his death Bæda saw the decline of the great days of monasticism. His letter to Ecgbert, Archbishop of York, complains of the excessive number of monasteries founded from a desire to obtain from the king grants of land. The monks were the mere creatures of the thegns who put them there; they lived idle and useless lives; they set a bad example, and impoverished the state. Bæda's warnings were unheeded, and punishment was not long in coming. The Northmen attacked the monasteries, which

were near the sea, and whose treasures offered them a rich booty. The ninth century saw the overthrow by the heathen of most of the renowned monasteries of England. The rule of life, such as it was, seems after this to have fallen into disuse, and they were mostly left in the possession of secular clerks. In the middle of the tenth century a monastic revival spread from the abbeys of Glastonbury and Abingdon. Dunstan (q.v.) and Ethelwulf laboured to restore a system which alone could repair in English society the ravages wrought by the Danes. They pursued two objects, the substitution of monks for secular clerks, and of the rule of St. Benedict for the vaguer and less organized rules which had been previously adopted. Their efforts met with great temporary success. Kings and nobles again endowed monasteries, and monasticism became once more a great influence in the progress of English society.

The Norman Conquest brought still stronger and more definite organization. The great monastic reform on the continent, which had begun at Cluny, was steadily pursued in Normandy at Bec. From Bec came the two archbishops, Lanfranc (q.v.) and Anselm (q.v.). Not only were the English monasteries more rigidly ruled by Norman abbots, but in cases where cathedrals had been originally of monastic foundation Lanfranc replaced the secular canons by regulars. [CATHEDRAL.] By means of the monasteries especially the superior civilization of the Normans was spread through England. But the institution of monasticism itself had well-nigh spent its strength. The eleventh and twelfth centuries witnessed the formation of a number of new orders, all following the Benedictine rule in its main features, but each striving to give it greater reality.

Each of the monastic movements which led to the formation of the Carthusians (q.v.), Premonstratensians, Austin Canons, and, above all, Cistercians (q.v.), found its echo in England. Amongst the founders of the Cistercian order was an Englishman, Stephen Harding, and the Cistercians were a favourite order in England, as the remains of their great abbeys in Yorkshire sufficiently show. The Crusades created a new kind of monasticism—the military orders of the Knights Templars and the Knights of St. John. One order only was specially English, the Gilbertines, founded by Gilbert of Sempringham [SEMPRINGHAM, ORDER OF]; an order remarkable for double monasteries of men and women side by side. This feverish growth of new orders was a sign of weakness rather than of strength. Monasticism could not save itself from degeneracy, and in the beginning of the thirteenth century a new effort was made by St. Francis and St. Dominic, who established the mendicant orders. [FRIARS.] The friars rapidly increased in numbers and in popular estimation, and the glory of the old orders paled before them; but in spite of their greater activity, the friars also rapidly ran their course. The fourteenth century saw the gradual growth of a feeling against religious orders. The Templars, through their pride and wealth, and the mystery which surrounded their doings, were the first to fall. They were finally dissolved in 1312. In England the royal power showed great jealousy of "alien priories," or houses depending on foreign monasteries. Edward I and Edward III both confiscated their lands and possessions. Finally, in 1416, parliament dissolved these "alien priories," and vested their lands in the Crown.

The feeling against monastic institutions was largely increased by the Lollard movement; but on many sides it was felt that their usefulness had really gone. In early times the monks had been settlers and reclaimers of barren land; later they had been good farmers, who had not dealt hardly with those who worked under them. The Cistercians in Yorkshire especially were the chief merchants in the wool trade with Flanders. But monasteries, like all corporations, though easy masters, were tenacious of their rights. They were often involved in quarrels with the rising spirit of municipal freedom. At St. Albans, for instance, the monks and the burghers were in constant strife about trifling matters. The enfranchisement of villeins, and the gradual extinction of villenage in the fourteenth century, brought economic changes which were unfavourable to the tenure of lands by corporations. The land was more and more let to tenants, and not worked by the monks themselves. Luxury and idleness went hand in hand. It became clear that any reform in the Church must begin with the monasteries. In 1523 Wolsey obtained bulls from the pope suppressing forty of the smaller monasteries, and authorizing the application of their revenues to educational purposes. The Renaissance had made men feel that a learned clergy was necessary, instead of indolent monks. The example set by Wolsey was rapidly followed when Henry VIII threw off from the Church of England the papal headship. The monasteries were particularly obnoxious to the king as harbouring those who were discontented with his changes. Their weakness and their wealth made them a tempting object of attack. A visitation of the monasteries was followed by an act of parliament authorizing the suppression of the smaller monasteries whose incomes were below £200 a year (1536). Their fall was quickly followed by that of the larger monasteries also (1539). The monastic system was swept out of England. The monasteries themselves were cast down. Their vast lands were granted to nobles, or were sold, and the result was to give an additional impetus to the social and agrarian revolution which was already in progress. The easy-going monks were replaced by the capitalists, who were buying up an increasing amount of English land. The old-fashioned farming of the monks was superseded. Arable land was turned into pasture for the more profitable purpose of growing wool. Many peasants were thrown out

of work, and the doors of the monasteries no longer stood open for the relief of destitution. Thus the dissolution of the monasteries added materially to the distress and discontent already prevalent, and helped to cause the popular risings under the Tudors, and to necessitate the legislation of Henry VIII against "sturdy beggars." Ultimately the Poor Law of Elizabeth adopted the principle of distributing alms to those in want, and replaced the charity of the monks by the legal contributions of the community. In constitutional matters the suppression of the monasteries largely diminished the members of the House of Lords. The abbots ceased to exist, and the character of the Upper House was changed by the loss of the preponderance of spiritual peers. [ABBOT.]

The general character of English religious orders may be shown by the number of their houses at the time of the dissolution. There were at the date of the dissolution some 186 Benedictine houses, 173 Augustinian, 101 Cistercian, 33 of the four orders of friars, 32 Premonstratensian, 28 of the Knights Hospitallers, 25 Gilbertine, 20 Cluniac, 9 Carthusian, and a few of other orders. The total number of monasteries was 616, and their revenues were approximately valued at £142,914 yearly.

Dugdale, "Monasticon Anglicanum"; F. A. Gasquet, "Monastic Life in the Middle Ages," 1922, and "Henry VIII and the English Monasteries," 1889 and 1920; F. A. Hibbert, "Dissolution of the Monasteries," 1910; A. H. Thompson, "The English Monasteries," 1913; Eileen Power, "Mediæval English Nunneries," 1922.

Monck, GEORGE, DUKE OF ALBEMARLE (1608–70), the second son of a Devonshire baronet, entered the army as a volunteer, and took part in the expedition to the Isle of Rhé in 1628; and after peace was made with France he joined the Earl of Oxford's regiment, which had been raised for the support of the Protestants in Germany and Holland. He remained abroad for ten years, returning to England in 1639 in time to take part in the Scottish war. After hesitating for some time between king and parliament, Monck decided on joining the forces which had been sent over from Ireland by Ormonde to Charles's assistance. As major-general of these troops, Monck took part in the battle of Nantwich, where he was taken prisoner and committed to the Tower. Here he remained for more than two years, but in 1647 he was liberated and placed in command of the English forces in Ulster. He was so badly supported that he was forced to make terms with the rebels under Owen Roe O'Neill, for which he was censured by parliament, although the Independent leaders had advised the treaty. But Monck had convinced Cromwell of his ability, and on the latter being appointed, in 1650, to the command of the Parliamentary forces in Scotland, he made Monck lieutenant-general of artillery. At the battle of Dunbar Monck showed great bravery, and on Cromwell's return to England he was left to complete the reduction of Scotland, which he speedily effected, though not without considerable cruelty. In 1653, on the outbreak of the Dutch war, Monck was appointed one of the admirals of the fleet, and had a share in the great victory off the Texel. He returned to his command in Scotland in 1654, and remained there till the death of Oliver Cromwell, when he acknowledged Richard, and advised him to rely on the Presbyterian party, and endeavour to gather the old nobility and the country gentlemen round him. But during Richard's short reign anarchy prevailed in England. The parliament had been forciby dissolved by the army, and the Rump restored, only to be dispersed a few months afterwards by the soldiers. Having obtained a grant of money from the Scottish Estates, on New Year's Day, 1660, Monck crossed the border, and on February 3 entered London. All opposition to him proved fruitless, and the Rump, who had been hurriedly resuscitated, hailed him as their deliverer. Perceiving the strength of the Royalist reaction he determined to restore the monarchy, and sent an invitation to Charles II to return. In taking this step he had the majority of a free parliament at his back, for he had compelled the Rump to dissolve itself, and the new House of Commons, though largely Presbyterian, contained a vast number of members who regarded the royal family with favour. At the same time he showed his prudence by counselling Charles to promise a general pardon, freedom of conscience, payment of the soldiers' arrears, and the confirmation of confiscated estates. He also took into account the probability of his plans being upset by resistance on the part of the army. He did his best to mollify the temper of such regiments as were within his reach by promises and rewards; and in order, if necessary, to confront force with force, he called out and organized the militia. So skilfully did he arrange matters that only one slight outbreak occurred. Lambert, who had opposed Monck on his southward march, and had been taken, escaped from prison and raised a small army in the centre of England. The attempt was easily quashed, Lambert was again made prisoner, and Charles, on landing, was received with general satisfaction. Monck reaped the highest rewards. He was created Duke of Albemarle and lieutenant-general of the forces, and a perpetual pension of £7,000 a year was granted to him. On the renewal of the Dutch war in 1664 he was appointed joint admiral with Prince Rupert, and behaved with his usual bravery. During the plague of 1665 he was invested by the king with the government of London, and by his energy greatly alleviated the general misery, and preserved order. He took no prominent part in politics during the few remaining years of his life.

Guizot, "Monk" (Eng. translation, 1851, with Lord Wharncliffe's notes); Gumble, "Life of Monk," 1671; Skinner, "Life of Monk," 1723; J. Corbett, "Monk," 1908. [F. S. P.]

Monmouth, James Scott, Duke of (1649–85). [Scott.]

Monopolies. The first attack upon the power of the Crown to issue patents conferring exclusive rights of carrying on certain trades was made in 1597. According to the common law every man was entitled freely to exercise his trade, but the principle was generally recognized that exceptions might be made to this rule in the case of any process newly invented or introduced from abroad. Anxious to gain a control over the increasing commerce of the country, the government was likely to stretch this principle farther than it would bear, and the grant of patents to courtiers was among the readiest means of satisfying their demands. In 1597 the Commons sent up an address to Elizabeth against the abuse of monopolies, but an evasive reply was given, and in 1601 a bitter debate of four days took place on the subject. The queen thought it wise to yield, promised that all injurious grants should be repealed, and caused most of the patents to be revoked. Their number increased again under James I: "whereas, at the king's coming in," says a contemporary, "there were complaints of some eight or nine monopolies then in being, they are now said to be multiplied by so many scores." A detailed examination of the most important cases was made by S. R. Gardiner, who declared that they were not open to the usual charges brought against them. "They were not made with the object of filling the Exchequer. They were not made, primarily at least, with the object of filling the pockets of the courtiers. They were, it is impossible to doubt, the result of a desire on the part of official persons to encourage commerce, and to promote the welfare of the State, though it cannot be denied that their zeal was often greater than their knowledge, and that their best efforts were not unfrequently tainted by . . . . favouritism and corruption. Take, for example, the commission for gold and silver thread. Such thread had been made before in England, but on a small scale; in 1611 and 1616 patents were granted to certain persons, including several courtiers, on two grounds: first, that they would establish a manufacture large enough to compete with the continent; and secondly, that they would import bullion, and not use English coin, the sinews and strength of our state." In 1618 the monopoly was taken into the king's hands, and a proclamation issued forbidding the manufacture of gold and silver thread by private persons, while a commission was issued for the punishment of offenders. The commissioners caused disobedient workmen to be arrested, tools seized, and goldsmiths and silkmen imprisoned upon refusal to enter into bonds not to sell to unlicensed persons. The harshness with which the monopolies were enforced, together with the fact that the chief monopolists were also profiting by patents for the control of alehouses and inns, and shamefully abusing their power, caused a storm of indignation which broke in the parliament of 1621. On February 19 Noy moved for an inquiry, and his proposal was seconded by Coke. A committee of the whole House investigated the patents for inns, and also those conferring monopolies. The king yielded to the storm, and Buckingham, on the advice of Dean Williams, declared he would not even protect his brother. Sir Giles Mompesson and Sir Francis Mitchell were accused by the Commons before the Lords (a measure usually regarded as the revival of the power of impeachment, though not technically such), and heavy penalties were imposed. Finally, in the parliament of 1624, an act was passed abolishing most of the monopolies. Some few, however, were specially retained as for the public advantage. A few years later Lord Treasurer Weston endeavoured to raise money by creating chartered companies, which escaped the act of 1624 by being open to all merchants who cared to pay certain fees. Much discontent was caused among those traders who were unable to join, and the grants were all revoked in 1639. [W. J. A.]

Monroe Doctrine, The, promulgated on December 3, 1823, by President James Monroe, was a declaration of United States policy towards both Europe and the continent of America, prompted by the political situation in Europe and the revolted Spanish-American colonies. During the forty years following the Declaration of Independence the prestige of the United States in America had grown, and with it a desire on the part of the United States government to watch and to safeguard the future of the New World. This double process received an impetus in the acquisition of Louisiana (1803) and Florida (1811). But the immediate cause of President Monroe's action was the danger of French, and to a less extent of Russian, interference in the New World, revealed in the Tsar Alexander I's ukase of 1821 and in the French invasion of Spain in April 1823. Great Britain was moved by an equally insistent fear of French and Russian designs, in Spain and in the Near East respectively. To combat the former, Castlereagh had already (1822) appointed consuls to the South American republics as a step towards recognition, resolved that a war between France and Spain should not result in French interference in the revolted Spanish colonies. This policy was continued by Canning, who interviewed Rush, the United States minister in London, in August and September 1823, and outlined the British attitude. Canning renounced any ulterior design of his own in Spanish America, declared that recognition of the republics could not be long delayed, and denounced any intervention in Spanish America by foreign powers. In the following month (October 3) he interviewed Polignac, the French ambassador, and secured a similar self-denying

ordinance on the part of France in the form of the "Polignac Memorandum." Canning, however, was not disposed to recognize the independence of the American States at once. And his unwillingness, combined with the fact that the Polignac Memorandum did not arrive at Washington before the close of the cabinet sittings on November 26, resulted in the proclamation by Monroe of the famous Doctrine on December 3.

The Doctrine, of which the authorship is attributed by modern scholars more to the foreign secretary, John Adams, than to the president, claimed the right of self-determination for the continent of America, together with separation from and equality with Europe. It declared that "the American continents, by the free and independent position which they have assumed and maintained, are henceforth not to be considered as future subjects for colonization by any European powers," and that the two continents were to preserve an attitude of non-interference towards each other. The Doctrine was denounced in France and Russia, but welcomed by Spanish America and by Great Britain, though Canning was chagrined that the United States had outstripped him in his policy of benevolence towards the new republics. Subsequent appeals were made to the Monroe Doctrine (which in time became extended in significance until it was regarded in Europe as militant and aggressive) in the Texas dispute of 1845, the Panama dispute of 1850, the Cuba question of 1853, and the Nicaragua question of 1895.

W. F. Reddaway, "Monroe Doctrine," 1898; W. P. Cresson, "The Holy Alliance: European Background of the Monroe Doctrine," 1922; A. B. Hart, "Monroe Doctrine," 1916; A. Alvarez, "Monroe Doctrine," 1924; H. W. V. Temperley, "Foreign Policy of Canning, 1822–7," 1925. [A. C. F. B.]

Montacute, John de, Earl of Salisbury (*d.* 1400), nephew of the 2nd earl, was one of Richard II's chief friends. He took part in the proceedings against Gloucester in 1397, and in 1400 joined the conspiracy against Henry IV. He was seized by the people at Cirencester, and beheaded without trial.

Montacute, William, 1st Earl of Salisbury, was, as Baron Montacute, one of Edward III's chief friends and advisers, and inspired and participated in the arrest of Mortimer (1330). For his services he was made Lord of Man, which he conquered between 1340 and 1342, and in 1337 Earl of Salisbury. He was admiral of the fleet and took a prominent part in the Scottish and French wars. He died in 1344.

Montagu, Charles, Earl of Halifax (1661–1715), was educated at Westminster and Cambridge. In 1687 he gained himself a wide reputation by the happy parody of the "Town and Country Mouse," written in conjunction with his friend Prior. In 1689 he entered the Convention Parliament for Maldon. The new king soon granted him a pension of £500 a year; and in 1691 he was appointed chairman of a committee of the House of Commons, and one of the commissioners of the treasury. He bore a prominent part in the debates for regulating the trials for treason. He took up Paterson's scheme for establishing a national bank, and hence may be regarded as one of the founders of the Bank of England (1694). In the same year he was appointed chancellor of the exchequer, and in the next was actively concerned in the measures taken to restore the currency, and became a privy councillor. It was at his suggestion that a window-tax was levied for the purposes of meeting the expenses incidental to the new coinage. In 1697 he was appointed first lord of the treasury, and in the next two years was one of the members of the regency during the king's absence. About the same time he was attacked in parliament, but was acquitted on all points, and even received the thanks of the House for his services. He now proposed to reorganize the East India Company by combining the new and the old companies (1698). After this time he began to lose his popularity; public feeling was against him, and even the men of letters, despite his patronage of the greatest literary characters of his day, were unsparing in abuse. Stung by this treatment he resigned the chancellorship of the exchequer, and fell back upon a very lucrative sinecure (the auditorship of the exchequer) which his brother had been nursing for him since the previous year. In 1701 he was called to the Upper House by the title of Lord Halifax; and the same year was impeached, though without success, for his share in the Partition Treaty of 1698. In 1714 he was made Earl of Halifax, and died the next year. Halifax's character was most mercilessly assailed by the writers of his time; and even Pope, who was but a boy when Montagu retired from the House of Commons, has attacked him in some of his bitterest and most pungent verses. Halifax is said to have been the Bufo of the "Epistle to Arbuthnot," where even his patronage of men of letters is turned into scorn, and the whole charge summed up with the couplet accusing him of neglecting Dryden when alive—

> "But still the great have kindness in reserve:—
> He helped to bury whom he helped to starve."

Montagu, Charles, Earl and 1st Duke of Manchester (1660?–1722), succeeded to his father's earldom in 1682. At the Revolution he joined the northern rising in favour of the Prince of Orange, and accompanied William III to Ireland. In 1697 he was sent as ambassador to Venice, and in the following year to Paris, where he was informed that Louis XIV had accepted the Spanish crown for his grandson. He sent news to William of the proclamation of James III as King of England, and was at once recalled. His correspondence at the time reveals feelings of despondency. He became secretary of state, but on the accession of Anne was dis-

missed from office. In 1707 he was again sent as ambassador to Venice, but was instructed to halt at Vienna in order to try to dissuade the emperor from sending troops to Naples. On the death of Anne he declared for the house of Hanover. He was created Duke of Manchester in 1719.

Montagu, Edward, 2nd Earl of Manchester (1602–71), eldest son of Henry, 1st earl, educated at Sidney Sussex College, Cambridge, accompanied Prince Charles to Spain, represented Huntingdonshire in the first two parliaments of Charles I, and was summoned to the Upper House in May 1626 as Baron Montagu of Kimbolton. He succeeded his father as Earl of Manchester, November 7, 1642. In 1640 Lord Kimbolton was one of the peers who urged Charles to call a parliament; he also acted as one of the commissioners to treat with the Scots, and his name was amongst those used by Lord Saville in the forged invitation to the Scots. In the Long Parliament he was one of the leaders of the Puritans in the House of Lords, and his importance was shown by his being the only peer joined with the five members impeached by the king. He raised a regiment and fought under Essex at Edgehill. In August 1643 Manchester was appointed serjeant-major-general of the Associated Counties (q.v.), in which capacity he reconquered Lincolnshire, and took part in the battle of Marston Moor. His subordinate, Cromwell, to whom most of these successes were due, blamed him for the slowness of his movements after that battle, and the little use he made of the victory. Manchester, with the army of the Association, was summoned south to oppose the king after his victory over Essex in Cornwall. But he showed at the second battle of Newbury, and after it, the same hesitation to make use of a success or an opportunity. Cromwell accused him to the House of Commons, and a lively quarrel took place. A committee of the Commons was appointed which heard witnesses, and collected evidence against the earl; but the charge was dropped when Manchester had been removed from command by the Self-denying Ordinance (q.v.). The earl remained, however, one of the Derby House Committee, and became Speaker of the House of Lords, and one of the keepers of the great seal. He also became chancellor of the University of Cambridge, and conducted the visitation and reform of that university. Manchester resisted the trial of the king and the foundation of the Commonwealth, refused to sit in Cromwell's House of Lords, and helped to bring about the Restoration. Charles II appointed him lord chamberlain in order to prove his reconciliation with the Presbyterians.

"Manchester's Quarrels with Cromwell" (Camden Society); "Camden Miscellany," vol. viii.

[C. H. F.]

Montagu, Edward, 1st Earl of Sandwich (1625–72), son of Sir Sidney Montagu, took the popular side in the Civil Wars, fought at Marston Moor, and commanded a regiment in the New Model (q.v.). In 1645 he entered the House of Commons as knight of the shire for Huntingdon, and acted with the Independents till 1648. In the years from 1648 to 1653 he took no part in political life, but in 1653 he was appointed one of the commissioners of the admiralty, and joined Blake in the command of the fleet. He was appointed to Cromwell's House of Lords in 1657. In 1659 he communicated with Charles II, and used his command of the fleet, charged to arbitrate between Denmark and Sweden, to forward the Restoration. For this service he was made Earl of Sandwich. In the first Dutch War he commanded a squadron at the battle off Lowestoft (June 3, 1665), and commanded at the attack on the Dutch fleet at Bergen (August). Obliged by attacks in parliament to give up the command of the fleet, he was appointed ambassador to Spain, and succeeded in 1668 in bringing about the treaty which secured the independence of Portugal. He was killed in the battle of Southwold Bay (May 28, 1672) (q.v.).

Biography by Frank R. Harris, 1912.

Montagu, John, 4th Earl of Sandwich (1718–92), early in life obtained public offices of importance. As plenipotentiary to the States-General he signed in 1748 the preliminaries of the Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle. He was made first lord of the admiralty on his return to England, and became so intimately connected with the Bedford faction that, when Pelham wished in 1751 to rid himself of that faction, he began by the dismissal of Lord Sandwich. During the next twelve years Lord Sandwich was out of office, and was much more congenially employed with the gay brotherhood of Medmenham, of which he was a conspicuous member. In 1763 he became first lord of the admiralty, and the same year was made one of the secretaries of state as a colleague of Lord Halifax. In this post he signalized himself by his violent denunciation of Wilkes, of whom he had but lately been a boon companion. This obtained for him the nickname of "Jemmy Twitcher." As the head of a department he was in his proper sphere, for his industry, as Walpole says, was so remarkable that the world mistook it for abilities. In 1765 he was guilty of using the meanest misrepresentation to the king in order to induce him to strike out the name of the Princess of Wales from the Regency Bill. The king was furiously indignant; and within two months dismissed the ministry. In 1768, when the Duke of Grafton made an alliance with the Bedford faction, Lord Sandwich "took over the salary and the patronage of the Post Office." He remained in that office until the Grafton ministry gave way to Lord North's administration, in which Sandwich returned to the admiralty. He failed signally both in the general conduct of business and in reducing the

revolted colonies. In April 1779 Fox attacked him fiercely. Narrowly escaping a direct vote of censure, Sandwich fell with Lord North in 1782, and thenceforth lived in retirement, unrespected and unloved.

"Life of Jemmy Twitcher," 1770 (?).

Montagu, John Neville, Marquis of (*d.* 1471). [Neville.]

Montague, Anthony Browne, 1st Viscount (1526–92). [Browne.]

Montfort, Almeric de, was the fourth (?) son of Simon de Montfort. Destined for holy orders he was appointed treasurer of York, but after his father's death was deprived of his office and fled abroad. He was supposed to have been privy to the Viterbo murder, but was cleared by a declaration of the whole University of Padua, where he had spent several years in study. He was taken prisoner by Edward I in 1276 while escorting his sister Eleanor to Wales, but in 1282, at the pope's intercession, he was released. He died in 1292 (?), the last male survivor of his family.

Montfort, Guy de, was the third (?) son of Simon de Montfort, and took part with his father in the Barons' War, commanding the van at the battle of Lewes. Wounded and captured at the battle of Evesham, he escaped to France and thence to Italy, where in 1271 he murdered Henry of Almayne at Viterbo. For this he was excommunicated (1273), but was eventually pardoned, and fought in the papal army. In 1287 he was taken prisoner by the Sicilians, and ended his days in prison (1288 ?).

Montfort, Henry de (*d.* 1265), was the eldest son of Simon de Montfort. He took part with his father in his opposition to Henry III, and with his brother Guy commanded the van of the baronial army at Lewes, and, after the victory, took charge of Prince Edward. The irresponsible conduct of Henry and his brothers during the period between the battles of Lewes and Evesham was one of the chief causes of their father's fate. Henry was killed at the battle of Evesham.

Montfort, Simon de (1208 ?–65). The marriage of Simon, lord of Montfort and Evreux, with the sister and co-heiress of the Earl of Leicester, in the reign of Henry II, was the origin of the connexion of the Montforts with England. Their second son, Simon, the leader of the Albigensian crusade, to whom fell the title and half the estates of the earldom of Leicester, married Alice de Montmorency, and of this marriage, Simon, the great Earl of Leicester, was apparently the fourth and youngest son. His father seems never to have enjoyed the actual possession of his English estates, and died in 1218 leaving to his sons—of whom only two, Almeric or Amaury, and Simon, survived—nothing more than his ancestral territories and his claims in England. Amaury resigned his rights to his younger brother, who came to England in 1230 to try his fortune. He was favourably received by Henry III, and in 1231 obtained seisin to his lands. In 1238, to the intense indignation of the baronage, he was secretly married to the king's sister, Eleanor, widow of William Marshal. Next year he was formally invested with the earldom of Leicester, and soon after acted as godfather at Prince Edward's christening. Up to this date there had been nothing to distinguish de Montfort from the crowd of foreign adventurers who haunted the court of Henry III. In 1239, however, the first signs of a breach between the king and Leicester became apparent. A dispute occurred over a debt for which the earl vouched Henry as his surety, and Henry, after loading his erstwhile friend with abuse, ordered him from his presence. De Montfort escaped with his wife to France, cheered in his exile by a letter from Bishop Grosseteste of Lincoln, whom he had made his friend. In less than a year the king was reconciled, but Simon was glad to take refuge from the annoyances of the English court in the excitement of a crusade (1240–1). In Palestine he could do little, though his ability so impressed the barons of the kingdom of Jerusalem that they begged the emperor to appoint him governor of the land. In 1242–3 Henry's miserable campaign in Poitou engaged him. For the next five years no incident of importance is recorded in connexion with his career, although he appears on several occasions to have mediated between the Crown and the baronage. In 1248 he was appointed by the king lieutenant of Gascony. Into the details of his five years' administration it is not necessary to enter. There can be no doubt that he acted occasionally with ill-timed severity, and that the pleasure which a strong man has in the sense of mastery led him sometimes into indiscretions; but it is clear that his administration was on the whole successful, and that he was sadly handicapped by the vacillation and bad faith of the king. He returned to England in 1254, his grievances unforgotten, and on the meeting of the Mad Parliament in 1258 he definitely emerged as the king's opponent. From this time to his death he was the foremost figure in the opposition; and it was during this period that he made so powerful an impression upon the popular mind by his political measures and personal qualities. He was, with the Earl of Gloucester, one of the twenty-four who drew up the Provisions of Oxford (q.v.), and a member of the permanent council of fifteen; and in 1259 he took a prominent part in the negotiation of the Peace of Paris with Louis IX of France. In that same year, however, he quarrelled with Gloucester, with whose narrowly oligarchical ideas he had little sympathy, and associated himself with Prince Edward and the lesser tenants-in-chief in the demand for further reform which bore fruit in the Pro-

visions of Westminster. In 1261 Henry's reconciliation with Edward, and his repudiation of the Provisions of Oxford, drove de Montfort and Gloucester once more to concerted action; and, in the hope of enlisting more general support, they summoned three knights from every shire to attend an assembly at St. Albans. Their alliance proved short-lived, and in December de Montfort crossed to France, leaving Gloucester master of the situation. His return early next year was shortly followed by the death of his rival, whose successor, the young Earl Gilbert, was Simon's devoted follower. This accession to the baronial cause was, however, neutralized by the success of Edward in building up a royal party, and in 1263 both sides agreed to submit to the arbitration of St. Louis. But the Mise of Amiens (q.v.) was too one-sided to be accepted by the barons, and de Montfort determined to appeal to arms. His victory at Lewes in 1264 gave both the king and Prince Edward into his hands, and in the Mise of Lewes (q.v.) a new settlement of the realm was drawn up. A council of nine persons was elected by the Earls of Leicester and Gloucester and the Bishop of Worcester, to control the administration; but the real power was vested in de Montfort alone. To win support for the new government, he convened the famous parliament of January 1265, to which were summoned not only knights of the shire, but also representatives of certain selected cities and boroughs. The assembly did not, however, achieve its purpose. The old cleavage in the baronial ranks reappeared. Earl Gilbert, following the example set by his father, broke with de Montfort at the crisis of his fortunes. He fled to his estates on the Welsh Marches, where he was joined in May 1265 by Edward, who had succeeded in escaping from his custodians at Hereford. De Montfort's army was caught and overwhelmed by the royal forces at Evesham; and the great earl himself was among the slain (August 4 1265).

Simon long enjoyed the reputation of being the creator of the English House of Commons, but modern research has demonstrated the futility of this view. There were abundant precedents for the addition of a popular element of one type or another to the baronial parliaments of the thirteenth century. What was new was the combination of the two types of representative, from borough and from shire, in a simple assembly, and for a specifically political purpose. Even so, the gulf dividing the parliament of de Montfort from the parliaments of the Edwardian period was a wide one. De Montfort's assembly was merely the isolated experiment of a baronial leader. It remained for his rival and disciple Edward to establish the popular element in our parliament on a permanent basis. "The true successor of the martyred earl was the future Edward I."

Biographies and studies by C. Bémont, 1884; G. W. Prothero, 1877; M. Creighton, 1895; S. Batsford, 1923; É. F. Jacob. [W. J. A.] [H. M. C.]

Montfort, Simon de (*d.* 1271), second son of Simon de Montfort, first distinguished himself in the year 1264 by defending Northampton against the royalists. He was, however, defeated, taken prisoner, and his life only saved by the personal intervention of Prince Edward. He was not released till after the battle of Lewes, when he was appointed by his father warden of Surrey and Sussex. After the battle of Evesham he held out in the castle of Kenilworth, and through his intercession the lives of the King of the Romans and his son, who were in his custody, were spared. After the surrender of the castle he escaped to France, whence he moved to Italy. There, in conjunction with his brother Guy, he murdered Henry of Almayne, at Viterbo (1271). For this crime he was excommunicated, and shortly afterwards died.

Montrose, James Graham, 5th Earl of (1612–50). [Graham.]

Montserrat, one of the Leeward Islands presidencies discovered and named by Columbus in 1493 after a mountain in Spain, was colonized from St. Kitt's in 1632, mainly by Roman Catholics, captured by the French and recaptured in 1667, and restored to Great Britain by the Peace of Breda. It capitulated to France in 1782, but was restored again to Great Britain next year by the Peace of Versailles. It is governed by a governor assisted by a nominated legislative council of three ex-officio and three unofficial members, and sends representatives to the legislative council of the Leeward Islands.

Moodkee, The Battle of (December 18, 1845), was fought during the Sikh War. After a fatiguing march of twenty-one miles over an arid plain Sir Hugh Gough found himself face to face with the army of Lal Singh. He was taken completely by surprise. The enemy's horse endeavoured to outflank him, but were repulsed. In this first conflict between the British and the Khalsa soldiers the superiority of the latter in discipline and musketry was very apparent. The commander-in-chief had himself to rally a flying native regiment, and in the confusion one British regiment fired into another. Lal Singh was the first to fly, with his cavalry, and he was at length followed by the infantry, who withdrew under cover of night, leaving 17 guns in the hands of the victors. The British loss amounted to 872 killed and wounded.

J. D. Cunningham, "Sikhs," 1849 and 1918.

Moore, Sir John (1761–1809), was the son of a Glasgow physician. His education was acquired chiefly on the continent, till in 1776 he entered the army. Two years later he was ordered to Nova Scotia, where he remained almost inactive during the American War. On the conclusion of peace in 1783 he was placed on half pay, and was returned to parliament in 1784 for the group of Selkirk burghs In 1790 he became lieutenant-colonel of the 51s.

Regiment. Four years later he saw almost his first active service at the siege of Calvi, in Corsica, where he led the storming party of grenadiers into the chief fort. He was appointed adjutant-general of the island, but he soon gave up the post, and, returning to England, was ordered to the West Indies under Sir Ralph Abercromby. In the expedition against St. Lucia he distinguished himself by his courage and energy, and was rewarded by being appointed governor of the island. In this position his continuous exertions, combined with the malarious character of the climate, twice disabled him, and in the summer of 1797 he returned to England with Abercromby, whom he followed to Ireland. He was engaged against the rebels at New Ross and defeated them at Wexford. In 1799 he was sent to Holland, whence he returned severely wounded. In 1800 he was again employed under Abercromby in the expedition to Egypt. At the landing of the troops Moore signalized himself by his prompt decision in bringing up the reserves at the crisis of the battle, and so gaining the victory. At Aboukir he was again conspicuous, and again wounded. While the Peace of Amiens lasted, he remained at home on staff employment, but on the renewal of the war was placed as second in command of the troops in the Mediterranean. In 1808 he was sent to Sweden in command of 10,000 men to help the king. Some difference occurring between them, Moore was placed under arrest, and on freeing himself he returned at once with his troops to England. He had no sooner arrived than he was sent off to the Peninsula to act under Burrard and Dalrymple; but on their recall after the Convention of Cintra (q.v.) he was appointed to the command in chief (October 6, 1808). At last he had an opportunity of displaying his great military talents, and he did not throw the chance away. He advanced into Spain, but was compelled to retreat to Corunna (q.v.) under terrible difficulties, before Soult. On January 16, 1809, he won a great victory at Corunna, and covered the embarkation of his army, but was himself killed in the action.

Sir C. Oman, "Peninsular War," 1902–20; biographies by J. C. Moore, 1835, and Lady Brownrigg, 1923; Moore's "Diary," ed. Sir. F. Maurice, 1904; J. H. Anderson, "Spanish Campaign of Sir John Moore," 1905.

Moray, James Stewart, Earl of (1531 ?–1570). [Stewart.]

Mordaunt, Charles, 3rd Earl of Peterborough (1658–1735), succeeded to his father's estates in 1675. In his youth he served under Admirals Torrington and Marlborough in the Mediterranean. For his bold opposition to the designs of James II he was compelled to betake himself to The Hague, where he strongly recommended the Prince of Orange to invade England. When William had landed at Torbay, Mordaunt went on before him, and occupied Exeter. He became first commissioner of the treasury, a post to which he was unsuited, and in which he quarrelled with Godolphin, who was an excellent financier. He was created Earl of Monmouth (April 1689). In 1690 Carmarthen procured his retirement from office. In 1696 he attempted to ruin his opponents by the help of Sir John Fenwick's confessions. But the attempt failed, and Monmouth, now hated by both parties, was stripped of his employments. In 1697 he succeeded to his uncle's fortunes and earldom. On the accession of Anne he was offered and refused the command of the forces in the West Indies. In 1705 he was sent to command in Spain. He captured the fortresses of Montjuich, and Barcelona fell. Though he had but a handful of men, he at once pushed on to relieve San Mattheo, whence he drove the Spanish army before him into Valencia. From Valencia he set out in the night and defeated a reinforcement of 4,000 men. A French army under Marshal Tessé, and a fleet under the Count of Toulouse, were sent to blockade Barcelona. He ultimately succeeded in raising the siege, but he quarrelled with the Archduke Charles, who disapproved of his design of marching at once on Madrid. Unable to endure a command divided between himself and Galway, he left the army for Genoa. In 1707 he returned as a volunteer; but Sunderland, a warm supporter of Galway, roughly recalled him. He visited Vienna, the camp of Charles XII at Alt-Rastadt, and that of Marlborough in Flanders. In 1711 he was sent to Vienna in order to reconcile the emperor and the Duke of Savoy. In 1714 he was made governor of Minorca. On the accession of George I he was made general of the marine forces of Great Britain, an office continued under George II. In 1717 he was suddenly arrested at Bologna on the groundless charge of plotting against the Pretender's life. In 1719 he conducted, on his own responsibility, an intrigue with the French court through the Duke of Parma, uncle of the Queen of Spain, which resulted in the dismissal of the minister Alberoni. He died on October 25, 1735, at Lisbon.

Biography by W. Stebbing, 1889.

More, Sir Thomas (1478–1535), was the son of Sir John More, a judge of the King's Bench. At an early age he entered the household of Cardinal Morton. About 1492 he went to Oxford, and in 1496 entered Lincoln's Inn; already before this time he had become acquainted with Erasmus and other eminent scholars. In 1504 he entered the House of Commons, and speedily became a prominent member of what may be called the popular party, opposing Henry VII's demand for subsidies. In 1510 he became under-sheriff of London. In 1514 and 1515 he was employed as envoy to the Low Countries, and soon after he was made a member of the privy council, and in 1521 knighted. He became closely attached to Henry VIII, and assisted the king in his book against Luther. In 1523 he was

appointed Speaker of the House of Commons at Wolsey's request, but he nevertheless opposed the grant which the cardinal tried to obtain from the House. He was reconciled to Wolsey, however, and in 1527 accompanied him on a mission to France. In 1525 he had been made chancellor of the duchy of Lancaster, and in October 1529 he became lord chancellor on the fall of Wolsey. Conspicuous as he had been all his life as one of the party of Church reform, More was altogether opposed to the assumption of supremacy by Henry VIII. In May 1532 he resigned the seals, and in 1534 (April 17) was sent to the Tower. He declined to take the oath of supremacy, and was indicted for misprision of treason, November 1534, convicted on the evidence of an alleged conversation in prison with Rich, and beheaded July 5, 1535. More's noble and beautiful character was acknowledged by all his contemporaries. As the most distinguished of the English exponents of the "New Learning," he has an interest beyond that of his historical position. In addition to a "History of Richard III," and other works, he wrote the "Utopia" (1515–16), one of the most remarkable political romances in any language.

Roper, "Life of More," 1626; Seebohm, "The Oxford Reformers," 1867; biographies by W. H. Hutton, 1895, and G. R. Potter, 1925; A. Manning, "The Household of Sir Thomas More," 1905; G. Sampson, "The Utopia of Sir Thomas More," 1910.

Morgan, Sir Henry (1635 ?–88), one of the chief buccaneers of Jamaica, was frequently employed by Charles II to harass the shipping of the Spaniards in the West Indies. In 1670 he plundered and burnt Panama, and as a reward was created a knight, and governor of Jamaica. [Buccaneers.]

C. H. Haring, "The Buccaneers in the West Indies," 1910.

Morgan, Thomas (1543–1606 ?), a Welshman, and a devoted adherent of the Queen of Scots, was imprisoned on a charge of complicity in the Ridolfi conspiracy (1572) (q.v.). On his release he went abroad, and became Mary's chief agent in corresponding with her friends. He was declared by Dr. Parry to have instigated him to assassinate Elizabeth, and his arrest was accordingly demanded from Henry III of France, but refused. In 1585 he formed a fresh plot against the life of the queen, and was implicated in the Babington conspiracy (q.v.).

W. Ll. Williams, "Making of Modern Wales," 1919.

Morice, James (*d.* 1596), attorney of the Court of Wards, moved in the parliament of 1593 that the abuses of the bishops' courts should be reformed. On this the queen forbade the House to consider "any bill touching matters of state or reformation in causes ecclesiastical," and Morice himself was kept in confinement for some years.

Morice, Sir William (1602–76), played an important part in the Restoration. He was the first person to whom Monck entrusted the secret of his design to restore Charles II, and he was used as a go-between by Monck and Sir John Grenville, who was sent over to Charles.

Morley, John, Viscount Morley of Blackburn (1838–1923), was born at Blackburn. After acquiring great distinction as a man of letters and a journalist, he entered parliament in 1883. In 1886 he became secretary for Ireland in the first Home Rule ministry, and held the same office from 1892 to 1895. In 1898, with Sir William Harcourt, he resigned the duty of "leading the councils of the Liberal party," but in 1905 he took office as secretary of state for India. He was created a viscount in 1908. In 1910 he became lord president of the council, but on the outbreak of the Great War he retired into private life.

Mortimer, The Family of (from Mortemer-en-Brai in Normandy), was founded by Ralph I, who received from the Conqueror many of the forfeited estates of Earl Roger of Hereford, among them being the township and castle of Wigmore, henceforward the centre of the Mortimer power. The family became one of the most important in the middle Marches of Wales; but attained the height of its political influence in the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries.

Mortimer, Anne, sister and heiress of Edmund Mortimer, 5th Earl of March, married Richard, Earl of Cambridge, younger son of Edmund of Langley, Duke of York, fifth son of Edward III. The offspring of this marriage was Richard, Duke of York (q.v.), who, as a result of the death without heirs of both his paternal uncle Edmund, Duke of York (1415), and his maternal uncle Edmund, Earl of March (1424), united the claim to the throne of the houses of York and Mortimer. [York, House of.]

Mortimer, Edmund, 3rd Earl of March, and 1st Earl of Ulster (*d.* 1381), son of Roger, 2nd Earl of March, married Philippa, daughter and heiress of Lionel, Duke of Clarence, third son of Edward III. In his own and her right he inherited great estates in Wales and on the Welsh border and in Ireland, of which latter country he was appointed lieutenant in 1379.

Mortimer, Edmund, 5th Earl of March and Ulster (1391–1425), son of Roger Mortimer, 4th Earl of March, was the heir to the throne on the abdication of Richard II, but was superseded by Henry Bolingbroke, son of John of Gaunt, the fourth son of Edward III. His claims were unsuccessfully advanced by the Earl of Northumberland and Archbishop Scrope in 1405, and again by Richard of Cambridge in 1415. Mortimer, however, remained loyal to Henry V, and fought in the French wars. In 1423 he was appointed lieutenant of Ireland. He married Anne, daughter of the Earl of Stafford, and died of the plague at Trim in 1425, leaving no issue.

Mortimer, Roger, 8th Baron of Wigmore and 1st Earl of March, (1287 ?–1330), was a ward of Piers Gaveston (q.v.) and held many important offices in the reign of Edward II. By his marriage with Joan de Geneville he acquired vast new Irish and Welsh estates, and in 1316 was appointed lieutenant of Ireland. In the baronial conflict he appears at first to have attached himself to the middle party under the Earl of Pembroke, but later private rivalries induced him to take up arms against the king and the Despensers. Submitting in 1322, he was condemned to perpetual imprisonment, but in 1324 he escaped and fled to France. In 1325 Queen Isabella being sent over to the French court, Mortimer formed an intrigue with her, and in the next year accompanied her and the young Prince Edward to England. The king fled, but was captured and subsequently deposed (January 1327) in favour of his son. For the next four years the queen and Mortimer reigned supreme. All attempts to upset or curtail their power were defeated; the Earl of Lancaster, who endeavoured to overthrow the favourite, was compelled to submit in 1329, and next year the king's uncle, Edmund, Earl of Kent, was implicated in a plot to restore Edward II, of whose survival he had been persuaded, and was executed for treason. In the meantime offices and emoluments of all kinds had been showered upon Mortimer, whose barony had in 1328 been raised to an earldom bearing the title of March. In 1330, however, his triumphant career was abruptly checked. In October the young king, determined to escape from his humiliating subjection to Isabella and her lover, surprised and captured the earl at Nottingham Castle. Mortimer was carried to London, arraigned before parliament as a traitor and murderer, and finally hanged at Tyburn like a common malefactor. His estates and honours were forfeited to the Crown, but in 1354 the attainder was reversed in favour of his grandson Roger, who thus became the 2nd Earl of March.

Mortimer, Roger, 4th Earl of March and Ulster (*d.* 1398), son of Edmund Mortimer, 3rd Earl of March, married Eleanor, daughter of Thomas Holland, Earl of Kent, the half-brother of Richard II. In 1385 he was declared heir-presumptive to the throne of England by Richard. He was appointed lieutenant of Ireland, where he was killed in a skirmish at Kells (1398).

Mortimer's Cross, The Battle of (1461), was fought between Edward, Duke of York (Edward IV), and the Lancastrians, under the Earl of Pembroke. In 1460, while Richard, Duke of York, marched to the north against Queen Margaret, Edward was dispatched to raise forces in the Welsh Marches. With these troops he marched to Shrewsbury, where news reached him of his father's defeat and death at Wakefield (q.v.), and he prepared to march against Queen Margaret, when he learnt that the Earls of Wiltshire and Pembroke had assembled a large army of Welsh and Irish in order to attack him. Accordingly he turned upon them, and at Mortimer's Cross, in Herefordshire, between Leominster and Wigmore, totally routed them. Pembroke and Wiltshire escaped, but Owen Tudor was captured and beheaded. Edward then proceeded with his army to join the Earl of Warwick, who had just been defeated by the Lancastrians at the second battle of St. Albans. They effected a junction at Chipping Norton (or Burford) in Oxfordshire, and, with their united armies, marched towards London, where Edward was proclaimed king.

R. B. Mowat, "Wars of the Roses," 1914.

Mortmain. The abuse which the Statute of Mortmain (*De Religiosis*) (November 15, 1279) was designed to remedy was by no means one of late origin at the time of the passing of this act. Five hundred and fifty years earlier Bæda had complained of the way in which pretended monks secured to themselves large grants of the public land, and on their produce, which ought to have supported the king's warriors, lived a life of ease and debauchery. But however great this evil may have been in the intervening centuries, it does not seem to have called for legal interference till the beginning of the thirteenth century. By chapter 36 of Magna Carta as reissued in 1217 and 1225 it was ordained that it should not for the future be lawful for anyone to give his land to a religious house and to take the same land again to hold of that house. The object of this enactment was to prevent any more of the land from passing into the hands of the Church, and so ceasing to owe military service to the king, while at the same time the overlord lost all prospects of such valuable incidents as wardship, marriage, and relief, and all chance of ever recovering an estate so alienated by escheat; for by feudal law on the failure of the heirs of the grantee lands lapsed back to the grantor, and of course there could be no failure of heirs when lands were held by a corporation such as an abbey or church. At the famous Oxford Parliament of 1258 the petitions of the barons included a request that henceforward no men of religion should enter into any man's fee without the licence of the chief lord; and the Provisions of Westminster in the next year embodied a clause to that effect. But this may well have been treated as a dead letter, for it was not re-enacted in the Statute of Marlborough (1267). Edward I, the whole bent of whose mind seems to have been towards definiteness and order, soon saw with disgust how much of the land was steadily freeing itself from the duty of military service, and securing itself against ever lapsing into the royal hands. To remedy this defect he issued the famous Statute of Mortmain, or "Statutum de Religiosis" (1279). This enactment forbids "any

person whatsoever, religious or other, to buy or sell, or under colour of any gift, term, or other title, to receive from anyone any lands or tenements in such a way that such lands and tenements should come into *mort main*." The penalty affixed to breaking this enactment was forfeiture to the next superior lord, and if he failed to insist on this forfeiture within a year, the right lapsed to *his* overlord, and so on to the king. But it was not long before a way was found of evading, by means of the system of "common recoveries," even this law, and some six years later a clause (c. 32) was included in the Statute of Westminster II to check this new abuse. As might be expected, the great body of the clergy strongly disapproved of the king's measures. In 1294, when Edward demanded half their revenue for the year, they offered to grant it only if he would repeal the statute "De Religiosis," but this Edward was by no means prepared to do. We must not, however, suppose that all gifts of landed property to ecclesiastical foundations were cut short by the Statute of Mortmain. The system of "Uses," whereby land was granted not to religious houses directly, but to feoffees *to their use*, afforded a new means of evading the statute, while another device was to bring land into the possession of the Church under the pretence of purchasing it as a burial-ground. Both these expedients were forbidden by a new Statute of Mortmain under Richard II (1391), a statute which at the same time specially declares the provisions and penalties of Edward's act to extend to gilds and fraternities, and even to the "Mayors, Bailiffs, and Commons of Cities, Boroughs, and other Towns, which have a perpetual Commonalty," and so could hold land in perpetuity without any chance of its lapsing. During all this time, however, it was in the power of the Crown, by granting a *licence in mortmain*, to suspend the operation of the statute so far as its own rights were concerned; and "the kings never withheld their licence from the endowment of any valuable new foundation."

Of later acts dealing with the alienation of land in mortmain, we may notice 7 & 8 Will. III, c. 37, which (the rights of mesne lords having by now been reduced within a very small compass) empowered the king "to grant any person or persons, corporate or not, licence to alien in mortmain without rendering the lands liable to forfeiture." Again, statute 9, George II, c. 36, specified the conditions under which alone lands, etc., could be devised for charitable purposes. Oxford and Cambridge, Eton, Winchester, and Westminster were excepted from the operation of this act, and by 5 Geo. IV the British Museum was likewise excepted from the Statutes of Mortmain, as other religious, educational, and charitable bodies have been since. The present law on the subject is chiefly contained in the Mortmain and Charitable Uses Acts of 1888 and 1891; of which the latter provides that land may be left by will to charitable uses, but (with certain exceptions) must be sold within a year after the testator's death.

Mortmain (Lat. *mortua*, dead; *manus*, hand) has been defined as such a state of possession as makes property inalienable; whence it is said to be in a *dead hand*, in a hand that cannot shift away the property. In the statute of 1279 and later the phrase runs "per quod terre deveniant ad manum mortuam;" and the French equivalent is "devenir à mortmayn."

Sir L. Stephen, "Commentaries on the Laws of England," 18th edn., vol. ii.

Morton, John, Cardinal (1420–1500), studied at Balliol College, Oxford. In 1474 he was appointed archdeacon of Winchester, and in 1479 was made Bishop of Ely and chancellor by Edward IV. He was regarded with suspicion by Richard III, and given into the custody of the Duke of Buckingham. He escaped to Henry Tudor, on the continent, and became one of his chief advisers. When Henry came to the throne Morton became one of the privy council, and, on the death of Bourchier in 1486, Archbishop of Canterbury; and next year he again became chancellor. In 1493 he was created a cardinal. During the remainder of his life he was Henry VII's chief minister, and incurred much of the odium of the king's measures. But he seems to have been a wise and enlightened prelate, and a friend to learning and education.

Biography by R. I. Woodhouse, 1895.

Morton, James Douglas, 4th Earl of (1525?–81). [Douglas.]

Morville, Hugh de, one of the murderers of Becket (q.v.), had been attached to the court from the accession of Henry II, under whom he acted as an itinerant justice. After the murder he fled to his castle of Knaresborough, and is said to have undertaken a pilgrimage to Jerusalem in expiation of his crime. He appears soon to have regained the royal favour, and survived until the reign of John, dying in 1204.

Mountjoy, Charles Blount, 8th Baron (1563–1606). [Blount.]

Mountjoy, William Stewart, Viscount (1653–92). [Stewart.]

Mowbray, Thomas, Duke of Norfolk (*d.* 1399), was the son of John Mowbray and Elizabeth, granddaughter and heiress of Thomas of Brotherton, Earl of Norfolk. He was created Earl of Nottingham in 1383 and earl marshal in 1386. He was one of the lords appellant of 1387, but afterwards joined the king and helped to execute his father-in-law, the Earl of Arundel (1397). He was governor of Calais, and to his charge Gloucester was entrusted in the same year. There the latter died, probably, but not certainly, murdered by Mowbray, who in the same year was created Duke of Norfolk. In 1398 he quarrelled with the Duke of Hereford, and

each accused the other of treason. It was decided that the matter should be fought out at Coventry, on September 16, but before the duel commenced the king stopped the proceedings and banished both the combatants, Norfolk for life, and Hereford for six years. Norfolk set out on a pilgrimage to Jerusalem, but died at Venice, September 1399.

Mowbray, Thomas, Earl of Nottingham (*d.* 1405), was the son of Thomas Mowbray, Duke of Norfolk, the adversary of Henry Bolingbroke. In 1399, on Henry IV's accession to the throne, he was a page in the household of Richard II's queen, Isabella. He was not allowed to assume the title of Duke of Norfolk, and the office of marshal, which had been hereditary in his family, was granted away to the Earl of Westmorland. In 1405, a dispute with the Earl of Warwick being decided against him, Mowbray left the court in chagrin, and joined Scrope and others in a conspiracy against Henry IV. Through the treachery of Westmorland he was seized and beheaded.

Mulgrave, Edmund Sheffield, 1st Earl of (1564?–1646). [Sheffield.]

Mulraj, Insurrection of (1848). Mulraj, the governor of Multan, a strong fort in the Punjab, was the son of Sawan Mull, whom he succeeded in 1844. In March 1848, after some differences with the durbar, he offered to resign the fort and government. This was accepted, and Khan Singh was sent to assume the government, accompanied by Vans Agnew, as political agent, and an escort of 350 Sikh troops. On the morning of April 19 there was a stormy interview with Mulraj, who was ordered to produce the accounts of the last six years. On the 20th an attempt was made to assassinate Agnew. On the 21st a brisk fire was opened on the encampment from the citadel. The Sikh escort proved treacherous, and deserted to the enemy; a crew of howling savages rushed in and murdered Agnew and his companion, Lieutenant Anderson, with the greatest brutality. On the 22nd Mulraj issued a proclamation of a religious war against the British. Lieutenant Edwardes, who was employed in the revenue settlement at Bunnoo, across the Indus, without waiting for orders, crossed the river with 1,200 infantry, 350 horse, and two guns. The Nawab of Bhawulpur was requested by the resident to advance. Lieutenant Edwardes joined him at Kineyri. Timely reinforcements enabled him to win the battles of Kineyri and Sadusam and to shut Mulraj up in Multan, when the outbreak of Shere Singh (q.v.) merged these operations in the second Sikh War.

Multan, Siege of (1848), was begun in July 1848 by Lieutenant Edwardes with a British force, supported by one troop of the friendly Nawab of Bhawulpur. The investment continued till September 12, when the town was ineffectually bombarded. The siege was raised September 22. General Whish, with 17,000 men and 64 heavy guns, reopened the siege (December 27), and pushed it with great vigour. On January 2, 1849, the town was carried by assault. The siege of the citadel was now pushed on. After a continuous fire from the British batteries for several days, Mulraj (q.v.) endeavoured to treat, but was informed that no terms would be granted short of unconditional surrender. He therefore continued to defend the fort till his garrison insisted on surrender or an attempt to cut their way out. On January 22 he surrendered and the fort was placed in charge of Lieutenant Edwardes.

Municipal Corporations Act, The (1835), put an end to the uncertainty in which the legal status of the offices and practices of many municipalities had been veiled since the confiscation of municipal charters by Charles II and James II. The act "provided a uniform constitution for all boroughs to which it applied, based on the model of the best municipal corporations." It established a council composed of (*a*) a mayor elected annually by the council from among the aldermen and councillors, (*b*) councillors (the number fixed at the time of incorporation) elected for three years by all ratepaying residents of both sexes, a third of the councillors retiring annually, (*c*) aldermen appointed by the councillors for six years, one-third retiring triennially by rotation and the total number one-third the number of councillors. (The Municipal Corporations Act of 1882 made these provisions compulsory.) The act also abolished the judicial authority of the aldermen and the elected justices of the peace.

D. J. Medley, "Constitutional History," 6th edn., 1925; S. and B. Webb, "English Local Government, Manor and Borough," part ii, 1908; Redlich and Hirst, "Local Government in England," 1903.

Munro, Sir Thomas (1761–1827), entered the military service of the East India Company in 1780. He was present at the first march on Seringapatam and the battle of Arikera, and subsequently took part in the more successful march of 1792. In 1799 he was included in the commission appointed to complete the organization of Mysore after the fall of the Mohammedan dynasty. In 1813, having seen the disadvantages of the zemindary system of land settlement in Bengal and Mysore, he instituted the ryotwary system. From 1819 until his death he was governor of Madras.

Biography by J. Bradshaw, 1894.

Munster, The Kingdom and Province of. The Irish legends represent Munster as having been divided between the Milesian chiefs Eber and his brother Lugaid, of whom the former prevailed, and drove the latter into the south-western corner. The tribes of Eber were in turn subdued by the tribe of Degaid, but the former, under the famous Mogh of Munster, having recovered their strength, drove out the Degaidian tribe. Mogh further defeated the *ard ri*, or over-king, Conn "of the

hundred battles," and compelled him to consent to a division of Ireland, by which the former received the southern part, Loth Moga or Mogh's half (c. A.D. 130). Munster now comprised the modern counties of Tipperary, Waterford, Cork, Kerry, Limerick, part of Kilkenny, and Clare, which had originally belonged to Connacht. It was divided into the districts of Thomond, Desmond, and Ormonde. The kings of these districts formed a confederacy under the King of Cashel, who, according to the old Irish custom, was chosen alternately from the Eoghanacts (afterwards the O'Donovans and the MacCarthys) of Desmond, and the Dalcassans (the O'Briens) of Thomond. It seems certain that Munster was partially converted to Christianity before the arrival of St. Patrick in 433, but even after the coming of that saint it would seem, from the fact that Queen Ethne the Terrible was still a heathen, that the new faith gained ground but slowly. The Munster kings were throughout this period the rivals of the high-kings of the Hui-Neill dynasty, and disputed the supremacy of Ireland with them, often not without success. They seized the opportunity of the Scandinavian invasions (795–1014) to revive their claim to the over-kingship, and unpatriotically ravaged the territories of the Hui-Neills. Towards the end of the ninth century, however, there began an interval of comparative peace throughout Ireland which lasted for forty years. During this time Cormac MacCullinan, the king-bishop of Cashel, is a prominent figure in Irish history, one of his feats being the defeat of the joint forces of the King of Connacht and of Flann, the *ard ri*, in battle. Later the famous Brian Boru made Munster as powerful as it had been in the days of the legendary Mogh, and seized the kingship of Tara from Maelsechlain II himself. Brian's name and fame practically entailed the high-kingship to his descendants for the next century and it was not till the death of Murchertach O'Brien in 1119 that "kings with opposition" began. After the Anglo-Norman invasion the kings and chiefs of Munster, headed by MacCarthy of Desmond, 'came in" readily to Henry I and surrendered their strongholds. The English king retained the cities of Cork and Limerick for himself, but gave the greater part of Cork county to Fitz-Stephen and de Cogan, while Limerick went to de Braose, and Waterford to de la Poer. Their families were, however, speedily supplanted by the Munster Fitzgeralds, who founded the Desmond line together with the younger branches of the Knights of Kerry and the Knights of Glyn. The Fitzgeralds, after a prolonged struggle with the MacCarthys and O'Briens, intermarried with them, and established a generally recognized authority. Ormonde, or East Munster, was occupied by the Butlers, who spread thence over Kilkenny and Tipperary. During the invasion of Ireland by Edward Bruce (1315) the Geraldines and Butlers suffered severely at the hands of the O'Briens, and Edward III, in order to strengthen their power, created the great earldoms of Desmond and Ormonde. These two houses were weakened further by the Wars of the Roses; the Butlers, moreover, becoming involved in a deadly feud with the Kildares, which lasted for generations. Through these dissensions the O'Briens and MacCarthys again obtained power, though the cautious policy of the Tudors kept them under. Thomond became county Clare, and was added to Connacht. In the reign of Elizabeth occurred the Desmond rebellions. Wishing to put a stop to the anarchy in Desmond, Elizabeth and her governor, Sir Henry Sidney, in 1564, determined to colonize Munster with gentlemen from the west of England, headed by Sir Peter Carew, who claimed the old Fitz-Stephen estates. However, the barbarities of Sir Peter Carew soon drove the whole country into a wild and bloody rebellion, the MacCarthys, and even Ormonde's brothers, joining the Desmonds in the revolt, which was led by Sir Maurice Fitzgerald, a cousin of the earl. Ormonde, however, pacified his brothers, and Sir Henry Sidney crushed the rebels, being succeeded after his recall by Sir John Perrot (1570), who, through the most brutal measures, succeeded in reducing the district to order. Munster became an English presidency. The English government was, however, exhausted by the effort, and thought it necessary to have recourse to the most terrible severity, Sir William Drury hanging four hundred persons in one year. Thereupon the second Desmond rebellion broke out (1579), which, however, was broken without much difficulty by the loyal Duke of Ormonde. The estates of the Fitzgeralds and their allies were confiscated and granted to English adventurers. In 1598 James Fitzthomas Fitzgerald assumed the title of Earl of Desmond, and in conjunction with O'Neill, Earl of Tyrone, raised the last of the Munster rebellions. After Essex had failed to cope with it, Sir George Carew suppressed it in 1600, and but little more is heard of the Geraldines. Munster, except Kerry, which was reserved for the government, was finally colonized by Cromwell with soldiers and adventurers; these were promptly absorbed by the Irish population, and though the Catholic gentry received back small portions of their estates at the Restoration, they lost most of them again under the "broken treaty of Limerick." From that settlement the history of Munster has varied but little from that of the rest of Catholic Ireland.

E. Hull, "History of Ireland," 1926; E. Curtis, "History of Mediæval Ireland," 1923; G. Orpen, "Ireland Under the Normans," 1911–20. [L. C. S.]

Murphy, Father John (1753 ?–98), Irish rebel, was educated for the priesthood at Seville. In 1794 he took the oath of allegiance, but was the first to rise at the head of his parishioners in south-east Ireland on May 26, 1798. He soon gathered several thousand men

around him, and committed fearful cruelties. He was victorious over the English troops, and occupied Wexford on May 31. He attacked Arklow on June 9, but was driven back with heavy loss. On June 21 he was again beaten at Vinegar Hill. He fled to Wexford, but was captured and hanged on June 26.

P. F. Kavanagh, "The Rebellion of 1798," 1913.

Murray, WILLIAM, 1ST EARL OF MANSFIELD (1705–93), was the fourth son of David, 5th Viscount of Stormont, and was born at Scone, near Perth. He was educated at Westminster and Oxford, and was called to the bar in 1730. In 1740 he was made a king's counsel, and two years later solicitor-general, with a seat in parliament for Boroughbridge. In the following year he increased his reputation by his defence of the city of Edinburgh against the proceedings taken in parliament with reference to the Porteous mob. In 1754 he succeeded to the office of attorney-general, and two years later he became lord chief justice of England, with the title of Baron Mansfield. In his new position he at once proceeded to reform the slow and tedious practice of the court. In 1757 he was induced to accept the office of chancellor of the exchequer, which he held for only three months, and in the same year he was for the second time offered the great seal, and again refused to take it. Unfortunately Lord Mansfield accepted a seat in the cabinet, and so assumed the character of a political judge; and popular suspicion was not reassured by his growing coldness to Chatham on the death of George II and the rise of Lord Bute. On the question of general warrants, though still a member of the cabinet, he supported Pratt's judgment and affirmed their illegality. On the fall of the Grenville ministry Lord Mansfield retired from the cabinet, and now for the first time encountered Lord Camden in the House of Lords. On the subject of America the two great judges were opposed, Lord Mansfield holding the absolute dominion of Great Britain over the colonies. When Chatham resigned in 1768 the Duke of Grafton called in the advice of Lord Mansfield; but when it became necessary to appoint a successor to Camden he again refused the great seal. On York's death the seal was put into commission, and Lord Mansfield virtually acted as lord chancellor. On Lord North's accession to power began a series of encounters between Mansfield and Chatham on the subject of Wilkes's election for Middlesex; the cause of the former was thoroughly bad, and he came but feebly out of the fray. Nor did the chief justice add to his reputation by his charges to the jury on the law of libel, which so often occupied the courts in consequence of the prosecution of Woodfall and other printers; charges which exposed him to the attacks of Junius. On October 1776 he was raised to the dignity of an earl. During the later years of his career he confined himself almost entirely to the exercise of his judicial functions, and took but little part in politics. In 1788 "the increasing infirmities of Lord Mansfield induced him to retire from his office, after having presided with distinguished lustre as head of the common law for upwards of thirty-two years." After this he lived almost entirely in retirement, taking little or no part in politics, until his death, in March 1793, at the venerable age of eighty-nine. His reputation has been established beyond all dispute; and he lives for posterity as one of the greatest common-law judges of modern times, and as the founder of our commercial law.

Sir G. O. Trevelyan, "Early History of C. J. Fox," 1880. [W. R. S.]

Mutiny Act, THE, was first enacted in 1689. Hitherto a person guilty of desertion or other military crimes had ranked as an ordinary felon; now, such offences were to be subject to special penalties, inflicted by military tribunals. The act was to be in force for six months only, but was continued on its expiry, and annually thereafter. The bill was frequently attacked by the Tory party. Since the reign of George I, however, it was usual to pass it without discussion, and like its successor, the Army (Annual) Act, it was annually brought in and read as a matter of form. From 1713 to 1715 the court-martial had no power to award capital punishment. Since 1748 it has been provided that no sentence touching life or limb could be imposed except for offences enumerated in the act; and in the same year members of the court-martial were forbidden to divulge the sentence until approved, or the votes of any member unless required by parliament. In 1754 the operation of the act was extended to troops serving in India and North America. In 1756 the militia were brought under its provisions, and in 1785 half-pay officers were exempted from it. In 1803 it was extended to troops outside the Dominions, and all Articles of War (q.v.) were made statutory for all troops, and no longer an act of the royal prerogative. In 1879 the military code was embodied in an Army Discipline and Regulation Act, which directly enacts the code of military law. This was put in force by an annual Army Act, and replaced in 1881 by another permanent Army Act, which is now similarly continued from year to year by the Army (Annual) Act, replacing the old Mutiny Act. [MILITARY SYSTEM.] The Mutiny Act and Army (Annual) Act well exemplify the British custom of meeting new political requirements without openly altering the constitution.

C. Grant Robertson, "Select Statutes, Cases and Documents," 4th edn., 1923.

Mysore, the Mohammedan kingdom of the Deccan, was founded by Hyder Ali on the wrecks of the southern principalities. It included, when at its greatest power, not only Mysore proper, but also the whole of Malabar, Cochin, and Calicut, and extended north into

the Poona and Hyderabad states; while the east and south it included the Carnatic Balaghaut, the Baramahal, and the provinces of Coimbatur and Dendigul. These outlying possessions were gradually shorn off by British conquest, and in 1799 the Mohammedan state of Mysore came to an end at the second siege of Seringapatam and the death of Tippoo. The Hindu state of Mysore was thereupon created, deprived of all the outlying provinces and Seringapatam, for the descendants of the old Hindu rajas. A strictly personal settlement was made with the raja, leaving the company the right of assuming the management if necessary. The insufferable rule of the raja, culminating in rebellion, compelled Lord William Bentinck, in 1831, to assume the entire management. But in 1867 the native sovereignty was re-established, and orders were issued by the secretary for India that the country should be surrendered to the raja's adopted son on his coming of age. This was done in 1881.

M. Wilks, "Mysore," 1818 and 1869.

N

Nagpur, The Town of, was captured by the British, November 26, 1807, after a severe defeat inflicted on the raja's troops. In 1853, on the death of the raja, the town and territory of Nagpur were annexed by the British.

Nana Sahib. Dandu Panth, a Mahratta Brahmin, was the adopted son of Baji Rao (q.v.), the last of the Peshwas. On the death of the latter the Nana petitioned the lieutenant-governor of Agra to continue the Peshwa's pension to him. The petition was rejected by Lord Dalhousie and the directors, though the jaghire of Bithur was granted him rent free for life (1853). In revenge he devoted himself to plots against the British government. His agents were employed in all the discontented portions of India, and on the outbreak of the Indian Mutiny he became the chief instigator of the carnage. It was his object at once to revive the old empire of the Peshwas in his own person, and to sacrifice as many Europeans as possible to his revenge. It was by his orders that the sepoys fired on the garrison of Cawnpore after they had surrendered, and that the final massacre of Cawnpore was perpetrated. At the end of the mutiny the Nana escaped to the Terrai jungles of Nepal, where he is supposed to have died. In 1874, however, the Maharaja Sindhia delivered up to the British government a prisoner who represented that he was the Nana. He turned out to be an impostor; the reason for this imposture has never been discovered, nor is it certain whether the maharaja was himself deceived.

Sir J. Kaye, "Sepoy War," 1876; G. B. Malleson, "Indian Mutiny," 1880.

Napier, Vice-Admiral Sir Charles (1786–1860), was the cousin of the three Napier brothers, Charles, Henry, and William. He went to sea in 1799, and was employed all through the French War in the colonies and the Mediterranean. He served on shore in the Peninsula, and was present at Busaco. At the close of the war he had a long interval of rest, but on his return in 1829 he was employed off the coast of Portugal in the *Galatea*. He supported the Constitutionalists; defeated the fleet of Dom Miguel, and settled Donna Maria on the throne. Dom Pedro was unbounded in his gratitude; created him Viscount of Cape St. Vincent; gave him all the Portuguese orders, and named him admiral-in-chief. He proceeded to remodel the corrupt Portuguese navy; was thwarted by the officials, and threw up the appointment. In 1840 he was employed in the Mediterranean against Mehemet Ali, and concluded a convention with him. For his services he was made K.C.B., and received the thanks of both Houses. In 1841 he was elected to parliament for Marylebone. In 1847 he received the command of the Channel fleet, and compelled the Emperor of Morocco to make compensation for injuries done to British commerce. During the Crimean War he was nominated to the command of the Baltic fleet, but had little opportunity of earning distinction. On his return he quarrelled with the government on the subject, and mutual recriminations were interchanged. In 1855 he was returned for Southwark, and cleared himself in the eyes of parliament and the nation. From this time he devoted himself to attacking abuses in the navy, until his failing health required him to withdraw from public life.

Biography by H. N. Williams, 1917.

Napier, Sir Charles James (1782–1853), eldest son of Colonel George Napier, was educated at home, and sent into the army (1794). He was employed in Ireland during the insurrection of 1798. He was at Corunna with Sir John Moore, and fought under the Duke of Wellington at Fuentes d'Onoro and Badajoz. Later he was employed in a fighting cruise off the Chesapeake, and returned in time to accompany the British army to Paris, though he was not present at Waterloo. A period of military inactivity followed; but in 1841 he was appointed commander-in-chief of the army of Bombay. His first and greatest exploit was the conquest and annexation of Sind, of which he was constituted governor by Lord Ellenborough. He proceeded to subjugate the hill tribes and all the warlike population, completely reorganizing the whole physical and moral condition of the district, and gaining the respect and reverence of the inhabitants—even of the Baluchis. His proceedings, however, highly offended the directors, and a quarrel ensued, in which Sir Charles treated them with very slight ceremony. His plans for the termination of the Sikh War (q.v.) were not ripe when the battle

of Sobraon ended it. Before leaving Sind he succeeded in changing the feudal system of land-holding into a landlord-and-tenant system, which he considered the best means of forming loyal subjects, by raising a race of independent farmers attached to the government. In 1847 he returned to England and lived in semi-retirement until the disasters of the second Sikh War (q.v.) made everyone look around for a general. Sir Charles set out (March 1849), but found on his arrival at Bombay that the Sikhs had been finally routed. He now devoted himself to military reform; but after two years returned to England, where he died.

Biographies by W. N. Bruce, 1855; Sir W. F. Butler, 1890; T. R. E. Holmes, 1925.

Napier, Robert Cornelis, 1st Baron Napier of Magdala (1810–90), son of Major C. F. Napier, was educated at the Military College, Addiscombe. He entered the corps of Bengal Engineers (1826), and served with distinction in the Sutlej campaign, at the conclusion of which he was appointed engineer to the durbar of Lahore. He was present at the siege of Multan and the battle of Gujarat (q.v.). He was named chief engineer under the new Punjab administration, and for some time was engaged in building roads and cutting canals to open up that province. In 1857 he served as chief engineer in the army of Sir Colin Campbell, and the part he played in the suppression of the rebellion greatly enhanced his reputation. He also distinguished himself in China as second to Sir Hope Grant, and was rewarded by being made a K.C.B., a major-general, and a member of the council of India. In 1865 he became commander-in-chief at Bombay. In 1867 he received the appointment to command the Abyssinian expedition (q.v.), and was made a K.G.C. of the Star of India. While he was in Abyssinia he achieved a brilliant success. King Theodore on his defeat committed suicide, the captives were restored, and Magdala was besieged and burnt. On his return Sir Robert received the thanks of parliament; the sum of £2,000 per annum was settled on him and his next heir, and he was created Baron Napier of Magdala.

Napierville, The Battle of (November 10, 1838), was fought near Montreal between the British troops under Sir James McDonnell and the Canadian rebels, who were completely defeated.

Napoleonic War. [French Revolution, War of the.]

Naseby, The Battle of (June 14, 1645), was fought during the Civil War. Both armies took the field in May 1645. Charles I marched northwards, and, whilst Fairfax was besieging Oxford, the king stormed Leicester. Leaving Leicester, Charles established himself at Daventry, collecting provisions to revictual Oxford, and threatening to attack the eastern counties. Fairfax, who left Oxford on June 5, overtook the king on the 12th. The king resolved to give battle, and took up his position on an eminence called Dust Hill, about two miles north of the village of Naseby, in Northamptonshire. The army of Fairfax was drawn up on Red Pitt Hill, about a mile from Naseby. The Parliamentary army was about 13,000 strong, the Royalists about 7,500, though the stronger in cavalry. The Royalist right, commanded by Rupert, commenced the attack, and, after a hard fight, routed the Parliamentary left, under Ireton, and attacked the baggage of the Parliamentary army behind the line of battle. Meanwhile the Parliamentary right wing, led by Fairfax and Cromwell, charged and broke the division commanded by Sir Marmaduke Langdale, which formed the left of the king's army. Fairfax and his guards returned from this charge to take part in the struggle between the foot of the two armies in the centre. For this decisive struggle Fairfax brought up all his reserves, and was aided by part of Cromwell's horse and what remained of Ireton's division. Under their combined attack the Royalist centre was utterly routed. Rupert returned too late to the field to turn the fortune of the battle. The king, at the head of his reserve of horse, was resolved to charge in the hope of recovering the day, when a courtier seizing his bridle caused a confusion, which effectually prevented an attack. The Parliamentary cavalry pursued the flying Royalists to within two miles of Leicester, and the slaughter during the flight was very great. The Royalists lost all their guns and baggage and the king's private correspondence.

Sir C. R. Markham, "Fairfax," 1870.

[C. H. F.]

Natal. [South Africa, Union of.]

National Debt, The. The kings of the Middle Ages, and notably the later Plantagenets, had frequently borrowed large sums of money on their own credit on the security of the Crown property and estates: but the modern national debt was originated in the reign of William III by Montagu in 1692, when chancellor of the exchequer. At the Revolution the acknowledged debt was between £600,000 and £700,000. In order to defray part of the military expenses, Montagu borrowed a million sterling, the interest of which—at first at 10, and after the year 1700 at 7 per cent.—was secured on new duties on liquors. These duties were to form a fund, and on the credit of this fund the loan was to be raised by life annuities, which were to be extinguished when the survivors were reduced to seven. In 1694 another loan was obtained, in the shape of the capital of the newly-created Bank of England, which amounted to £1,200,000. By the date of the Treaty of Ryswick (1697) (q.v.) the national debt exceeded 20 millions; by that of the Treaty of Utrecht (q.v.) it was more than 50 millions. This rapid increase was the cause

of great alarm to the Tory party, and it was the fear of the Whigs that the Pretender would come "with a sponge" and wipe out the national debt. Its gradual extinction was one of the objects of statesmen.

In 1711 the South Sea Company (q.v.) was founded with a capital consisting of various Government securities, the nominal amount being over 9 millions. In return for its services the company was allowed the monopoly of trading in the South Seas and the privileges of the Asiento contract (q.v.) with Spain. In addition to trading profits the stockholders received 6 per cent. interest on their securities from the government. In 1717 Walpole established the first sinking fund, borrowing £600,000 at 4 per cent. only, to extinguish liabilities bearing a higher rate of interest. The high rate of interest, and the confusion caused by the fact that some of the annuities by which the various loans had been raised were redeemable and others irredeemable, induced the government in 1720 to accept the proposal of the South Sea Company that they should add the national debt to their capital, and should in return make the fund uniform and redeemable, paying at first 5, and after 1727 4 per cent.; but the failure of the company caused the plan to fall to the ground. Pelham was more successful in his measures, carrying out in 1750 a uniform arrangement, called the Consolidated Fund, and reducing the interest to 3 per cent., paying off those who were unwilling to accept the terms. Meanwhile the debt increased by leaps and bounds. At the Peace of Aix-la-Chapelle (1748) it was over 78 millions; at the Peace of Paris (1763), over 138 millions; and at the conclusion of the American War (1784), 249 millions. In 1786 the younger Pitt proposed a new sinking fund, by which scheme the sum of one million was annually set apart from the income of the country for the reduction of the debt. The fallacy of the system became evident when times of difficulty arose; and the nation was forced to borrow, often at a higher interest than it gained, in order to meet current expenses. It was finally laid aside by Lord Grenville in 1828. The struggle with Napoleon was a fearful strain on the national resources, and in 1817, when the English and Irish exchequers were consolidated, the capital was over 880 millions, and the annual charge exceeded 32 millions. Since that date it has been gradually reduced, partly by arrangements of economy, such as that by which, under the Bank Charter Act of 1833, the Bank of England was to receive £120,000 less than before for the management of the debt; partly, as in 1868 and onwards, by the conversion of stock into terminable annuities. [Between 1816 and 1900 about 367 millions were added to the debt; but meanwhile conversion and redemption were proceeding, and altogether a gross reduction of 633 millions was made during these 85 years, being a net reduction of 266 millions on the total for 1816.] [Sinking Fund.] In 1875 a new and permanent sinking fund was established, which was to be maintained by annual votes of the legislature. The national debt in 1884 amounted to £756,376,519, in which year Mr. Childers carried an act by which a portion of the debt was to be converted from 3 per cent. to 2½ per cent. stock. [This was a complete failure. Much more important was the conversion undertaken by Goschen, Salisbury's chancellor of the exchequer, in 1888. He offered all the holders of the 3 per cent. stock the opportunity of redemption or, alternatively, conversion to the new stock bearing interest at 3 per cent. on the first year, at 2¾ per cent. until 1903, and at 2½ per cent. until 1923. Nearly all the holders accepted the new terms, and interest to the annual amount of £1,400,000 was saved. In 1894 the debt stood at 667 millions. By 1899 it had fallen to 635 millions. In 1903, in consequence of the borrowing made necessary by the war in South Africa, it had risen to 798 millions. In the ten years of peace which followed, a reduction of nearly 100 millions was again effected. The Great War led to the raising of a number of enormous loans at rates of interest which appear incredible beside Goschen's 2½ per cent. In 1916 the National Debt had trebled itself in two years. In 1918 it had risen to six thousand million pounds. Since then the aggregate has increased further, but certain allowances may be set off for claims on allies which will eventually be liquidated. The gross debt in 1926 was £7,634,000,000.] [Sinking Fund; Banking; South Sea Company.]

Macaulay, "History"; Scott, "Joint-Stock Companies"; Buxton, "Finance and Politics"; Rees, "Short Fiscal and Financial History, 1815–1918"; Brisco, "Economic Policy of Walpole"; Acworth, "Financial Reconstruction, 1815–22"; "Statesman's Year-Book."

[L. C. S.] [A. V. J.]

National Insurance Act, The (1911), marked an advance in the system of social insurance begun by the Workmen's Compensation Acts of 1897 and 1906, the Employers' Liability Acts of 1880, and the Old Age Pensions Act of 1908, by establishing a contributory insurance conveying "a legal right to a definite amount." It provided health insurance, compulsory on all manual workers between the ages of 16 and 70 and non-manual workers earning less than £250 a year, in the form of sick, disablement, maternity, and medical benefits, for which the contribution is (since January 1926) 9d. per man and 8½d. per woman employed, the employer paying 4½d. in each case and the employee the rest, the administration of the scheme being performed by approved societies (trade unions, etc.) and insurance committees. The act also provided insurance against unemployment in certain trades, and was thus the beginning of the unemployment insurance system enshrined in the act of 1920, which established a contributory insurance against unemployment for all persons aged 16 and over, with certain excep-

tions. Conditions of benefit were revised in 1924 and 1926.

Nauru. A joint mandate. [New Zealand, Dominion of.]

Navarrete, or Najara, The Battle of (April 3, 1367), was fought during the alliance between the Black Prince and Pedro the Cruel, King of Castile. Pedro had been expelled from his kingdom by his natural brother, Henry of Trastamara, who was supported by a considerable French force, commanded by the Breton hero, du Guesclin. Pedro applied for assistance to the Black Prince, who after some hesitation agreed to march into Spain to his aid, on condition that the expenses of the campaign should be defrayed by Pedro, and certain Spanish towns ceded to England. Accordingly he crossed the Pyrenees with a large army, and met the combined force of the French and Spanish on the plain of Navarrete just beyond the Ebro near the town of Logrono. This victory was almost equal in importance to Crecy and Poitiers. The English archers won the day, the loss of the enemy being very considerable; and among the prisoners was du Guesclin himself. Pedro was restored with little difficulty to the Castilian throne. The Black Prince's victorious campaign ended, however, in disaster. Pedro proved treacherous and ungrateful, the prince's army was decimated by disease, and he himself contracted the illness which ultimately proved fatal. He returned to Gascony burdened with debt and broken in health, only to plunge into a new war with France, in which the fortunes of England suffered a complete reverse.

Navarino, The Battle of (October 20, 1827), was fought in the harbour of Navarino, in the Morea. It involved the total destruction of the Turco-Egyptian fleet of Mahmud II by the combined fleets of Great Britain, France, and Russia. The three allied powers, acting under the Treaty of London (q.v.—July 6, 1827), had resolved to take steps to enforce an armistice on the Turkish and Greek belligerents in the Morea. They had accordingly instructed their three admirals (July 12 and October 15) to prevent the landing of supplies intended for the Turco-Egyptians, and to prevent any movement of the Ottoman fleet. Ibrahim Pasha's reply was a campaign of devastation in the Morea. The three fleets entered Navarino harbour to remonstrate with him—in single line but with the decks cleared for action. A Turkish vessel opened fire, and, the battle becoming general, the Ottoman fleet was destroyed in four hours. Codrington, the British admiral, justified himself by the argument that his instructions had not precluded the use of force in imposing the armistice, and by reference to a letter of September 11 from Stratford Canning corroborating his interpretation. The Wellington cabinet of January 1828, however, strongly disapproved of the battle (Wellington dubbed it an "untoward event") and pursued a pro-Turkish policy at the expense of the Greeks.

Lady Bourchier, "Memoir of Sir E. Codrington," 2 vols., 1873. [A. C. F. B.]

Navigation Laws, The, regulated the privileges of British ships, and the conditions under which foreign ships were admitted to the trade of this country. Legislation of this kind was naturally of early development; we find the first instance of it in the act of 1227 made by James, King of Aragon and Count of Barcelona. The first English Navigation Act was that of 1381 (modified in 1382) by which Richard II prohibited the use of foreign vessels for importing or exporting goods to or from England. Other noteworthy examples of early Navigation Acts are those of 1485 (regarding French wines), 1489 (regarding the chartering of foreign vessels while English ships stood empty), and 1541. Elizabeth reversed this policy, and it was not till 1646 that it was reasserted by the Long Parliament. Cromwell was, however, the first to adopt the navigation system as a policy; in 1650 he excluded all foreign ships without a licence from trading with the plantations of America, and in 1651 the so-called First Navigation Act was passed, which forbade the importation of goods into England except in English ships or ships of the nation which produced the goods. This measure was levelled at the Dutch carrying trade; it forced the Dutch into war, but in the end they accepted it. The mercantile system, as it was called, was continued after the Restoration. In 1660 a Second Act was passed providing that all colonial produce should be exported in English vessels; that no man might establish himself as a factor in the colonies, and that various sorts of colonial produce could only be exported to England and her dependencies. In 1663 it was enacted that the colonies should receive no goods whatever in foreign vessels. In 1672 came the Navigation Act of Charles II, based on that of Cromwell, under which the prohibition against introducing goods, except in English ships manned by a crew of which at least three-fourths were English, applied to all the principal articles of commerce known as the "enumerated articles." This act ruined the Dutch merchant navy, and the cruel restrictions of the navigation laws were one of the main causes of the American rebellion. Public opinion in England, however, was loyal to the mercantile policy throughout the eighteenth century. After the Declaration of American Independence the United States were placed on the footing of a foreign nation, and hence came under the operation of the act of Charles II. They promptly retaliated by excluding our ships, until in 1814, by the Treaty of Ghent, discriminating duties were mutually abolished. Long since the folly of these restrictions on commerce

had been pointed out by political economists who denied the view of Adam Smith that the laws were necessary for "providing for our own safety and defence, and for affording security to our enormous colonial possessions and our widely-spread commerce." Wallace and Huskisson began from 1821 and onwards to introduce a series of measures of which the object was to place England and the foreign nations with which she was at peace on the same footing. The most important of these was the Reciprocity of Duties Act of 1823, which was directed against Prussia, the Netherlands, and Portugal, all of whom had raised their duties on English vessels; and the act of 1826, by which the Navigation Act was repealed, and a new set of regulations established of a more liberal character, though the goods of Asia, Africa, and America were still restricted to English vessels or those of the producing country. The free trade legislation of 1842, 1846, and 1849–50 finally abolished a most vexatious system. Lastly, in 1854, the coasting trade of England was thrown open to foreign vessels. The ruin anticipated by the upholders of the old restrictions did not accrue.

Allen, "Navigation Laws of Great Britain," 1849; W. R. Scott, "Joint Stock Companies," 1910, vol. i; J. F. Rees, "Fiscal and Financial History of England, 1815–1918," 1921; S. Buxton, "Finance and Politics," 2 vols., 1888.

Navy, The. According to the strict sense of the word, the navy did not come into existence until the reign of Henry VIII. Before that period the King of England had the power of calling upon a certain part of the people to serve against his enemies at sea, and to supply ships and arms; but there was no permanent naval force, although some of the sovereigns had ships which were their personal property. It seems, however, to have been the custom to pay the crews of these ships when on active service out of the national treasury. The Cinque Ports were endowed with privileges on consideration of rendering especial service at sea, but the obligation to serve was common to the whole coast. Until the end of the thirteenth century the general control of the navy was left to officers called leaders, governors, or justiciaries of the king's fleet. In the reign of John the office was held by an ecclesiastic, the Archdeacon of Taunton. In 1303 the title of admiral was already in use. Gervase Alard is stated to be "captain and admiral of the fleet of ships of the Cinque Ports, and of all other ports from the port of Dover, and of the whole county of Cornwall." Admirals for parts of the coast, or for different seas, were appointed on varying conditions until the office of lord high admiral grew out of the older "captain and admiral" of particular districts. [Admiral, The Lord High.] From the beginning of the fifteenth century the navy has always been governed, nominally at least, by a lord high admiral, either in person or by commissioners appointed to discharge the office. Its powers were very great, including the commandership-in-chief at sea, the authority of the present lords of the admiralty, with the jurisdiction of the Admiralty Court in peace, and the prize courts in war. [Admiralty.] The last lord high admiral who really exercised the powers of the office was James II when Duke of York. Henry VIII began the modern navy by the appointment of a comptroller, and by setting aside a portion of his revenue every year to meet the expenses of building new vessels and of keeping his ships in fighting order. It was, however, long before an organized body of naval officers was formed. Until the reign of James II it was the custom to appoint a captain who might or might not be a seaman, and who had a master to navigate for each voyage. The captain then collected his crew by voluntary enlistment or press. When the special service for which the ship had been commissioned was performed the whole crew was paid off, and ceased to have any further necessary connexion with the royal service. The pay of the captains was largely made up by fees for convoying, etc., until the abuses of the system induced James II to abolish it, and compensate the captains by the large increase of sea-pay known as service-and-table money. James II also established the system of giving half-pay to officers not on active service. It seems to have been regarded as a species of retaining fee, and even until the beginning of the eighteenth century naval officers in the intervals of active service commanded merchant ships, and traded on their own account. There are well-known cases of merchant skippers appointed to command warships as late as the end of the seventeenth century. Captain Cook is an example of a man who worked his way to command through the rank of sailing-master from before the mast. Step by step, however, the organization has become more strict, and to-day naval officers are a highly trained professional body. The *matériel* of the navy has gone through a process of development very similar to that of the *personnel*. Under the Tudors, the first two Stuarts, and the Commonwealth the navy consisted of a nucleus of royal ships (or national, as the case might be), which was joined in war-time, or whenever the king thought fit to make an imposing demonstration in the Channel, by a crowd of merchant vessels. Scarcely a fifth of the ships collected against the Armada belonged to the queen, and the proportion in Wimbledon's fleet which sailed against Cadiz in 1625, and in Buckingham's at the Isle of Rhé, 1626, was about the same. Even the great fleet which fought the three days' fight with Tromp in the Channel contained many armed merchant ships. By that time, however, the armed merchant ships had become a mere nuisance to the fighting vessels. What had done well enough in 1588, though even then the queen's officers did not think the ships from the ports good for much except to make a show, had become completely useless fifty years later. The causes of this

change were two. In the first place the heroic enthusiasm of the Elizabethan days passed away with the Elizabethan heroes. In 1625 it was found impossible to get obedience from pressed crews and merchant skippers, and the English flag was disgraced by insubordination and cowardice before the enemy. In the second place Phineas Pett, James I's builder, had begun to make the warship something far more different from the merchant vessel than it had been in the sixteenth century. The progress of the seventeenth century in shipbuilding was as rapid as anything seen in our time. When James I ascended the throne a ship of 500 tons was a match for anything; the liners of his grandsons were vessels of from 1,500 to 1,600 tons. Their superiority in build and rigging was enormous. As the warship therefore became a special instrument, it was found impossible to improvise it out of a merchant ship any longer. Accordingly the number of royal ships had to be increased very rapidly. James I left only 33, Charles raised the number to 67; under the Commonwealth it rose to 154, and at the Revolution it was 173. At one period since then it has reached upwards of 900. The beginning of the eighteenth century may be considered as the period at which the navy became fully developed.

Since then the organization of the navy has remained almost the same in form, though it has undergone innumerable modifications in points of detail. The administrative machinery, the rank and status of officers, the code of laws by which naval discipline was preserved, and the duties of the various branches of the service were fixed at the beginning of the eighteenth century; and though the changes in the construction and management of ships have been enormous, the attempt has constantly been made to adapt this organization to it, without departing from it in essentials. Great progress was made in shipbuilding and naval tactics in the eighteenth century. In 1745 "first-rates" were ordinarily ships of 2,000 tons; in the American War they were 2,100; and in 1808 there was a ship of 2,616. One result of the great war with France from 1793 to 1815 was that the navies of the chief continental states were almost annihilated, and that of Britain obtained an enormous preponderance. Great improvements in the construction of the vessels were made after the close of the war; and the British ships of the line reached their perfection between the years 1820 and 1845. But in 1838 steam was applied to war vessels, and by the time of the Crimean War many British liners were fitted with auxiliary screws. Shortly afterwards armour-plated ships were introduced, and since then change has succeeded change with bewildering rapidity. During the latter half of the nineteenth century the British navy was completely reconstructed, and ships of size far exceeding the largest vessel of the past, and carrying ordnance of enormous powers, were built. The old system of "rating" is still nominally kept up, and generally speaking the names, ranks, and duties are assigned to the fighting part of the service; but each ship now carries a large number of engineers, artificers, and scientific officers. The building of new capital ships has been controlled by the terms of the Washington Conference of 1921 to which Great Britain was a signatory.

C. D. Yonge, "History of the Navy," 1863; W. L. Clowes, "The Royal Navy," 7 vols., 1897–1903; D. Hannay, "Short History of the Royal Navy"; A. T. Mahan, "Influence of Sea Power on History," 1890, and "Influence of Sea Power on the French Revolution," 1892; R. C. Anderson, "Naval Warfare in the Baltic, 1522–1850," 1910; C. D. Penn, "Navy Under the Stuarts," 1913; J. S. Corbett, "England in the Mediterranean, 1603–1713," 2 vols., 1904; A. W. Tedder, "The Navy of the Restoration," 1916; H. W. Richmond, "The Navy in the War of 1739–48," 3 vols., 1920; J. A. Froude, "Elizabethan Seamen"; C. Gill, "The Naval Mutinies of 1797," 1913; G. Callender, "Naval Side of British History," 1924.

[D. H.]

Nazir Jung was the second son of Nizam-ul-Mulk, on whose death (1749) he seized the royal treasure and the throne, and called in the aid of the British to resist the confederation formed against him by Dupleix to support Mozuffar Jung, the grandson of Nizam-ul-Mulk. The alliance did not, however, last long, and Nazir Jung was unable to cope with the intrigues of Dupleix. In 1750 he was assassinated.

Nechtansmere (or Dunnichen Moss), The Battle of (May 20, 685), was fought between Brude, the Pictish king, and Egfrid of Northumbria, who had crossed the Forth to subdue the Picts. Egfrid was slain and with him the flower of the Northumbrian army. The result of this battle was most important. The Picts at once shook off the Northumbrian yoke, and the Northumbrian empire in the north sustained a fatal blow. Thereafter the northern kingdom fell behind in the race for supremacy, and in the next generation fell into a state of faction and civil war, from which it was destined never to emerge. Nechtansmere is the modern Dunnichen, about four miles south-east of Forfar.

Nectan (*d.* 731), son of Derili, succeeded his brother Brude as King of the Picts in 706. In 1710 the king and nation were persuaded by Ceolfrid, Abbot of Jarrow, to conform to the Roman Church, and to adopt Roman usages instead of the Columban. Within ten years Iona itself submitted to the rival order, and the whole of Scotland, with the apparent exception of Strathclyde, ranged itself on the side of Rome. In 724 Nectan abdicated and entered a monastery, which, however, he subsequently left, and, after a victory over Alpin, the reigning king at Scone, recovered his kingdom. He was shortly afterwards defeated by Angus MacFergus (731).

Nectan Morbet (*d.* 481), an early king of the Picts, is said to have been banished

to Ireland by his brother and predecessor, Talore, on whose death, however, he returned. According to the Pictish chronicle, he founded the church of Abernethy and gave his name to Drum-nechtan or Dunnichen in Forfarshire.

Nelson, Horatio, Viscount (1758–1805), was the son of the rector of Burnham Thorpe in Norfolk. He went to school first at Norwich, and afterwards at North Walsham. In 1770 he went to sea with his uncle in the *Raisonnable*, but soon returned, and was commissioned to the *Triumph* at Chatham. In 1773 his uncle's influence obtained a place for him in Captain Phipps's expedition to the Arctic Seas. It was at one time in great danger, but eventually returned safely. He was then ordered to the East Indies, where, after serving eighteen months, he was invalided home. In 1777 he received his commission as second lieutenant of the *Lowestoft*, ordered to Jamaica. In the West Indies he soon became noticeable for his bravery, and in December 1778 he was appointed to command the *Badger*, from which he was transferred in the following June as post-captain to the *Hinchinbroke*. In the spring of 1780 he was appointed to command an expedition against San Juan and the isthmus of Nicaragua. The expedition ended in failure, not through any fault of Nelson's, but on account of the deadly nature of the climate, against which only 380 out of 18,000 men were proof. Nelson himself was so shattered by the exertions he had gone through that he had to go to England to recruit his health. In 1784 he was appointed to the *Boreas* bound for the West Indies, where he found himself senior captain. In this position he became involved in some troublesome disputes, and finally in a lawsuit, owing to his determination to enforce the Navigation Act. On the outbreak of the French War in 1793 he was appointed to the *Agamemnon* of 64 guns to proceed to the Mediterranean. In 1796 Sir John Jervis took command in the Mediterranean, and Nelson became at the same time commodore. After various encounters with Spanish and French ships he joined the main fleet off Cape St. Vincent, where, on February 14, 1797, he took a conspicuous part in the great battle, and contributed much to the victory. Nelson was now advanced to the rank of rear-admiral, and commanded the inner squadron at the blockade of Cadiz. In July he conducted a night attack on Santa Cruz, which failed through the darkness; Nelson himself lost his right arm. Early in the following year he rejoined Lord St. Vincent in the *Vanguard*, and was immediately dispatched in command of a small squadron to watch the movements of the French fleet in the Mediterranean. On August 1 he came in sight of it anchored in Aboukir Bay, near Alexandria. He at once attacked with such fury and skill that, after the battle had raged all night, the whole French fleet, with the exception of four ships, was either taken or destroyed. The victory was hailed with delight in England, and Nelson was created Baron Nelson. There was work for him next to do at Naples in trying to strengthen that kingdom to resist France. The French, however, succeeded in occupying it with the help of a republican section of the inhabitants. Nelson blockaded the coast, and a counter-revolution seemed probable when, during his absence, the officer left in charge granted terms to the republicans. Nelson annulled these terms, and had Caracciolo, one of the republican leaders, tried by court-martial and executed with undue haste—an act usually ascribed to Lady Hamilton's influence, but without sufficient reason. In 1800 Nelson returned to England, and in the following year he was sent as second in command under Sir Hyde Parker to the Baltic, and on April 2 bore the chief part in the bombardment of Copenhagen. He was made a viscount, and on the recall of Sir Hyde Parker was left in sole command. On his return to England he was at once appointed to a command extending from Orfordness to Beachy Head. He organized an attack on the flotilla lying at Boulogne, but the expedition failed in its immediate object, though it had the effect of terrifying the French. On the war breaking out afresh in 1803 he was appointed to the command of the Mediterranean fleet, and took his station off Toulon. From May 1803 to August 1805 Nelson left his ship only three times, so constant was his watch for an opportunity of engaging the enemy. But when the alliance of Spain and France was concluded Napoleon determined to carry out his long-intended invasion of England. The combined fleets put out of port. Nelson went in search of them. From January to April 1805 he beat about the Mediterranean; then pursued them to the West Indies. Here they were in advance of him; and he was baffled by conflicting accounts of their movements. At length he followed them northwards, and on July 19 anchored off Gibraltar, but could hear no tidings of them. Unrelentingly he resumed his search round the Bay of Biscay and the coast of Ireland, and returning, joined Admiral Cornwallis off Ushant on August 15, where he received orders to proceed to Portsmouth. There he learnt that Admiral Calder had fallen in with the enemy fleet off Cape Finisterre on July 22, and that they had put into Vigo to refit. He again offered his services, which were eagerly accepted; and on September 29 he was off Cadiz. Villeneuve hesitated to obey peremptory orders to put to sea; but at length he ventured out, and on October 21 gave Nelson his long-wished-for opportunity. The fleets met off Trafalgar (q.v.), and in the battle which ensued the French and Spanish fleets were utterly destroyed. The victory was, however, only obtained at the cost of Nelson's life.

Southey, "Life of Nelson," 1813; "Nelson Dispatches," ed. Sir H. Nicholas, 7 vols., 1846;

A. T. Mahan, "Life of Nelson," 1897; biographies also by Lord Charles Beresford and H. W. Wilson, 1897, G. A. R. Callender, 1912, J. K. Laughton, 1889, and A. Corbett Smith, 1926; Sir J. S. Corbett, "Campaign of Trafalgar," 1910; H. Newbolt, "Year of Trafalgar," 1905.

Nepal. About the middle of the fourteenth century it was colonized by Rajputs, and in the middle of the last century a chief of the Gurkha tribe united all the small principalities and founded the military dynasty of Katmandu. The attempts of the Nepal princes to extend their dominions north ended in a collision with China, which resulted in their being compelled to pay tribute. Foiled in the north, they turned south. Their greatest general, Ulmur Singh, who acted almost independently, carried their arms west beyond the Kali to the Upper Sutlej, coming in contact with the rising power of Ranjit Singh (q.v.). Not content with this, they pushed their encroachments to the British frontier and beyond, until their aggressions ended in the Gurkha War (q.v.), which effectually repressed their attempts in the south and west. The treaty which ended the war has never been violated, and the Gurkhas, instead of taking advantage of our exigencies in the Mutiny of 1857, sent a large force to assist in quelling it. The barren region which was the scene of the war has proved an invaluable acquisition. It has furnished sites for sanatoria at Simla, Mussuri, Landour, and Nynithal.

Neutrality may be either perfect or conventional, independent of, or affected by, treaty. Examples of conventional neutrality are afforded by the perpetual neutrality and inviolability of the Swiss cantons declared in 1815, and by the neutrality of Belgium declared in 1833. In some cases also neutrality has been qualified by a pre-existing alliance with one of the belligerents. Thus, in the war between Russia and Sweden in 1788, Denmark, though supplying the Empress Catherine with certain aid, as arranged by previous treaty, was yet held to be neutral. Such a limited neutrality, however, would scarcely be recognized in these days. No hostilities are lawful on neutral territory, nor may troops pass through such territory for the purposes of war. Within the limits of the maritime jurisdiction of a neutral state all captures are invalid, and every belligerent act is unlawful. In 1863 the crew of the American merchantman the *Chesapeake* mutinied, seized the ship, and declared her a Confederate man-of-war. The United States government took the ship with three of the crew in British waters, but Mr. Seward considered the capture a violation of the law of nations, and delivered ship and men to the British authorities. Such violation of territorial right is a matter which lies between the neutral state and the captor. A neutral state is bound not to afford any kind of warlike help to either of two belligerents, and not to refuse to one what she grants to the other. Acting on these principles, Washington, on the outbreak of the European war of 1793, issued a proclamation of neutrality, with instructions to prevent the equipment of belligerent vessels in the ports of the United States. No legislative effort in this direction was made by Great Britain until the Foreign Enlistment Act of 1819 (q.v.), which followed the lines laid down in America. This act was relaxed in 1835 in respect of troops levied to uphold the claim of Queen Isabella to the throne of Spain. [Foreign Legion.] During the civil war in America, 1861–5, much dispute arose concerning our duty as a neutral. Many cruisers, such as the *Alabama*, the *Florida*, and the *Shenandoah*, were built at Liverpool for the Confederate States, and were received in British ports. These ships did immense damage to the shipping and trade of the Federal States. Since, however, it was at least doubtful how far we had exercised due vigilance, we submitted to arbitration. [Geneva Award.] As regards the rights of neutrals in trading and carrying, primitive law allows the capture of an enemy's goods in any place save the territory of a neutral state; public ships, being reckoned as such territory, are not subject to visitation or capture of goods. This does not apply to private vessels. In respect of these, however, primitive law has been modified by treaty in favour of the rule that free or neutral ships make the goods they carry free also. Treaties to this effect were made by Holland, a great trading and carrying country, with Spain in 1650, with France in 1652, and again at the Peace of Ryswick in 1697. Though the maxim "free ships, free goods," does not imply the other maxim, "enemy's ships, enemy's goods" (for the one is founded on the principle *suum cuique*, while neutral goods, since they belong to a friend, should not be subject to capture), yet they have often been joined together, as in the Treaty of Utrecht in 1713. The parties to the Armed Neutrality (q.v.) of the Baltic, in 1780, insisted on "free ships, free goods," which was contrary to British custom. This rule has been established by the Declaration of Paris (q.v.—1856), with the exception of contraband of war, a term including such goods as are of primary importance in war, together with such as are of doubtful use, as naval stores and coal, if they are rendered contraband by circumstances. A neutral ship is subject to capture when carrying military persons or dispatches, or contraband goods, when they belong to the owner of the ship, or when fraud is practised. The right of neutrals to carry persons was involved in the *Trent* affair (q.v.). Neutral rights are further limited by blockade. The right to blockade by proclamation was asserted by Bonaparte, when, in 1806, without a ship to enforce his decree, he declared the blockade of the British Isles, and the same assertion was involved in our retaliatory Orders in Council. It has now been settled by the Declaration of Paris that a blockade to be binding on a neutral must be "effective." These restraints on

neutrals imply the belligerent right of search and capture, and a neutral ship resisting this right is thereby rendered subject to confiscation.

W. E. Hall, "International Law," edition of 1910; I. T. Lawrence, "International Problems and the Hague Conferences," 1908; "Laws of Neutrality as existing on August 1, 1914" (U.S.A. Department of State), 1918. [W. H.]

Neuve Chapelle, The Battle of (March 1915), was fought on the western front, in Artois, during the Great War, after the German failure at Ypres in October 1914. It opened with an attack by the British on March 10, in an endeavour to break the German line. But German reinforcements brought the advance to a standstill on the 13th, and Sir Douglas Haig's determination was thwarted by lack of ammunition.

Neville, The Family of. The Nevilles were lords of Raby from the early part of the thirteenth century. In 1397 Ralph de Neville of Raby was created Earl of Westmorland. The title was forfeited in 1571. Ralph's younger sons, Richard, William, and Edward, became respectively, by marriage, Earl of Salisbury, Baron Fauconberg, and Baron Abergavenny (with the titles of Despenser and Burghersh). Another son, George, inherited the barony of Latimer. Richard, Earl of Salisbury, was the father of Richard, famous as the "King-maker," who received as a result of his marriage with Anne, sister and heiress of Henry Beauchamp, Earl and ultimately Duke of Warwick, the earldom of Warwick (1449). His daughter, Isabel, married George, Duke of Clarence, created Earl of Warwick and of Salisbury (1472). John Neville, a younger brother of the "King-maker," was created Baron and later Marquis of Montagu (1470), and his son, George, was made Duke of Bedford (1470). The latter was degraded from all his dignities in 1477, but a descendant in the female line, Anthony Browne, was created Viscount Montague (1554). Returning to the generation next subsequent to Ralph, 1st Earl of Westmorland, George Lord Latimer's title fell into abeyance in 1577, while that of Edward, Lord Abergavenny, still remains. It was raised to an earldom (with the viscounty of Neville of Birling in Kent) in 1784, and to a marquisate (with the earldom of Lewes) in 1876. Between 1598, however, and 1604 there was a dispute between the heir general, Lady Fane, and the heir male, Edward Neville, which ended in the latter's retaining the barony of Abergavenny, while the former received that of Despenser. The son of the holder of the Despenser title was in 1624 raised to the barony of Burghersh (co. Sussex) and earldom of Westmorland, and the title still remains with his descendants.

Neville, Alexander (*d.* 1392), was elected Archbishop of York in 1373, and on the accession of Richard II became one of his chief advisers and supporters. The barons, under the leadership of Thomas of Woodstock, determined to get rid of all the royal ministers, and in 1388 Neville was "appealed" of treason. The Merciless Parliament (q.v.) declared him guilty, and Pope Urban VI was induced to translate him to the see of St. Andrews. This act, since Scotland acknowledged the rival pope, was equivalent to deprivation. Neville retired to Flanders, where he obtained a benefice at Louvain which he held till his death.

Neville, Charles, 6th Earl of Westmorland (1543–1601), one of the most powerful Catholic nobles of Elizabeth's reign, though a man devoid of talent, was a leader in the Northern rebellion of 1569, and achieved the only success in the insurrection by the capture of Barnard Castle from Sir George Bowes. On the collapse of the movement he made his escape to the border, and, in spite of many attempts to seize him, managed, with better fortune than the Earl of Northumberland, to find an asylum with the Duke of Alva in the Netherlands. There he dragged out a tedious existence in poverty and obscurity, barely supplied with the necessaries of life by a slender pension from the King of Spain.

C. Menmuir, "The Rising of the North, 1569," 1907.

Neville, George, Bishop of Exeter (*d.* 1476), was the youngest son of Richard Neville, Earl of Salisbury, and brother to Warwick, the "King-maker." In 1456, although not more than 23 or 24, he was made Bishop of Exeter, and on the triumph of the Yorkists in 1460 received the great seal. In 1465 he was appointed Archbishop of York; but on the outbreak of a quarrel between the Earl of Warwick and the king in 1467 he was deprived of the chancellorship. In 1470 he joined his brothers in their restoration of Henry VI, by whom he was appointed chancellor; but after Edward's victories at Barnet and Tewkesbury his goods were seized and he himself was imprisoned in France for three years. He took no further part in public affairs, and died not long after his release.

Neville, George, 5th Baron Abergavenny (*d.* 1535), was in high favour with Henry VII, and assisted in the suppression of the Cornish rebels at Blackheath in 1497. He was prominent at court in the early years of Henry VIII's reign, but was involved in 1521 in the troubles which overtook Buckingham, whose daughter he had married. He suffered a short imprisonment, and although pardoned in 1522, he was never afterwards fully trusted by the king.

Neville, Henry, 6th Baron Abergavenny (*d.* 1587), was thought to favour the insurgents in 1554, but finally declared for Mary, and defeated the rebels at Wrotham Heath (q.v.). He was one of the commissioners at the trial of Mary, Queen of Scots, in 1586.

Neville, John, Marquis of Montagu and Earl of Northumberland (*d.* 1471), was

the son of Richard, Earl of Salisbury, and the younger brother of Warwick the "King-maker." He joined his father and brother in espousing the Yorkist cause, and on the accession of Edward IV was made warden of the Eastern Marches. In 1464 he defeated the Lancastrians at Hedgeley Moor (q.v.) and Hexham (q.v.). In 1467 he was created Earl of Northumberland, and the estates of the Percys were granted to him. He resigned this position two years later, in order that Percy might be restored, and received instead the title of Marquis of Montagu. He joined Warwick in his intrigues against Edward IV, shared in Henry VI's restoration, and fell with his brother at the battle of Barnet.

Neville, Ralph, 1st Earl of Westmorland (*d.* 1425), was the son of John, Baron Neville of Raby. In 1386 he was made by Richard II guardian of the West Marches, and in 1399 Earl of Westmorland. Nevertheless, he joined Bolingbroke on his landing in England, and was by him granted the office of marshal for life. He fought for Henry IV against the Percys, his great rivals for power in the north; prevented the Earl of Northumberland from joining his son Hotspur (1403); and by gross treachery got Archbishop Scrope, the Earl of Nottingham, and other partisans of the Percys into his hands (1405). For the rest of his life Westmorland was mainly occupied in the discharge of his functions as warden of the Marches. He married first Margaret, daughter of the Earl of Stafford; and secondly Joan Beaufort, daughter of John of Gaunt. He was therefore closely connected by marriage with Henry IV.

Neville, Richard, 1st Earl of Salisbury (1400–60), was a son of Ralph Neville, Earl of Westmorland, and obtained the earldom of Salisbury (1429) by marrying Alice, heiress of Thomas de Montacute. He served in France, became warden of the Marches, and strenuously opposed the surrender of the English provinces in France. He was a strong opponent of Somerset, and a warm supporter of his brother-in-law, the Duke of York, during whose protectorate he acted as chancellor (1453–5). In 1459 Lord Audley was commissioned to arrest him, but he defeated Audley at Blore Heath (q.v.). After the rout of Ludford (q.v.) he fled with York to France, and was attainted in his absence by the Lancastrian government. In the next year he returned and participated in the Yorkist triumph that followed the battle of Northampton; but being defeated and taken prisoner at Wakefield in the next year, he was beheaded. His eldest son was the famous Earl of Warwick, the "King-maker."

Neville, Richard, Earl of Warwick (the "King-maker") (1428–71), was the son of Richard, Earl of Salisbury, and married Anne, daughter and heiress of the Earl of Warwick, with whom he received the title as well as the estates of the Beauchamp family. He thus became the owner of enormous wealth and landed property, and by his liberality and profuse hospitality he was soon a great favourite with the people. He espoused the cause of the Duke of York, with whom he fought at the first battle of St. Albans in 1455. In the same year he was made captain of Calais. A quarrel which took place between Warwick's retainers and some of the king's servants in 1459 precipitated the renewal of the civil war. After the rout of Ludford (q.v.) he fled to Calais, and subsequently joined York in Ireland, where they arranged a plan of action, and returning to England in 1460 defeated the Lancastrians at Northampton, and took the king prisoner. After the battle of Wakefield Warwick attempted to intercept Margaret's march to London, but was defeated at St. Albans. Retreating with a considerable force, he effected a junction with Edward at Chipping-Norton, and returned to London, where Edward IV was proclaimed king. Warwick took part in the battle of Towton, and was richly rewarded by Edward, receiving the captaincy of Dover, the wardenship of the Cinque Ports and the Scottish Marches, the office of lord chamberlain, with large grants of forfeited lands. Warwick's policy was to strengthen the new dynasty by a strict and cordial alliance with the French king; and for this purpose he set on foot negotiations for marrying Edward to Bona of Savoy, sister-in-law of Louis XI. But the king preferred the alliance of Burgundy, and his marriage with Elizabeth Woodville entirely upset Warwick's plans. The ascendancy of the queen's kinsfolk completed Warwick's estrangement, and he intrigued with Clarence, who in 1469 married his daughter Isabel at Calais without the king's knowledge. The northern insurrections of Robin of Holderness and Robin of Redesdale (q.v.) gave Warwick his opportunity, and the latter at least was certainly engineered by his supporters. Warwick returned from Calais in July intent on destroying the power of the Woodvilles. The king was taken prisoner. Rivers and Sir John Woodville were beheaded, and for a time the government was completely in Warwick's hands. But in 1470 the king escaped, and the defeat of the insurgents at Lose-coat Field (q.v.) obliged Warwick once more to seek refuge at Calais. By the influence of Louis XI a reconciliation was made between Warwick and Queen Margaret, in accordance with which Warwick invaded England on behalf of Henry VI and the young Prince Edward. He was joined by his brother Montagu, and others, while Edward fled to Burgundy. Henry was released from the Tower, and Warwick was once more supreme. But in the next year (1471) Edward returned, was joined by the treacherous Clarence, and succeeded in entering London. At Barnet the two armies came into conflict, and after a hard-fought battle, Warwick was defeated and slain. The character of the "last of the barons," as Warwick has been called, was in some

respects an exaggeration of the ordinary baronial type. As a politician he was not without sagacity and foresight; and in warfare his dash and energy compensated in some degree for his lack of true generalship. But his gifts were solely employed in the acquisition of power for himself and his family. His title of "King-maker" is justified. It was by the power of the Nevilles that Edward IV was established on the throne. But Warwick aspired to play the mayor of the palace to Edward's *roi fainéant*, and when he found his intentions defeated, did not hesitate to plunge his country once more into civil war, and to offer to Lancaster the services he had formerly rendered to York. He left two daughters: Isabella, who was married to the Duke of Clarence; and Anne, married first to Edward, son of Henry VI, and secondly to Richard, Duke of Gloucester. [Roses, Wars of the.]

Biography by Sir C. Oman, 1891.

Neville, William, Lord Falconberg (*d.* 1463), was the son of Ralph, Earl of Westmorland, and brother of Richard, Earl of Salisbury. He distinguished himself in the siege of Orleans and other operations in France in Henry VI's reign. He espoused the Yorkist cause, and fought at Towton (q.v.). In 1461 he was made Earl of Kent.

Neville's Cross, The Battle of (October 17, 1346), was fought near Durham, between an invading army of the Scots, under David II, the Steward and the Knight of Liddesdale, and the northern levies under Henry Percy and Ralph Neville, assisted by the Archbishop of York. The Scots were completely defeated, owing to their inability to cope with the English archers; David himself was captured, together with many of the chief men in the Scottish army, and large numbers were slain.

Nevis, with Anguilla as dependency, forms one of the presidencies of the Leeward Islands. It was discovered by Columbus (1493), and colonized by English settlers from St. Kitt's (1628). The progress of the island made rapid strides until 1706, when a French invasion carried off most of the slaves; and for some time after this attack the colonists had considerable difficulty in supporting themselves. In 1871 Nevis joined the federation of the Leeward Islands. Previous to this time the government was vested in a president, a council of seven members, and a representative assembly of nine. It now shares the government of St. Kitt's.

New Brunswick, one of the Maritime Provinces of the Dominion of Canada (q.v.).

New England. [American Colonies.]

New France. [Canada, Dominion of.]

New Guinea, The Territory of, consists of North-east New Guinea (Kaiser Wilhelm Land), the Bismarck Archipelago, and the Solomon Islands. It was previous to 1914 a protectorate, German New Guinea, acquired by economic penetration, secured by diplomatic pressure and delimited by agreements with the Dutch and Great Britain, its boundaries being completely defined by 1909. In 1914 the acting governor surrendered to an Australian force. The military administration was replaced in 1921 by a civil administrator appointed by the Australian Commonwealth under a League of Nations mandate (1920). German law has been abolished, German nationals expatriated and their property appropriated to reparations. There are fewer than 1,500 whites to nearly 350,000 natives whose rights and customs are secured by ordinance and tribal institutions preserved.

G. Collingridge, "The First Discovery of Australia and New Guinea," 1906; F. Hinley, "Pearls and Savages," 1924; J. Lyng, "Our New Possession," 1919; C. A. W. Monckton, "Some Experiences of a New Guinea Magistrate," 1921.

New Hampshire. [American Colonies.]

New Jersey. [American Colonies.]

New Model was the name given to the army of the Parliament as new modelled in April 1645. The term referred at first to the plan on which the army was reorganized, but soon came to signify the army itself. The Lords rejected the first Self-denying Ordinance (January 13, 1645), because they did not know "what shape the army would suddenly take." The Commons produced a scheme for the reconstruction of the army on the following plan. The new force was to consist of 22,000 men, divided into 6,600 horse, 1,000 dragoons, and 14,400 foot, the horse to be formed into eleven regiments of 600 men each, the dragoons into ten companies of 100 men, and the foot into twelve regiments of 1,200 men each in ten companies. The army was to cost about £56,000 a month, to be raised by assessment throughout the kingdom. On January 21 it was resolved that this force should be commanded by Sir Thomas Fairfax, with Skippon as major-general. The officers were to be nominated by the commander-in-chief, subject to the approval of the two Houses. This scheme, and these appointments, were confirmed by the House of Lords on February 15, 1645. The new army contained a large number of Independents, for Fairfax was empowered to dispense with the signature of the Covenant in the case of religious men. Several of its officers had risen from the ranks, and had originally filled very humble stations. Lieutenant-Colonels Pride and Hewson had been, the one a drayman and the other a cobbler. But the assertions made at the time by opponents of the new scheme that most of the colonels were "tradesmen, brewers, tailors, goldsmiths, shoemakers, and the like," were entirely untrue. Out of thirty-seven generals

and colonels it is computed that twenty-one were commoners of good families, nine members of noble families, and only seven not gentlemen by birth. It deserves notice that a large number of these officers were Cromwell's kinsmen and connexions. Clarendon in 1660 described the army thus founded as " an army whose sobriety and manners, whose courage and success, have made it famous and terrible all over the world."

C. H. Firth, " Cromwell's Army," 3rd edn., 1921.
[C. H. F.]

New Ross, The Battle of (June 5, 1799), was fought during the Irish rebellion between Sir Henry Johnson, with some 1,400 men, and no fewer than 30,000 rebels, under Father Roche and Bagenal Harvey (q.v.). The rebels were at first successful, and reached even the market-place; Johnson, however, rallied his men, and, charging with the bayonet, drove them out of the town with fearful carnage. The troops, enraged to frenzy, gave no quarter, and after eleven hours' fighting no fewer than 2,600 rebel corpses were left on the field. This defeat prevented the rebels from marching on Dublin.

P. F. Kavanagh, " The Rebellion of 1798," 1913.

New South Wales, one of the original states of the Commonwealth of Australia (q.v.).

New York. [American Colonies.]

New Zealand, The Dominion of, 105,000 sq. miles, consists of three major islands, North, South, and Stewart, together with the following island groups in the South Pacific: Chatham Islands, chiefly used for sheep-farming; Campbell, Antipodes, Bounty, and Kermadec Islands, all uninhabited; Auckland Islands, Cook Islands, a group with a considerable native trade and an island council; Ross dependency proclaimed in 1923, and various islands annexed in 1901 to complete boundary lines, together with the mandated territory of Western Samoa, formerly German, and Nauru Island, jointly administered by Great Britain, the Commonwealth of Australia, and New Zealand under a League of Nations mandate. The population is over 1,400,000, of which nearly 55,000 are Maoris.

New Zealand was first discovered in 1642 by Tasman, who sailed up the west coast without landing, and was visited by Cook in his three voyages (1769–77). Cook was the real discoverer of the country; he sailed all round, accurately charting it, and took possession in the name of Great Britain. Other visitors about the same time, or shortly after, were the Frenchmen de Surville and Marion du Fresne, and the Englishman Vancouver, after which the country was frequented mainly by whalers, both deep-sea and shore, sealers, and traders in timber and flax. The whaling and sealing industries declined in the eighteen-forties, though there has recently been a revival of whaling within the dominion's territorial waters. The country was noted at this time for its unruliness, the chief European settlement, Korarareka, at the Bay of Islands, being a celebrated resort for the scum of the Pacific, escaped convicts from Sydney, and more or less disreputable whalers of all nationalities. The first mission station was founded by Marsden in 1814, from which year the C.M.S. did good work, followed by the Wesleyans and Roman Catholics. The combined influence of this piety, however, was not enough to make the islands moral, and New Zealand was accordingly taken under the wing of New South Wales by act of parliament (4 Geo. IV, c. 93 and 9 Geo. IV, c. 83) by which New South Wales could impose penalties for crimes committed by British subjects in New Zealand—a somewhat empty enactment. This was followed by the appointment of a British resident at the Bay of Islands in 1832, whose influence was restricted to the exercise of moral suasion. He did, however, prevail upon a few chiefs to issue a declaration of independence. In addition to many spasmodic commercial adventures, an unsuccessful attempt was made to found a regular colony with English immigrants by a company of enthusiasts in 1825; the assets of this body were bought out by the more successful Land Company of 1839, which followed the ill-fated New Zealand Association of 1837—both children of the fertile brain of Edward Gibbon Wakefield (q.v.), who wished to give his colonizing " system " a fair chance somewhere in the empire. This company in 1840 made a settlement, unauthorized by the British government, at Port Nicholson (afterwards called Wellington). Shortly afterwards a British consul, Captain Hobson, landed at the Bay of Islands and by the much-discussed Treaty of Waitangi secured from the Maori chiefs the cession of the sovereignty of the islands, while leaving to the natives full possession of property rights over the whole country. Hobson carried a dormant commission as lieutenant-governor, subordinate to New South Wales, but shortly afterwards New Zealand was declared a separate colony and he became first governor. He set up his capital at Auckland, thus causing much acrimonious rivalry between the official and the colonizing centres, which did not cease even with the transference of the seat of government to Wellington in 1867. The New Zealand Company was also responsible for settlements at Wanganui, New Plymouth, and Nelson, where the Wairan massacre was a great setback, between the years 1840 and 1842, and later on in conjunction with Free Kirk settlers at Otago (1848), and a church body at Canterbury (1850). All these settlements were founded more or less on the lines of the Wakefield " system." Unfortunate, if inevitable, differences with the natives over the settlement of land that was supposed to have been bought from them, led to a series of desperate wars, the first of which was brought to a successful conclusion under Governor Grey (1845–53); the others lingered on for ten years from 1860

with varying fortunes, being finally ended by the surrender and pardon of Kooti in 1872. Nearly three million acres were confiscated by the government in reprisal for the outbreaks, but a great part of this was afterwards handed back and paid for. The bravery and chivalry with which the wars had been waged left very little bad feeling and an entire absence of racial jealousy. The Maoris have now judicial and political equality with the whites; their racial lassitude and peculiar land-system hindered for some time their social development, but a recent cultural and economic renaissance under the leadership of the Young Maori party has already given evidence of great and steady improvement. They are succeeding as small-holders and dairy farmers, and show about the same vital rate of increase as the whites.

The constitutional and political development of the country has been interesting. It was at first ruled by the governor and a nominated legislative council of officials. In 1846 responsible government was granted by a somewhat peculiar constitution which was shelved by Grey and, on his advice, suspended until the settlements should overcome the political disadvantages of their scattered nature. At the same time Grey and the exceedingly capable Bishop Selwyn worked out a very democratic constitution for the Church in New Zealand. A new, quasi-federal constitution was granted in 1853; the country was divided into six provinces each with a superintendent and an elected council, with a central government consisting of the governor, a legislative council nominated for life, and a lower chamber elected on a fairly liberal franchise. After considerable confusion and wire-pulling full responsible government emerged in 1856. The system lasted until 1876, when the provincial councils, the abode of parochial jealousies, having come into conflict with the public works policy of Sir Julius Vogel, were abolished and a centralized government has exercised undivided authority ever since. The Massey government passed legislation making the upper chamber elective, but it has still so far remained in abeyance, councillors being appointed for a period of seven years. The franchise is adult, male and female, while the Maoris have four representatives in the lower house and some have even achieved cabinet rank. A series of protracted ministries, Conservative up to 1891, Liberal until 1912 and then Conservative again, enabled New Zealand to consolidate her staple industries and, chiefly under the inspiration of Reeves, the minister of labour, to indulge in a series of experiments in state Socialism which have been on the whole remarkably successful. Vogel (1869–76) initiated a policy of public loans, public works, and government encouragement to the woollen and gold industries and to irrigation schemes. Grey (1877–9) introduced a land tax and an agrarian and democratic policy of Australian origin. In 1890, towards the end of a long period of economic disaster, the advent of the Radical party alarmed the farmers with the prospect of state interference, but the boards of conciliation and the central court of arbitration, set up by Reeves in 1894, have more than falsified that fear. In 1908 conciliation councils replaced the boards, which had not functioned well. The system is now being criticized by the Labour party. Land legislation went hand in hand with this industrial policy and provided lease in perpetuity in Crown lands (1892), the right to convert to freehold with conditional purchase (1907), a graduated land tax (1892), and a government office for advances to settlers in 1894, following upon the rescue and consolidation of the Bank of New Zealand (1894) by the government, which has since had a controlling share in the enterprise. Life insurance and the public trusts had been started by the government from 1869, fire insurance by 1903, while railways, the first of which was opened in 1863, came under government control in 1876, six years after the Railways Act had initiated a policy of uniformity and progress. 1895 marks the completion of governmental control of all railway communication. In 1895, too, a protective tariff was introduced, but in the Imperial Conferences (q.v.) New Zealand showed herself to be more ardently imperial than the home country, and from 1897 to 1911 her representatives were advocates of an Imperial centralization alien to the line of British Imperial growth. As early as 1900 Seddon had reported against federation with Australia, and colonial autonomy was correspondingly strengthened in spite of her imperial sympathies. In 1907 the status of New Zealand was changed from that of a colony to that of a Dominion. A governor is still appointed by the Crown, but full autonomy resides in the two chambers with a responsible ministry. The policy of New Zealand under whatever government it has had has been strongly, if somewhat complacently, Imperialist. Seddon (who succeeded the very attractive Ballance as premier in 1893) constituted himself the robust prophet of Imperialism; he was followed by Ward, who presented a battle-cruiser to the royal navy, and by Massey, who, though of an opposing party, was no less fervent in his creed and enjoyed the united support of the dominion throughout the war. At the present time New Zealand betrays no wish for the more elastic Imperial relationships which appear to be the aim of other members of the British Commonwealth of Nations and which were so fully articulated and recognized at the Imperial Conference of 1927.

The Outlying Islands, proclaimed as within the geographical boundaries of New Zealand in 1847, are Three Kings Islands, so named by Tasman, the Auckland Islands, discovered in 1806 by Bristow and possessed since 1807, Campbell Islands, discovered in 1810 by Hazelburgh, the Antipodes Islands, the Bounty Islands, discovered by Bligh in 1788, and the Snares Islands.

The Annexed Islands are the Kermadec Islands, annexed in 1887, having been discovered in 1788 and 1793 by Watts and de Bruni and inhabited for short times in 1878 and 1889, and again in 1926, the Cook and other islands, annexed in 1901. The constitution of these latter was remodelled in 1915: island councils consisting of ex-officio members and native chiefs together with nominated members. Women are eligible and vote.

Western Samoa, consisting of four large and many smaller islands, occupied in 1914 by New Zealand, are administered as a territory by a mandate from the League of Nations. Visited by the Dutch in 1721–2, by the French in 1768 and 1787, by English in 1790, and by missionaries first in 1830, they were the subject of international dispute. A British (1838) followed by an American commercial treaty (1839) with the Samoans led to the appointment of consular agents by England in 1847, by America in 1853, and by Germany in 1861. Internecine wars between rival claimants to the chieftainship led to petitions for annexation to Great Britain in 1877 and the United States of America in 1878, which were refused. All three interested European nations received naval and coaling rights, and at a conference in Berlin in 1889 they guaranteed the neutrality and independence of the islands. In 1898 the kingship was abolished, and the Anglo-German agreement of 1899, accepted by the United States in 1900, gave to Germany all rights over Western Samoa and to the United States over Eastern Samoa. Western Samoa is now administered by an administrator appointed by the governor-general of New Zealand and responsible to the ministry. He is assisted by a legislative council of four to six nominated officials and three unofficial members elected by the whites. Self-government has been largely granted to the natives, the leading chiefs of whom, appointed as a native parliament by the administrator, meet twice yearly, to discuss and present recommendations to the administrator.

Nauru. A German island until 1914, it surrendered to New Zealand, and is now administered by a mandate of the League of Nations jointly by Great Britain, Australia, and New Zealand according to the 1919 agreement. An administrator is appointed quinquennially. The three mandatory powers bought out the Pacific Phosphate Co. and arranged the allocation of phosphate between them respectively as 42, 42, 16 to coincide with their capital shares.

Ross Dependency. In 1923 the coasts and adjacent islands and territories were proclaimed as Ross Dependency, to be administered by the governor-general of New Zealand. A Norwegian firm has a twenty-one years' whaling lease.

Tokelau or Union Group, ceded to Great Britain in 1916 and forming part of the Gilbert and Ellice Islands Colony until 1925, were transferred in 1926 to New Zealand and are now administered by the administrator of Western Samoa for New Zealand. The islanders are ruled by native chiefs assisted by native councils.

J. Cowan, "The New Zealand Wars," 2 vols. 1922–3; J. S. Marais, "The Colonization of New Zealand," 1926; Sir G. Grey, "Polynesian Mythology," 1855; E. Best, "The Maori," 2 vols., 1924; "The New Zealand Year Book"; A. J. Harrop, "England and New Zealand," 1926; Bryce, "Modern Democracies," vol. ii; W. P. Reeves, "The Long White Cloud," 1925; "State Experiments in Australia and New Zealand," 2 vols., 1902; J. Hight and H. D. Bamford, "Constitutional History and Law of New Zealand," 1914; H. T. Purchas, "History of the English Church in New Zealand," 1914.

[H. R.]

Newark, David Leslie, 1st Baron (*d.* 1682). [Leslie.]

Newburn, Battle of (August 28, 1640), was fought at the opening of the second war between Charles I and the Scots. Viscount Conway, with about 12,000 men, was charged to hold the line of the Tyne. Leaving two-thirds of his forces in Newcastle, Conway, with 3,000 foot and 1,500 horse, posted himself at the ford of Newburn, four miles above the town. There he threw up some hasty entrenchments, but they were commanded by the higher ground on the opposite bank, and after a three hours' cannonade the raw levies who defended them took to flight. The Scots now crossed the river, and after a couple of charges routed the English cavalry. This defeat forced Conway to evacuate Newcastle, which the Scots occupied on the following day.

Newbury, The First Battle of (September 20, 1643), was fought during the Civil War. The Earl of Essex raised the siege of Gloucester (September 5), and managed to evade pursuit during the first portion of his march back to London. But Prince Rupert, with the royal cavalry, overtook him and delayed his progress, so that the king was enabled to occupy Newbury and bar the road to London. The royal army was advantageously posted on a hill to the south of Newbury with its right resting on the River Kennet. Charles was resolved to maintain a defensive attitude, but the rash attack of some of his horse prevented this resolution being carried out. The battle was decided by the Parliamentary infantry, led by Essex in person, who stormed the hill by sheer hard fighting. The king lost many noblemen and officers, including the Earl of Carnarvon, the Earl of Sunderland, and Lord Falkland. Essex marched on to Reading, unopposed, the next morning.

——, The Second Battle of (October 27, 1644). After the surrender of the Earl of Essex in Cornwall (September 1644), Charles marched back towards Oxfordshire. He found that the Parliament had united a new army of about 16,000 men from the armies of Waller and Manchester, and the remains of that of Essex. The king, with little more than 8,000 men, took up his position to the north of Newbury between Shaw and Speen, with his front protected by the River Lamborn, with Donnington Castle and a house called Doleman's House serving as outworks. Here the king was attacked

on October 27. On his left the Royalists lost the village of Speen and several guns, but they held their ground in the fields between Donnington and Newbury. On the right, at Shaw, the earthworks round Doleman's House were successfully defended, and the Parliamentary troops were heavily repulsed. Nevertheless the loss of ground on the left obliged the king to abandon his position, and he withdrew the same night by Donnington Castle to Wallingford. Cromwell declared that this imperfect victory might have been turned into a decisive success had the Earl of Manchester been willing. "I showed him evidently," says Cromwell, "how this success might be obtained, and only desired leave with my own brigade of horse to charge the king's army in their retreat, leaving it to the earl's choice if he thought proper to remain neutral with the rest of his forces. But he positively refused his consent." So far did the inactivity of the Parliamentary general go, that the king was allowed twelve days later to return and remove his artillery and stores from Donnington.

"Manchester's Quarrel with Cromwell" (Camden Society); W. Money, "The Two Battles of Newbury," 1884. [C. H. F.]

Newcastle, Dukes of. [Pelham-Holles; Cavendish.]

Newfoundland, The Colony of, may be regarded as the starting-point of the British Empire, though it owes its existence to two unrelated and non-imperial factors. The first was the search for a North-west Passage to the Far East. The island was probably first discovered by the Norwegians, but was only rediscovered to Europe in 1496 by John Cabot, who was a little uncertain as to what he expected to find. Then followed a series of voyages of which Frobisher's (1576–8), Davy's (1585–7), Hudson's (1609–11), Baffin's (1615–16), are best known. This search was continued in the nineteenth century, being resumed in 1819 to end in 1906 with the actual discovery of the famous but useless passage. The second factor was the cod. From about 1500 Cabot's route became an annual trade route for fleets of fishermen, Bretons, Bristol men, Spanish Basques, Portuguese, all in "armed but innocent anarchy" with a certain rude order preserved by "admirals." Then began a series of settlements, some for purposes of colonization, others of a more commercial nature, being winter settlements to prepare for the summer fishing.

Sir Humphrey Gilbert (q.v.) was granted a patent in 1578, and on his second voyage in 1583 annexed what is now St. John's. A colonizing company was created in 1610 by London and Bristol merchants, which, however, came into conflict with the fishermen. The Star Chamber issued fishing rules in 1621 and elaborated them in the Western charter of 1634. In 1637 Kirke's patent superseded all previous grants, although Baltimore in 1623 and Falkland in 1635 had set up separate colonies on the island. With the absorption of Portugal by Spain in 1580 and peace with Spain in 1604, only French rivals were left on the banks. Spasmodic hostilities occurred during the seventeenth century and then developed into a continuous state of hostility with three marked phases. A French colony was formed at Placentia and attacked in 1692–3, St. John's was captured by the French in 1696, but Newfoundland was ceded to Great Britain by the Treaty of Utrecht (1713), France retaining Cape Breton Island and fishing rights on the banks and drying rights on part of the coast. Then followed a period of growth. Locke's contractual government experiment (1723) was followed by the rise of capitalism, Irish immigration, and transportation of felons. War with France broke out again in 1742. St. John's was captured and recaptured, but the British title to the island was confirmed by the Treaty of Paris (1763). During the American War of Independence America secured acknowledgment of its fishing rights, and the Napoleonic Wars closed the third phase of Anglo-French rivalry with a similar acknowledgment.

Throughout this period there was no system of government, though the island had been separated from Nova Scotia in 1724 and officially recognized as a Crown colony in 1765. The first civil court was estabished in 1791. From 1818 to 1825 Governor Hamilton ruled without a council. From 1825 to 1832 Governor Lochrane ruled with a nominated council, and under Governor Cochrane (1832–55) legislative and executive councils of ten nominated officials were supplemented by a legislative assembly of fifteen elected representatives. From 1843 to 1847 the two houses sat together. Responsible government was granted in 1855 with a legislative assembly of 30 (now 36) and a nominated legislative council of 18 (now 24). The executive is vested in a governor and council of 10. Newfoundland refused to join the Canadian Federation in 1865 and again in 1868, and when she offered to join in 1893 her terms were rejected by the Dominion. French fishing disputes culminated in the Conventions of 1851 and 1885. Arbitration was proposed from 1889 to 1904, when the conclusion of the Entente Cordiale settled the difficulty. American rights were defined in 1854 and 1871. Inaccurate maps and treaty definitions left an unsettled claim by both Newfoundland and Canada over part of the coast of Labrador (q.v.), which was settled by the Judicial Committee of the Privy Council in 1927.

Sir C. P. Lucas, "Historical Geography of the British Colonies," vol. v, part iv, by J. D. Rogers, 1911; D. W. Prowse, "History of Newfoundland," 1896, 2nd ed.; Lord Birkenhead, "The Story of Newfoundland," 1898 and 1920. [H. R.]

Newman, John Henry, Cardinal (1801–1890), was born in London, the eldest son of John Newman, a banker. He entered Trinity College, Oxford, in 1816, and Lincoln's Inn in 1819. Two years later he became a fellow of

Oriel College and began his memorable friendship with Edward Bouverie Pusey. He was ordained deacon in 1824, and became the friend of Dr. Whateley and R. H. Froude. About this time he broke with the evangelical party at Oxford in a pamphlet criticizing the constitution of the Church Missionary Society, and in 1832 he closed his public career at Oxford as a result of a quarrel with the provost of Oriel regarding his tutorship. He went to the Mediterranean with Froude, met Dr. Wiseman, and contracted fever in Sicily. He returned to England in July 1833, five days before Keble preached the sermon on national apostasy which Newman regarded as the beginning of the Oxford Movement. To this movement "Keble had given the inspiration, Froude had given the impetus, then Newman took up the work." Newman met his friends, together with William Palmer, A. P. Perceval, and H. J. Rose, at Hadleigh in July, and in September began the series of "Tracts for the Times" in defence of the doctrine of apostolic succession and the integrity of the Prayer Book. In 1837 he began, in his "Prophetical Office of the Church"—a series of works in defence of Anglo-Catholicism, the *via media*, which gathered to him many followers. But in 1839 he began to doubt the truth of the Anglican view put forward in his "Romanism and Popular Protestantism" (1837), and as a result of a study of the Monophysite controversy which he undertook, and of Dr. Wiseman's "Anglican Claim," he published in 1841 the famous "Tract 90," which brought the Tractarians into great disfavour. He retired to Littlemore and passed three years in seclusion, during which he became convinced that there could be "no valid objection" to joining the Roman Church, in which he found an "identity of the catholicism of to-day with the catholicism of antiquity." In September 1843 he resigned his living of St. Mary's, Oxford; and in October 1845 he was received into the Roman Church. The Oxford Movement broke up, and Newman left Oxford in 1846 until 1878. He was ordained priest in Rome in 1847. In 1851 he was fined £100 for a libel on Achilli, the Dominican monk who had become notorious during the "Papal Aggression" of 1850. He became rector of Dublin University in 1854 and held the post for four years, returning to England in 1858 and entering into a controversy with Charles Kingsley. He was elected an honorary fellow of Trinity College, Oxford, in 1877, and in the following year he was made a cardinal by Pope Leo XIII. On his return he lived at Edgbaston until his death. He had struggled all his life against the doctrine of "liberalism" in religion which had been content to regard "one creed as good as another," and had brought himself to believe in the conception of an infallible Church, which he had sought to realize in the national Church, by means of the Tractarian Movement, until the condemnation of that movement cut away his basis of external authority and forced him to seek truth elsewhere.

Newman's "Apologia," 1864; Dean Church, "The Oxford Movement"; R. H. Hutton, "Cardinal Newman," 1891; C. Sarolea, "Newman's Theology," 1908. [A. C. F. B.]

Newport, The Treaty of (1648). In spite of the vote that no more addresses should be made to the king (January 15, 1648), the Presbyterian majority in parliament seized the opportunity of the second Civil War to open fresh negotiations. On August 24 the vote of No Addresses (q.v.) was rescinded, and it was agreed that efforts should be made to enter into a general and open treaty with Charles I, and that the place of negotiation should be Newport in the Isle of Wight (August 10). The Parliamentary commissioners, five lords and ten commoners, arrived in the island on September 15, and the negotiations began three days later. They continued till November 27, as the king argued every point, and delayed to give decided answers in the hopes of escaping, or being freed by help from France or Ireland. He offered to consent to the establishment of Presbyterianism for three years, but would not agree to the abolition of bishops. His answers on the Church question, and the question of the "delinquents," were both voted unsatisfactory (October 26–30). Nevertheless on December 5 the House of Commons, by 129 to 83 voices, voted "that the answers of the king to the propositions of both houses are a ground for the House to proceed upon for the settlement of the peace of the kingdom." The immediate result of this vote was Pride's Purge (q.v.).

Newtown Barry, in Wexford, was the scene of a rebel defeat by Colonel L'Estrange (June 1, 1798).

Newtown Butler, The Battle of (July 30, 1689), was a victory gained by the defenders of Enniskillen over the Irish adherents of James II.

Nigeria. [West Africa, British Dominions in.]

Nightingale, Florence (1820–1910), the reformer of hospital nursing, was born in Florence and did much valuable social work in England before 1854, when she sailed with thirty-four nurses for the Crimea to tend the British wounded. Her self-sacrifice amid the rigours of her Crimean work won her world-fame.

Biographies by Miss Tooley, 1904, and Sir E. Cook, 1913.

Nile, The Battle of the (or Battle of Aboukir Bay), was fought on August 1, 1798. Nelson, who had followed and passed the French fleet which convoyed Bonaparte's army to Egypt, had arrived at Alexandria two days before the French squadron. Not finding them there, he set sail immediately for Candia, and spent the next four weeks searching the Mediterranean for them. On August 1 his

fleet came in sight of that of the French under Admiral Brueys, which was lying off Alexandria. The British advanced to the attack sailing in two lines, one of which passed between the French and the shore, while the other, led by Nelson in the *Vanguard*, anchored outside the French line, the nine first vessels of which were thus taken between two fires. The action began about half-past six in the afternoon, and before nine five of the French ships had struck or were rendered helpless. Shortly after this the gigantic *Orient* caught fire and blew up. The battle continued till midnight, by which time nearly all the French ships were too shattered to reply. At daybreak it was seen that the whole French line, with the exception of two ships which cut their cables and stood out to sea, had either sunk or struck their colours. The effects of the battle were very important. Bonaparte's army was entirely isolated and the ultimate failure of the Egyptian expedition ensured.

Nelson Dispatches, ii, 49 seqq.; A. T. Mahan, "Influence of Sea Power on the French Revolution," 1892.

Nisi Prius was a name given to a writ issued under the second Statute of Westminster (1285), by which the juries empanelled in any ordinary civil cause were to be presented by the sheriff at Westminster on a certain day, unless before that day (*nisi prius*) the justices of assize came into the county, in which case the trial was to be before the justices, and not at Westminster. Its effect was to lighten the burden of the central courts and to increase greatly the importance of the justices of assize.

Nivelle, The Passage of the (November 10, 1813), was one of the great successes of the closing period of the Peninsular War. The river was strongly defended by Soult, but Wellington found a weak point in his defences and introduced through it the light division into the heart of the French position. This mistake of Soult's resulted in his complete defeat, after a long and severe struggle. Soon afterwards he withdrew to Bayonne. The loss of the allies was heavy, but small compared with that of the French, who, in addition to 4,300 men, abandoned 69 guns and all the field magazines at St. Jean de Luz and Espelette.

Sir C. W. Oman, "Peninsular War," 1902–20; J. W. Fortescue, "History of the British Army," ix, 423–42 (1920).

Nizam, The. On the break-up of the Mogul Empire the Nizam-ul-Mulk, viceroy of the Deccan and feudal lord of the Carnatic, became almost independent of the court of Delhi. He was the ruler of a vast territory between the Kistna and the Narbada with 35,000,000 inhabitants. In 1749 an election dispute was used by both British and French, who supported rival claims, Ali, the British candidate, eventually becoming chief ruler in the Deccan. In 1765–6 the British obtained from him the Northern Circars, which had been granted to the company by the emperor. In 1786–7 he became engaged in war with Tippoo in alliance with the Mahrattas. His services during the war were not of much value, but in spite of this he gained a large accession of territory by the Treaty of Seringapatam (q.v..) In 1794, seeing a Mahratta war was inevitable, he endeavoured to get British help, which was refused by Sir John Shore. Deserted by the British, he was beaten in the Kurdlah campaign (q.v.). Defeated, he allowed a French officer, Raymond, to organize a body of troops which eventually absorbed the whole power of the country, so that the nizam himself became alarmed, and accepted with alacrity Lord Wellesley's proposal to disband them, and renew the British alliance (1798) in return for an annual tribute. In 1806 a treaty was concluded by which the districts the nizam had obtained from Mysore (1793–9) should be ceded as a commutation for subsidy, and that the British in return should guarantee the defence of his kingdom against all enemies. Thus Nizam Ali's long reign ended in making the Hyderabad state completely dependent on the British. In consequence, Hyderabad has survived the wreck of the other native principalities, and exists still as a dependent protected state.

No Addresses, Vote of (January 3, 1648). In December 1647, after Charles I's flight to the Isle of Wight, the Parliament summed up their demands in four bills. The king on December 28 declined to assent to these bills, having on the 26th come to an arrangement with the Scots. On the king's refusal the House of Commons resolved, by a majority of 141 to 91, that no further addresses should be made to the king by that House; that no addresses or applications to him by any person whatsoever should be made without leave of the Houses under the penalties of high treason; that no messages from the king should be received; and that no one should presume to bring or carry such messages (January 3, 1648). The Lords agreed to these resolutions, the three leading dissentients (Stamford, North, and Robartes) absenting themselves for the occasion (January 15).

Nominees, The Assembly of, is the name given by some historians to the parliament which met in 1653, generally known as "Barebones' Parliament" (q.v.).

Non-Compounders, The, who gained their name about 1692, were a section of the Jacobite party who were willing to aid in the restoration of James II without imposing any conditions on him whatever. They consisted chiefly of Roman Catholics, with some Protestant Non-jurors, such as Kettlewell and Hickes. They were all-powerful in the court of St. Germains during the years that followed the Revolution, and their leader, Melfort, ruled the councils of James. We find them much disgusted by the Second Declaration

which James issued in 1693 by the advice of the Earl of Middleton, the leader of the Compounders. On the dismissal of his rival, Melfort and his party guided the Jacobite councils abroad. As the parties ceased after some years to come into collision, the title was gradually dropped.

Nonconformists is a name generally given to all Protestants who refuse to conform to the doctrine, discipline, or worship imposed by law on the Church of England, and who have organized religious associations of their own on a different basis. The mediæval Church system, more intolerant of schism than even of heresy, was incompatible with the existence of Nonconformity. The Reformation necessarily gave scope for freedom of discussion and difference of opinion. At the accession of Queen Elizabeth the constitution of the English Church was definitely settled. The followers of the Continental Reformers found much in the Reformed Church to which they took very strong exception. [PURITANS.] But the early Puritans were discontented conformists, and not nonconformists. The laxness of the ecclesiastical administration during the early part of the reign of Queen Elizabeth allowed many who objected decidedly to the Act of Uniformity to retain their cures without really carrying out the act. Even Cartwright, who attempted to superimpose a presbyterial organization on the existing ecclesiastical system, was in full communion with the Church. The attempt to enforce discipline which was marked by the publication of Parker's "Advertisements" (q.v.) in 1566 was followed by the first definite secession. Thirty-seven out of one hundred and forty beneficed clergy in London were driven from their cures for refusing to wear the surplice. Two deans and many country clergy were similarly deprived. Despite the exhortations of Knox, Beza, and Bullinger, a large number of these "assembled as they had opportunity, in private houses and elsewhere, to worship God in a manner which might not offend against the light of their consciences." Others took refuge in Holland. Those who remained in England formed separate congregations of the Independent type. From their leader, Robert Browne, they received the name of Brownists (q.v.). From another leader they were called the Barrowists (q.v.). [CONGREGATIONALISM.] They remained the only important nonconforming body for nearly a century. Practically the only other Nonconformists were the Anabaptists. Stray foreign members of this revolutionary sect had atoned for their opinions at the stake between the reigns of Henry VIII and James I. But neither they nor the Family of Love, a mystical branch of the same communion, were at all numerous. The constant emigration, especially of the Independents, to New England kept down their numbers; yet it is remarkable that, despite the constant irritation to which they were subjected, but few of the Puritans seceded. Down to the Civil War they continued, as a whole, members of the Church; and though the high monarchist doctrines of the Caroline bishops and the need of the Scottish alliance forced the bulk of the Parliamentary leaders to accept presbytery, the Book of Discipline, and the general assembly, the flux of opinion during the whole of the period of the Civil War makes it hard to draw the line between conformist and nonconformist. Presbyterians, Independents, and Baptists, along with the old clergy who accepted the "Engagements," could be conformists under the Established Church of Cromwell; while Quakers, Fifth Monarchists, and rigid Anglicans were united in a nonconformity which was hardly tolerated. The Restoration destroyed a system which had never been to the satisfaction of any body of Christians. The Act of Uniformity (q.v.—May 17, 1662) imposed on all the beneficed clergy the duty of reading publicly the amended Book of Common Prayer, and of declaring their unfeigned assent to everything contained in it; to receive episcopal ordination if they had it not already; and to abjure the Covenant. Nearly two thousand ministers gave up their cures rather than submit to such conditions. With their secession the history of Nonconformity in England really begins. Despite the series of stringent statutes by which Clarendon and the High Church parliament made nonconformity penal, the chief dissenting Churches now revived their organization. The older bodies, the Independents and Baptists, simply returned with augmented membership to their former condition. A powerful Presbyterian Church was added to the nonconforming bodies, which included not only the zealots of the Covenant, but liberal Low Churchmen like Baxter, whom a conciliatory policy would easily have retained. The swarm of minor sects which the religious anarchy of the Commonwealth had created still continued. The Quakers were the most important of these who did not ultimately become extinct. A few Socinian congregations had already been established, despite the ban of all parties.

In 1661 the Corporation Act (q.v.) deprived the Dissenters of some of their most valued rights as citizens. In 1664 the First Conventicle Act made the meeting of five Nonconformists for religious worship an offence punishable for the first time by fine and imprisonment, and for the third by slavery in the American plantations. In 1665 the Five Mile Act strove to make it impossible for nonconforming ministers to earn a living, and hard for them to escape being sent to jail. In 1673 the Test Act imposed a sacramental qualification on all officials, which most Nonconformists could not conscientiously take. Still, even in this black period, when the jails were full of men like Baxter and Bunyan, traces of more liberal feeling, such as Dr. Wilkins's abortive attempts

at comprehension, were not wanting. The politic attempt of the Crown to unite the Nonconformists with the Catholics against the Church—by means of the various Declarations of Indulgence (q.v.)—signally failed. Nearly successful with the Exclusion Bill, the Nonconformists—this time in alliance with the whole Church party—triumphed in the Revolution of 1688. Their period of direct persecution was now over. The Comprehension Bill indeed, which was to do justice to the descendants of the ejected of 1662, was a failure. But the Toleration Act (q.v.) gave "ease to scrupulous consciences" by allowing those who took new oaths of allegiance and supremacy, and a declaration against popery, to worship freely after their own manner; exempted them from the penalties for absenting themselves from church and holding illegal conventicles; and even permitted Quakers to affirm instead of swearing. But meetings were to be held with open doors, ministers were to approve the thirty-six out of the Thirty-nine Articles which concerned doctrine, and Papists and Socinians were excluded from the act. This imperfect measure of toleration, in conjunction with the practice of occasional conformity, which opened up municipal and other offices, was at the time enough for practical purposes. The attempts of the High Churchmen under Anne to revoke its benefits were not successful. The Schism Act, and the act against Occasional Conformity, were with difficulty passed. But on the accession of George I began the long reign of latitudinarian Low Churchmanship which saw in the Nonconformist a strong support of the Whig party. Though Walpole refused to stir up High Church hostility by repealing the acts of Charles II, it became the custom from the accession of George II to pass an annual Act of Indemnity to those who had broken the Test and Corporation Acts, which made the acts partially inoperative. In 1718 the repeal of the Occasional Conformity and Schism Acts, and failure to repeal part of the Test and Corporation Acts, marked the spirit of the compromise. In 1727 the Presbyterians, Independents, and Baptists were loosely organized into a body known as the Three Denominations, which enjoyed some legal recognition and exceptional privileges. But the general decay of religious fervour which marked the eighteenth century fully affected the Nonconformists. The Presbyterians gradually drifted into Unitarianism in doctrine, and almost into Congregationalism in organization. Nearly all missionary fervour had abated when the Wesleyan movement arose during the reign of George III. The ecclesiastical connexions and Arminian theology of Wesley retarded his influence upon the Nonconformist bodies for a long time; and it was not till after his death that the "people called Methodists" could be regarded as distinct from the Church from which they sprang. The influence of Whitefield (q.v.) was perhaps more direct. But before the end of the century the Evangelical movement had given new life to the Nonconformist churches. The increased interest in religious matters and the spread of the habit of churchgoing largely increased the numbers of all the great religious bodies; a process which was continued during the nineteenth century. Another remarkable feature of the religious history of the eighteenth century was the vast growth of Nonconformity in Wales, not only through the Methodist movement, which developed independently the similar movement in England, but also through the enormous increase of the older Nonconformist communions in that country. The growth of a strong body of Presbyterian Nonconformists from the Church of Scotland, as the result of a series of schisms on the question of Church patronage, must also be mentioned. In Ireland alone, where the two Protestant denominations—the Irish Church and the Presbyterians—correspond roughly to the English and Scottish settlers, was there a comparatively slight development of Nonconformity.

Side by side with the numerical increase of Nonconformity a series of remedial laws gradually removed the disabilities and inequalities which still attended Dissent, even after the days of the Toleration Act. In 1779 the subscription imposed by the Toleration Act on the Dissenting clergy was abolished. In 1792 the Scottish Episcopalians were relieved from the severe restraints in which their disloyalty had involved them. But Fox's attempt to relieve the Unitarians in the same year failed. At last, in 1828, the Test and Corporation Acts were repealed. The Dissenters' Marriage Act of 1836 allowed the solemnization of Nonconformist marriages in their own chapels. In 1868, after a long agitation, compulsory Church rates were abolished. In 1869 the Irish Church was disestablished. In 1870 the University Tests Acts opened to the whole nation the old universities. In 1880 the Burials Act allowed Nonconformist burials in the parish churchyards. It was only after so long a series of struggles that the religious liberties of the Nonconformists were finally established. [BAPTISTS; METHODISTS; PRESBYTERIANISM, ETC.]

J. H. Colligan, "18th-Century Nonconformity," 1915; C. Burrage, "Early English Dissenters, 1550–1641," 1912. Earlier works are Neal, "History of the Puritans"; Calamy, "Nonconformists' Memorial"; Bogue, "History of Dissenters"; Dr. Stoughton, "Religion in England"; T. Rees, "History of Welsh Nonconformity," 1883; Abbey and Overton, "The English Church in the Eighteenth Century." For the early Nonconformists see also the article PURITANS; and for Nonconformity in Wales, W. Ll. Williams, "Making of Modern Wales," 1919. [T. F. T.]

Nonconformists' Chapels Act, THE, was carried in 1844 by Lord Lyndhurst. It provided that where the founder had not expressly defined the doctrines or form of worship to be observed, the usage of twenty-five years should give trustees a title to their endowment. Its occasion was an attack by some of the Nonconformists on the ten Presby-

terian congregations which had diverged into Unitarianism during the eighteenth century, and which had in most instances considerable endowments.

Non-Intervention as a principle of British foreign policy was developed during the period 1815–30, after the Napoleonic Wars. It consisted in a rigid abstinence from interference in the internal affairs of foreign states, and a refusal to associate Great Britain with the policy of interference which, with a view to repressing revolutionary movements everywhere, was embodied in the protocol signed at Troppau by Russia, Prussia, and Austria on November 9, 1820. The greatest champions of non-intervention were Castlereagh, Canning, the Duke of Wellington, and, later, Cobden. The doctrine was enshrined in Castlereagh's State Paper of May 5, 1820, which protested against European intervention in Spain; his State Paper of December 16, 1820, against intervention in Naples; the Duke of Wellington's protest of October 30, 1822, at Verona (q.v.) against the Montmorency Memorandum; Canning's dispatch of March 31, 1823, denouncing the projected French invasion of Spain; the Polignac Memorandum of October 9, 1823, in which Great Britain and France abjured interference in the revolted Spanish-American Colonies; Canning's refusal to attend a congress of powers on the Greek and Spanish questions (November 1824 and January 1825); and the Duke of Wellington's strict policy of non-intervention towards Portugal and Brazil (1828–30) and the French Revolution of July 1830. With Cobden non-intervention went hand in hand with free trade as a means of promoting international goodwill and peace. In its formative period (1815–30) the principle was forsaken only twice: in British intervention in Greece (April 4, 1826) and in Canning's efforts to contrive the downfall of Subserra in Portugal (1824).

C. K. Webster, "Foreign Policy of Castlereagh, 1815–22," 1924; H. W. V. Temperley, "Foreign Policy of Canning, 1822–7," 1925; J. A. Hobson, "Richard Cobden the International Man," 1918; A. G. Stapleton, "Intervention and Non-Intervention," 1867. [A. C. F. B.]

Non-Jurors, The, comprised a considerable minority of the clergy of the Church of England who refused to take the oath of allegiance to William and Mary at the Revolution. They were about four hundred in number, and included the Primate Sancroft and five other bishops, Ken of Bath and Wells, White of Peterborough, Lloyd of Norwich, Turner of Ely, and Frampton of Gloucester, and several eminent divines of whom Jeremy Collier and Charles Leslie were perhaps the most celebrated. They based their objections on the doctrine of non-resistance, maintaining that by the "powers that be" St. Paul meant the powers that "ought to be"; but their writings were more numerous than solid, and Dr. Johnson entertained no unfounded contempt for their reasoning powers. Very few of the laity followed them, as the Protestant Jacobites were not required to take the oath of allegiance as a qualification for attending divine service, and, being in the position of shepherds without sheep, the non-juring clergy sank into idle habits, or took to secular professions. In 1690 the issue of a form of prayer and humiliation by the Jacobite press, at a time when a French invasion was daily expected, aroused the utmost indignation against the non-juring bishops, but they issued a reply solemnly denying any knowledge of the publication. In the following year, after Bishop Burnet had made an ineffectual attempt to conciliate them on dangerously liberal terms, the sees of these bishops were filled up, Sancroft being superseded by Tillotson. The ex-primate, who bore his deprivation with far less dignity than Bishop Ken, thereupon drew up a list of divines which he sent to James with a request that two might be nominated to keep up the succession. James chose Hickes and Wagstaffe. This hierarchy at first caused some alarm to the government, especially when the Non-jurors were found to be implicated in the various Jacobite conspiracies, and they suffered considerably both after 1715 and 1745. Soon, however, schisms broke out within the little body, some having leanings towards the Greek Church, some towards Rome, others being rigidly orthodox in their Anglicanism. By 1720 the communion had broken into two main sections, of which that headed by Spinkes dissented only on the question of the oaths and prayers for the reigning sovereign, while Collier introduced a new communion office of Roman Catholic tendencies. There were also minor divisions. Nevertheless the Non-jurors, who counted among their numbers William Law, the author of "The Serious Call," and Carte the historian, were not finally extinguished until the beginning of the nineteenth century, Gordon, the last bishop of the regular body, dying in 1779, and Borthe, the last of the Separatists, in 1805. There were also Presbyterian Non-jurors in Scotland. These declined to acknowledge William and Mary, first because they were not of their covenant, secondly because they had spared King James. Calling themselves the Reformed Presbytery, they continued to thunder against William and his successors; and, though they split up into factions, there were still in 1780 considerable numbers who resolutely declined to own the government by paying taxes or accepting municipal offices. At length they became so few as to be unable to keep up meeting-houses, and were called Non-hearers. [JACOBITES; SANCROFT.]

T. Lathbury, "History of the Non-Jurors," 1845; J. H. Overton, "The Non-Jurors," 1902; H. Broxap, "The Later Non-Jurors," 1924. [L. C. S.]

Norderies. [ORKNEY and SHETLAND; SUDREYS.]

Norfolk, PEERAGE OF. [HOWARD, FAMILY OF.]

Norfolk, Dukes of. [Howard; Mowbray.]

Norfolk, Roger Bigod, 5th Earl of (1246–1306.) [Bigod, Roger.]

Norfolk Island, now a territory of the Commonwealth of Australia (q.v.).

Norham, The Conference of (May 1291), took place at Norham, on the Tweed, to debate the succession to the Scottish crown. There were present the magnates of both realms together with some popular representatives and a formidable array of lawyers. Edward I offered to settle the dispute for the Scottish crown, demanding as a reward for his services the acknowledgment of his overlordship on the part of the Scots. The conference was suspended for three weeks in order that the Scottish representatives might consult on the matter, and at the end of that time it reassembled at the same place. Edward's title to the superiority over Scotland was admitted and the competitors all acknowledged his authority. After some preliminary inquiry into their various claims, the hearing of the case was delegated by Edward to a commission appointed to sit at Berwick (August 1291). In the meantime the English king was given seisin of Scotland and of the royal castles in his capacity of feudal overlord. The decision of the conference at Berwick was published in November 1292.

H. E. H. Jerningham, "Norham Castle," 1883.

Norman Conquest, The. It might, perhaps, be more accurate to describe the passage of history that goes by this name as the conquest of the English crown by a Norman duke, whom a curious train of accidents and circumstances had tempted into the position of a candidate for the regal dignity, but who had to assert the right to offer himself, not, strictly speaking, against the men of England, but against a rival candidate who had stolen a march upon him. It was certainly an event that involved several consequences galling to the national temper, as well as ruinous to some and injurious to many of the inhabitants; but it was not a conquest of the country in the ordinary sense—the land and people were not conquered by a single alien race, and made subject to another land and people, as was Ireland in earlier and India in later times. A splendid foreign adventurer brought the country to such a pass that its chief men had no choice but to elect him king. The conditions of which this conquest was the outcome were the usual historical mixture of seeming accident and personal character; these began to combine towards the event that was to be their product about 1051. In that year the royal stock of Cerdic and of Ecgbert—from which the unforced choice of the nation had hitherto never swerved—appeared to be approaching extinction; it was as good as certain that the reigning king, the saintly Edward, would die childless, whilst the only other immediate scion of the stock that might be available, Edward, called "the Exile"—Edmund Ironside's sole surviving son—was living in Hungary. Moreover, the lately all-powerful family of Godwin, which might possibly have supplied material for a new royal house, had just, to its last male member, been disgraced and driven from the kingdom. The ordinary and extraordinary possibilities were apparently exhausted. Now, in the eleventh century such a conjuncture could hardly fail to breed ambitious thoughts in an able and enterprising kinsman—albeit by the female and alien side only—of the existing king's, a young man whose spirit was uplifted by a great achievement at home, and who knew that King Edward had, from early associations, a preference for the stranger race to which he belonged. This kinsman was William the Bastard. At the end of the second of two wars that Ethelred the Unready had waged with a Norman duke, the English king had (1002) married Emma, daughter of Duke Richard I. King Edward was an offspring of this marriage. Thus, not only did the ruling houses of England and Normandy become connected, but also the fugitive Athelings of the former found an asylum with the latter, and the one of them who lived to be chosen king learned to love the ways and men of the land of his education better than those of the land of his birth. His eye, therefore, must have fallen with favour on the foremost man of the race he cherished, the great-grandson of his Norman grandfather. And under Edward's fostering care a purely Norman interest was already fast growing up in England: Norman adventurers in considerable numbers were settling in the kingdom and reaping an abundant harvest of lands and preferments, ecclesiastical and civil. Canute's success, too, had shown that the great prize was not beyond the reach of an utter stranger. Moved doubtless by such considerations, in 1051 William seized the occasion of the expulsion of the family of Godwin to cross the Channel on a visit to his cousin Edward, who probably then gave him the assurances of support which William afterwards represented as a promise of the succession to the crown. The crown was not Edward's to bestow, but his persuasions and influence might do much towards fixing the choice of the witan after his death. Yet, if we are to take the word of the "Chronicle," when Edward came near his dying hour he recommended another candidate, Harold, the eldest living son of Godwin; for William was not long returned home when Godwin and his sons forced their restoration. The Norman interest in England was depressed, and in course of time Harold had made himself the first man of the English people. In him, too, ambitious thoughts must have arisen. What looks like an effort on Edward's part to avert the conflict, failed; in 1057 he recalled Edward the Exile only to enable him to die in England. And the

Exile's only son, Edgar, though not too young to be elected at a less critical time, appears for the moment to have been lost in the shadow of the two mighty antagonists. About 1063 or 1064 a misadventure of Harold's gave William a decided advantage over his future rival. Cast ashore on the territory of Guy of Ponthieu, Harold was delivered from the captivity that necessarily followed by the interference of William, who was Guy's immediate lord, and was obliged to share his deliverer's hospitality till he had complied with the conditions that his host exacted. These are not certainly known; but probably were that Harold should "become William's man," and support his claim to the English crown. It is said—and the story may be true—that to add a greater awfulness to Harold's oath, a heap of relics had been secreted under the sacred things on which Harold was made to swear. But the oath had no power to bind the aspiring Englishman. Within two years Edward died (January 5, 1066), and on the next day Harold, presumably after some form of election, was crowned king by Aldred, Archbishop of York, in the newly-consecrated abbey church of Westminster. A few days later tidings of this event came to William, who at once resolved to dispute the possession of the great prize with the man who had sworn to befriend him in his suit, but had now snatched it from him. He first challenged Harold to fulfil the alleged compact; and receiving either no answer at all or an answer that pleaded several excuses for non-fulfilment, he set about making extensive preparations for an expedition against the new king. At Lillebonne he won his somewhat reluctant barons to a participation in the enterprise; he gained the willing assistance of the trading class among his subjects; he denounced Harold as a perjurer over Europe; by pledging himself liberally he secured the sympathies and in a sense the apostolic benediction for his undertaking of Pope Alexander II, who even sent him a consecrated banner and a ring with a hair of St. Peter; he invited volunteers from other lands; and from Flanders, Anjou, Touraine, and Brittany men thronged to his standard. The north-western corner of Europe was awakened to an unwonted enthusiasm by his ardour and loud trumpeting of the merits of his cause. In forwarding his design, Lanfranc of Pavia, and William, the son of the self-sacrificing Osbern, were especially helpful. Forests were felled to build him innumerable ships. By these exertions a great host of mixed composition was, while it was yet summer, collected, first at the mouth of the Dive, and then at St.-Valery-en-Caux, where a transport fleet lay ready to receive them. After a long and harassing delay, due to thwarting winds, the expedition was at last allowed to lift anchor on September 27, and next day it appeared off the coast of Sussex. The moment was eminently favourable. Harold's fleet, which had lain there all the summer to guard the approaches to the land, had been forced from its post by the exhaustion of its provisions; and the Norman host disembarked at Pevensey unobstructed. Indeed, the moment was doubly favourable. Harold and the choicest defenders of his kingdom had, on the very eve of the dread hour, been called northwards to repel a fatally-timed invasion of his brother Tostig and the Norwegian king, Harold Hardrada; and two days before William left St. Valery, had vanquished and slain them both at Stamford Bridge (q.v.). Coast and southern shires alike were thus bare of defence, and William was free to act as he thought best fitted to serve his ends. He led his host to Hastings, raised defensive works there, and proceeded, by a systematic destruction of the houses and ravage of the fields that were within his power, to provoke Harold to stake the issue on a single battle. Harold did not disappoint him. On being told of his rival's landing, he gathered round him his house-carls, and marched with a well-nigh incredible swiftness from York to London, mustered to his standard all the available strength of Wessex and the earldoms of his brothers Gyrth and Leofwine, then led his men rapidly to the hill of Senlac (now Battle); and, arriving on October 13, threw up some sort of rough fortifications, and awaited the onset of the invaders. On the following morning (Saturday, October 14) this onset was given, and after an entire day's fighting, as fierce and obstinate as any recorded in the annals of warfare, the sun set on the slaughter of Harold, his brothers, and the flower of his force, and the hopeless rout of the rest. The completeness of the result is ascribed by some to the impatience of Harold, whose eagerness to rescue the invaded soil, or close with his antagonist, made him give battle with but a fraction of his strength, and, by others, to his brothers-in-law, the Earls Edwin and Morcar, who held their levies aloof from the struggle till it was too late. But it looked as if the terrible day had merely cleared from William's path his most formidable competitor; the surviving leaders of the nation were not yet persuaded to elect him to the kingdom. They chose the boy Edgar instead, and made ready to continue the struggle. Thereupon William took his way by Romney, Dover, and Canterbury towards London, scattered a body of Londoners who tried to check his progress, and set fire to Southwark. But finding the capital still unsubmissive, he went with his army to Wallingford, crossed the river there, and moved on London from the west. This advance brought the witan that directed the resistance to their knees; they decided to offer William the crown; and meeting him at Berkhampstead with Aldred of York at their head, they announced to him the choice they had made. Yet William did not accept the proffered crown till he had consulted with his Norman nobles, and been advised by them to do so. He then dispatched a part of his army to London to

begin the construction of a fortress there, and following leisurely with the main body, was, on Christmas Day, crowned in the great minster by the hands of Archbishop Aldred. An unpleasant incident marred the ceremony. The approving shouts of the English within the church, mistaken for cries of onslaught by the Normans without, made these set the neighbouring houses on fire, and a scene of wild riot and disorder ensued. The crown was now conquered; and shortly afterwards, at Barking in Essex, the full obedience of the country seemed to be conquered also. Thither came the great men of the north, Edwin, Morcar, Waltheof, Copsi, and others, and made formal acknowledgment of William as their king. The Conquest might now be thought complete. From the vast estates of Harold, his brothers, and other partisans, William rewarded his followers; but he confirmed in their possessions and offices those who had not fought against him, on condition of the payment of a fine. To outward appearance the only material change was a Norman instead of an English king, and the addition to the higher and official ranks of the population of a contingent of foreign nobles, each with a foreign following. All was quiet; and the king, having deputed the government to his half-brother Odo, now Earl of Kent, and his friend Fitz-Osbern, now Earl of Hereford, returned to Normandy in March 1067. But the work of conquest proved to be only half done. Owing, it may be, to the harsh or inefficient rule of the regents, armed risings broke out all over the country; and William came back to find that the west and north had still to be subdued. In 1068 he marched upon Exeter, which had placed itself in the hands of Harold's mother and sons, took it after an honourable resistance, and thus brought under his sway the western counties. The northern lands, which were also in rebellion, were awed into transitory obedience by a movement upon Warwick; William entered York, and a Norman force under de Commines went on to Durham. The sons of Harold, after a vain attempt on Bristol, and a defeat in Somerset, sailed away to seek refuge in Flanders. Again the prospect cleared. But again the pacification turned out to be illusive. In 1069 the north was once more in arms; the Normans in Durham were slain to a man; and York was besieged by Gospatric and Edgar the Atheling. For a moment rebellion subsided before William's arrival at York, but only to renew its fury after his departure. The west, the Welsh border, and parts of the Midlands also sprang to arms; Gospatric, Edgar, Waltheof, and Edric the Wild took part in the outbreak; a large Danish expedition that had just landed joined the insurgents; York was stormed, and almost every man of its Norman garrison was put to the sword. Leaving the other centres of insurrection to the industry of his lieutenants, who did not fail him, William took in hand those of the north, and quelled them one by one. The Danes disappeared; Edgar fled; Gospatric and Waltheof submitted, and were replaced in their earldoms. On the rank and file of the rebels William inflicted a fearful punishment. He systematically ravaged Northumbria, till not a single inhabited village remained between York and Durham. Domesday Book, compiled sixteen years later, bears striking testimony to the completeness of the Conqueror's devastation of the north. An arduous march to Chester in the first months of 1070, and the occupation of that city, finished the campaign, and with it to all intents and purposes the process of conquest. When William dismissed his troops at Salisbury in March 1070 the work was practically done. Isolated attempts, such as that of Hereward, had still to be crushed, but the Conqueror's hold on the kingdom was now secure.

The earliest effect of the Conquest resulted from the struggle to complete it; for the fresh services therein rendered by his foreign followers to William were rewarded by the fresh forfeitures that the conflict generated. The ranks of the great landowners were thus stocked almost exclusively by foreigners; and the English titled and untitled nobility were for centuries of mainly foreign origin. The rulers of the land, the men who administered affairs in Church and State, were for some generations taken almost exclusively from the same class; William was either afraid to trust Englishmen or did not find among them the human qualities he sought. But few direct radical changes accompanied the Conquest; the laws and customs of the English remained ostensibly unaltered; the groundwork of the social and political system continued in appearance the same—compurgation, ordeal, the local organization of shire and hundred, fyrd, witenagemot, all survived. Yet actually the application to English institutions of the more advanced and coherent Norman ideas produced in time a change none the less complete because it was subtle and gradual. Thus the inchoate and formless feudalism of the Anglo-Saxon period was moulded by the Norman lawyers into accordance with continental principles; and in time a thorough revolution in the tenure of land, in the relation of the king to the land, and the relation of the landowners to the king was effected. And this process ran up into the highest grades of organization; the king's court of counsellors was composed of his feudal tenants; the ownership of land was now the qualification for the witenagemot instead of wisdom; the earldoms became fiefs instead of magistracies; and even the bishops had to accept the status of barons. Among the miscellaneous effects are prominently noticeable the ultimate union of the various divisions of the kingdom, which had not yet learnt to hold loyally together, into a single homogeneous state and people; the establishment of a strong central government with a remarkable capacity for development and for adaptation to changing

needs; the separation of the ecclesiastical from the civil administration; the closer connexion of the English Church with the Roman see, and its expansion into an imposing grandeur hitherto unknown; the breaking down of the national isolation, and the final entrance of England into the family of European peoples. Great importance is given by some writers to the moral discipline that the Conquest brought; and it has been alleged that the Norman and Angevin sway was the rugged school that fitted the nation for constitutional rule and self-government; but there have not been lacking opponents of this view who point out that the Norman Conquest had its evil as well as its good results. The anarchy of Stephen's reign brought home to the English people the evils of a feudal society; while the continental interests of the Norman and Angevin kings "turned England," it has been said, "from her true line of development towards the sea and involved her in that unholy game of gambling for French provinces which was not to end till the Hundred Years' War was over."

E. A. Freeman, "The Norman Conquest of England," 1867–71; Sir C. W. C. Oman, "England Before the Norman Conquest," 1926; H. W. C. Davis, "England Under the Normans and Angevins," 1915; J. Hodgkin, "History of England to the Norman Conquest," 1906; G. B. Adams, "History of England, 1066–1216," 1905; F. M. Stenton, "William the Conqueror": C. H. Haskins, "The Normans in European History," 1915. [J. R.]

Normans, The. The Normans were simply Northmen or Scandinavians advanced some stages farther in civilization by a few generations of residence in the land of a more humanized people and the neighbourhood of settled states. Their marvellous efficiency in their palmy days is probably explained by their having kept their native hardiness and hardihood of character—their moral muscularity, as we may call it—and their bold spirit of enterprise unimpaired by the culture, the turn for art and taste for the finer pursuits, that they acquired by living in Gaul. Their new experience merely added intellectual keenness, deftness, and brilliancy of stroke to their resources for action; the old stimulating forces, their courage and their endurance, remained. Their ferocity had become valour, and their bodily strength the mastery of circumstances. That they owed the qualities which made their practical capacity to the good fortune that planted them on French soil, is suggested by the totally different history of their kinsfolk who had taken up their abode in other lands. The marauding bands of Norwegian pirates that had been roaming about and forming settlements along the Seine in the ninth and tenth centuries were at last admitted to an authorized participation in the soil by an agreement which Charles the Simple made in 911, at St. Clair-sur-Epte, with their most formidable leader, Rollo. Thus taken within the pale of continental civilization, they rapidly profited by their advantages. They became Christian; they discarded their own and adopted the French language; they cast aside their semi-barbarous legal usages and took those of the Frank cultivators of the soil over whom they dominated; they learned or discovered improved modes and principles of fighting; they acquired new weapons—the shield, the hauberk, the lance, and the bow; they became masterly horsemen; they developed an impressive style of architecture, and built churches and monasteries; they founded bishoprics—in a word, they soon furnished themselves with the whole moral, spiritual, and practical garniture of human conduct then available, with additions and improvements of their own. Their territory had increased by taking in both kindred settlements and the lands of neighbouring peoples, till, from a vaguely described "land of the Northmen," it became historic Normandy. Yet this wonderful growth was compatible with a political condition which was often not far removed from anarchy. The aristocratic class that the free-living, hot-natured pirate leaders had founded, and the unrestrained passions of the dukes replenished from generation to generation, were ever on the watch for an opportunity to break loose from all rule, and govern themselves and the native tillers of the soil that lay beneath them at their own sole discretion. Nor did the sense of moral obligation keep pace with the other elements of progress; a connexion free from the marriage tie was held no shame; bastardy brought no taint. But, in spite of these defects, the Normans made themselves the foremost race in Europe; there are few other things in history so striking as the contrast between the smallness of their numbers and the frequency and greatness of their achievements. During the eleventh century, in the Eastern Empire and in Spain, in Italy and in England, men of the Norman race gained renown and the lordship of spacious lands, became kings and princes, and determined the course of history. "The twelve tall sons of Tancred of Hauteville" had grown into a kind of proverbial phrase suggestive of what it is in the power of man to do. Their craving for movement and adventure sought relief in pilgrimages; and as they always went armed, to enable them to resist lawless attacks, they were ready for any chance of showing their prowess they might fall in with, and they fell in with a good many. Their career in Italy and Sicily in the eleventh and twelfth centuries is even more astonishing, and in not a few of its features more honourable, than their better-known exploits in Britain.

E. A. Freeman, "Norman Conquest," 1867–9; C. H. Haskins, "Norman Institutions," 1918, and "The Normans in European History," 1915. [J. R.]

North, Frederick, Lord, 2nd Earl of Guilford (1732–92), was the eldest son of Francis, 1st Earl of Guilford. He entered parliament first as member for Banbury in 1754, and in 1759 was named a lord of the

treasury through the influence of his relative, the Duke of Newcastle. In 1766 Chatham made him joint-paymaster of the forces with George Cooke, and it was to this singular conjunction that Burke specially alluded when he said that "it did so happen that persons had a single office divided between them, who had never spoken to each other in their lives until they found themselves, they knew not how, pigging together, head and points, in the same truckle-bed." On the death of Charles Townshend in 1767 he accepted the office of chancellor of the exchequer, and became leader in the House of Commons. On the fall of the Grafton ministry the king at once sent for Lord North, and found him so useful a servant that he retained his services for twelve years. Those years formed a most eventful period, for during them the Wilkes question was fought out, and the American colonies were for ever lost to the empire. To Lord North cannot fairly be imputed all the mistakes of that ministry. He was essentially weak and yielding, and was constantly overruled by the king, where his own better sense would have led him to adopt a different course. As early as the spring of 1778 we find him expressing a wish to resign: a wish which he repeated at intervals during the next four years, and which he was only prevented from carrying into execution by the king's almost piteous entreaties to him to remain in office to carry out the court policy. At length the surrender at Yorktown gave the final blow to his ministry, and in the spring of 1782 he insisted on resigning. Then followed the short Rockingham ministry, which collapsed on the death of Lord Rockingham, and was succeeded by Shelburne's ministry, which in turn gave way to the celebrated coalition ministry in which North and Fox were strangely united as secretaries of state (April–December 1783). But the universal distrust which such a formation roused, and the secret influence employed by the king to thwart its measures, brought it to a conclusion at the end of 1783. When Pitt began his long tenure of office Lord North retired into private life. In 1790 he succeeded to the earldom on the death of his father, and died two years afterwards.

A. Mervyn Davies, "George III and the Constitution," 1921; "Correspondence of George III and Lord North," ed. W. B. Donne, 1867; biographies by W. H. J. North, 1889, and R. J. Lucas, 1913.

[W. R. S.]

North, The Council of the, was one of the Council Courts of the Tudors. It originated in the anarchy of the Scottish border, which mediæval kings had sought to curb by the erection of castles and by the creation of the office of Warden of the Marches in 1309; and in the anarchy of the northern counties of Yorkshire and Northumberland. Henry VIII in 1522 appointed Henry Fitzroy, Duke of Richmond, to be lieutenant-general north of the Trent and warden of the Scottish Marches, to govern with the advice of a council known as "Richmond's Council," or the "Council of the North." From this council a "King's Council in the North Parts" was separated in 1530; and it was this latter which Cromwell converted into a permanent institution as a result of the Pilgrimage of Grace (1536) (q.v.). The commission was issued in July 1537, Tunstall, Bishop of Durham, being the first president, and the councillors numbering seven. Their authority—to punish "all offences which disturbed the peace and tranquillity of the king's subjects in the counties of York, Northumberland, Westmorland, and Durham . . ."—was confirmed by the Subsidy Act of 1540 and the Tallage Act of 1571. The council was abolished by the Long Parliament, along with the courts of Star Chamber and High Commission, in 1641.

R. R. Reid, "The King's Council in the North," 1922; J. R. Tanner, "Tudor Constitutional Documents," 1922. [A. C. F. B.]

"North Briton," The. [Wilkes.]

North Foreland, The Battle of the (June 1666), was fought between the English and Dutch fleets, the former commanded by Prince Rupert and the Duke of Albemarle, the latter by De Witt and De Ruyter. The Dutch were totally routed.

North Sea Outrage, The, took place on the night of October 21, 1904, during the Russo-Japanese War, when the Russian Baltic Fleet on its way to the Far East under Admiral Rodjestvensky, passing down the North Sea, fired upon a Hull fishing fleet under the delusion, it was alleged, that they were Japanese torpedo-boats. The steam trawler *Crane* was sunk. Urgent representations were at once made by the British cabinet, demanding immediate explanation and reparation. An international commission of inquiry was held, its first meeting taking place on November 22, 1904, and its final one on February 25, 1905. In the following month the Russian government paid £65,000 as an indemnity to the Hull fishermen.

"Annual Register," 1904–5.

North-West Frontier Province, a province of British India, constituted in 1901 separate from the Punjab, was formed out of the district of Hazara, on the eastern side of the Indus, and several districts on the western side. It has an area of 38,665 square miles. The Province was constituted in order to provide more immediate control over the frontier tribes. [Curzon, George Nathaniel.]

North-West Provinces, The (since 1901 the United Provinces of Agra and Oudh), were the acquisitions of Lord Wellesley, and were so named because at the time they formed the north-west frontier of India.

Northampton, The Battle of (July 10, 1460), was fought during the Wars of the Roses (q.v.). In 1459 the Yorkist lords had fled in confusion from Ludford (q.v.), and parliament had attainted them. In the summer of 1460 they returned to England, landed in Kent, and

speedily raised a considerable force, with which they entered London. Henry VI was in the Midlands, and thither the confederate lords marched; the Lancastrians advanced to meet them, and took up a position on the banks of the Nen close to Northampton. Here they were attacked by the Yorkists, and, after a contest lasting only half an hour, totally routed. The Duke of Buckingham, the Earl of Shrewsbury, and many others were slain on the Lancastrian side; the king was taken prisoner, and the queen was obliged to take refuge in Scotland. Henry was subsequently compelled to acknowledge York as heir to the throne (October 1460).

R. B. Mowat, "Wars of the Roses," 1914.

Northampton, Earl of, Marquis of. [Howard; Parr.]

Northbrook, Thomas George Baring, Earl of (1826–1904). [Baring.]

Northcote, Sir Stafford Henry, 1st Earl of Iddesleigh (1818–87), was educated at Eton and Balliol and called to the bar at the Inner Temple in 1840. He was returned to parliament for Dudley in the Conservative interest in 1855, for Stamford in 1858, and for North Devon in 1866. He was private secretary to Gladstone when the latter was president of the board of trade, and was financial secretary to the treasury from January to June 1859. He was appointed president of the board of trade in Lord Derby's third administration (1866); secretary of state for India (1867–8); and elected governor of the Hudson's Bay Company (1869). Subsequently he was a member of the commission which arranged the Treaty of Washington. In 1874 he took office as chancellor of the exchequer under Disraeli, and when his chief retired to the House of Lords he became leader of the House of Commons. On the fall of the Beaconsfield ministry he became leader of the opposition in the House of Commons, but on the accession of Lord Salisbury's ministry, in 1885, went to the House of Lords as the Earl of Iddesleigh, and became first lord of the treasury, exchanging this office for that of foreign secretary in 1886. He died suddenly on January 12, 1887.

Biography by Andrew Lang, 1890.

Northern Territories. [West Africa, British Dominions in.]

Northern Territory, The, of the Commonwealth of Australia (q.v.).

Northmen. [Danes.]

Northumberland, Earls and Dukes of. [Dudley; Percy; Neville.]

Northumbria, the most northern of the great old English states, included as its normal limits the whole of the territory between the Firth of Forth on the north and the Humber on the south. The sea bounded it on the east, while on the west the Pennine range, with its northern continuation, the Ettrick Forest, divided it from the British kingdoms of Cumbria and Strathclyde. But considerable districts to the south of the Humber were at one time included within its boundaries, while the western frontier was necessarily constantly shifting, and was gradually, although slowly, pushed farther back. Like the other so-called "Heptarchic" kingdoms, Northumbria consisted originally of several separate settlements, though the absence of so definite a tradition as that in the south makes it harder to ascertain their limits and history. In the north a Frisian settlement seems to have been made on the shores of the Firth of Forth, which Nennius calls the Frisian Sea (see on this subject Skene's "Celtic Scotland" and "Frisian Settlements on the Firth of Forth"), but of this state we have practically no knowledge. The rest of Northumbria was colonized by Angles. Bernicia, the district north of the Tees, had for its first king Ida, who is said to have come from the north, and to have built as his capital Bamburgh, named after his wife, Bebba. He gained many victories over the Britons, the confused tradition of which is, perhaps, preserved in the oldest Welsh poetry (see Skene's "Four Ancient Books of Wales"). He reigned twelve years (547–59), and was succeeded by several sons in succession, of whose history nothing is known. In 593 his grandson, Ethelfrith, son of Ethelric, became king. He was a man of energy and ambition. His marriage with the daughter of Ella, who in 560 had established another Anglian kingdom in Deira, the district between the Tees and the Humber, was the excuse for the expulsion of Edwin, the son of that monarch, and the union of Bernicia with Deira. Thus Ethelfrith became the first king of the Northumbrians. His defeat of the Scots at Degsastan (603), and of the Welsh at Chester and Bangor-Iscoed (613), gave further strength to the new kingdom. But Edwin of Deira had found a powerful protector in Redwald of East Anglia, the "Bretwalda," and in 617 Ethelfrith was slain on the banks of the Idle in an attempt to subdue his chief rival for the sovereignty of Britain. Edwin now became King of the Northumbrians. His marriage with Ethelburga, daughter of Ethelbert of Kent, led to his conversion to Christianity in 627. In a solemn witenagemot the Northumbrians accepted the new religion, and Paulinus, the queen's chaplain, became first English bishop of York, the old capital of Deira, and now of Northumbria. The victories of Ethelfrith had prepared the way for the overlordship over South Britain which Edwin seems to have assumed. He is fifth on the list of Bretwaldas, and Bæda says that "he ruled both over English and Britons," and that his dominion included the two Monas—Anglesey and Man. With him the Northumbrian supremacy, which lasted for the greater part of the century, really begins. But he found in Penda of Mercia, and in Cadwallon, the great Welsh

king, formidable competitors. In 633 their combined forces defeated and slew Edwin at Heathfield. All Northumbria was for a whole year subject to the conquerors, who seem to have aimed at lessening its power by splitting it up again into its original divisions of Bernicia and Deira. But in 634 Oswald, son of Ethelfrith, returned from his refuge in Iona, drove out the Britons and Mercians, reunited the two kingdoms, and laboured for the introduction of the Columban type of Christianity with a zeal that merited his canonization. Yet in 642 he, too, was slain by Penda at the battle of Maserfield. His brother, Oswy, who succeeded him, was compelled to yield Deira to Oswin, son of Osric, his cousin. In 651 Oswy contrived to compass the death of his rival, but the jealousy of Penda provided Deira with another king in Oidilwald. But in 654 the victory of Winwaed over the Mercians, weakened by the defection of Oidilwald, Penda's dependant, led to the final triumph of Oswy. Penda perished on the field. Bernicia and Deira were again united. Oswy became undisputed lord of the English, as well as master of Strathclyde Welsh, Picts, and Scots. In alliance with Theodore of Tarsus he settled the ecclesiastical constitution of England, and his declaration in the Synod of Whitby (664) for the Roman in preference to the Scottish Churches was critical in determining the course of the future history of Britain. He was the most powerful of all the Northumbrian monarchs, but with him departed the glory of his country. His son and successor, Egfrid (671–85) wasted, in efforts to convert a real supremacy over the Picts into a thorough conquest, the resources that Oswy had used so well. The death of Egfrid on the fatal field of Nechtansmere (685) was followed by the revolt of the Picts, Scots, and Strathclyde Welsh. His long quarrel with Wilfrid of York had convulsed the internal relations of the country. The rise of Mercia now gave the English states a new master. The next king was Aldfrid (685–705), an illegitimate brother of Egfrid, who had in exile been a pupil of the Scottish monks, and was called the "learned king." He was the patron of the great literary movement which had begun with Caedmon and Benedict Biscop, and which long outlasted the political importance of Northumbria. During the eighth century Northumbria is only remembered as the home of Bæda, Alcuin, Archbishop Ecgbert, and other great scholars. Meanwhile a series of revolutions, seditions, and tumults had brought the Northumbrian monarchy to the verge of dissolution. No fewer than fourteen obscure kings ascended the throne between the death of Aldfrid and 796; of these "at least thirteen ended their reign by extraordinary means." Eardwulf (705) was dethroned after a reign of two months. Osred, son of Aldfrid, was slain by his kinsfolk (716). Cenred, after a two years' reign, came to a calamitous end (718). Osric, his successor, was slain in 729. Ceolwulf, the next king, abdicated, and became a monk (737), as did his uncle's son Edbert in 758, after an almost unprecedented reign of twenty-one years. Oswulf (758–9) was slain by his own household after a year's reign. Of his successor, Ethelwald Moll (759–65), we are only told that he "lost his kingdom." The solemn deposition of Alchred (765–74) by the witan was an important precedent for later times. Ethelred, son of Ethelwald (774–9), was driven into exile. Elfwald (779–88) was slain by conspirators. Osred II (788–90) was deposed, and exiled, but returned, and was murdered, whereupon Ethelred was restored, only to be killed by his turbulent people in 796 during a great famine that was accompanied by portents, and succeeded by a destructive Danish inroad. Osbald, a noble, became king for twenty-seven days, but Eardwulf was then called from exile to the throne. In 806 he was driven into exile, but was restored by papal influence. When he died is uncertain. The chroniclers now cease to give a regular succession of the Northumbrian kings. The Danes had reduced the kingdom to an extremity of disorder. The Mercian overlords had few difficulties with the decrepit state. In 829 the Northumbrians became the vassals of Ecgbert without so much as a battle. In 867 the Danes took advantage of the deposition of King Osbright, and the election of a prince not of the royal blood, to take possession of York. In 875 inroads for plunder were exchanged for definite conquests, and next year Halfdane, the Danish leader, divided Deira amongst his willing followers. Thus ingloriously the kingdom of Edwin came to an end. A line of English ealdormen long continued to reign in Bamburgh over Bernicia, but they were cut off from the great West Saxon monarchy by Danish Deira. The gradual subjection of Halfdane's successors to the Basileus of Winchester, the incorporation of the Bamburgh earldom, the reassertion of Northumbrian local feeling in the great earldom of Canute, the grant of the Lothians to the King of Scots, the final conquest of Northumbria by William I, from which time alone we can date its extinction as a separate district, are the chief events of later Northumbrian history.

[T. F. T.]

KINGS OF NORTHUMBRIA

Ethelfrid	593–617
Edwin	617–633
Oswald	634–642
Oswy	642–671
Egfrid	671–685
Aldfrid	685–705
Eardwulf	705
Osred I	705–716
Cenred	716–718
Osric	718–729
Ceolwulf	729–737
Edbert	737–758
Oswulf	758–759
Ethelwald Moll	759–765
Alchred	765–774
Ethelred	774–779
Elfwald	779–788
Osred II	788–790
Ethelred (restored)	790–796
Osbald	796
Eardwulf (restored)	796–806

KINGS OF NORTHUMBRIA—*continued.*

Elfwald (restored)	806–808
Eardwulf (restored)	808–810
Eanred	810–840
Ethelred II	840–844
Redwulf	844
Ethelred II (restored)	844–848
Osbright	848–861
Ella	861–867

Sir C. W. C. Oman, "England Before the Norman Conquest"; T. Hodgkin, "Political History of England," vol. i.

Norton, FLETCHER, 1ST BARON GRANTLEY (1716–89), was born at Grantley, near Ripon. After being called to the bar, he was in turn appointed king's counsel (1754), attorney-general for the county palatine of Lancaster and solicitor-general (1762). In 1763 he became attorney-general, but went out of office with the Grenville ministry in 1765. While in that office he had to encounter the difficult question of general warrants; and his impetuous recklessness did not smooth the way for his colleagues. Upon the resignation, in 1769, of the chair of the House of Commons by Sir John Cust, Norton was elected to fill the vacancy. Through the excited years of Lord North's administration he filled the office of Speaker with some ability, and with a fearless indifference to consequences. In 1780 he paid the penalty of his independence by being rejected when proposed for re-election as Speaker. When, in 1782, the Marquis of Rockingham came into power Norton was raised to the peerage as Baron Grantley.

Norton, RICHARD (1488 ?–1588), a zealous Catholic of the north, took part in the Pilgrimage of Grace (q.v.), and in 1569, though a very old man, was an active supporter of the rebel Earls of Northumberland and Westmorland, whom he joined with his sons. His seventh son, Christopher (*d.* 1570), formed a plan to carry off Mary Stuart from Bolton Castle, but was foiled in its execution; and subsequently took an active part in the northern rebellion of 1569, and was in consequence executed at Tyburn.

Norway, MAID OF, is a designation for Margaret, daughter of Eric II and Margaret of Norway. After the death of her grandfather, Alexander III, she was proclaimed Queen of Scotland, and was betrothed to Edward, son of Edward I of England, under the terms of the Treaties of Salisbury and Brigham. The Maid, however, died on her homeward voyage (1290).

Norwich has been identified with the Venta Icenorum of the Romans, but this is improbable. It is more likely an English city whose recorded history begins with the mint founded by Athelstan. It was burnt by the Danes, under Sweyn, in 1003. After the Conquest a strong castle was built there, and the city was made an episcopal see. Henry II granted a charter in 1158, and Richard I in 1194. A serious riot occurred in Norwich in 1272, and in 1381 the insurgents, headed by John Litster (q.v.), attacked the city and plundered it. Once again, in 1549, it suffered from a popular revolt, when the city was captured by Robert Ket (q.v.) and his associates. Since 1298 it has returned two members to parliament, and after about 1330 it enjoyed two annual fairs (formally granted in 1482). Norwich cathedral was founded in 1096 by Bishop Herbert de Lozinga.

"Victoria County History: Norfolk."

Norwich, THE BRIDAL OF (1075), was the occasion of the organization of a powerful conspiracy against William the Conqueror. The refusal of the king to allow Ralph Guader, Earl of Norfolk, to marry the sister of Roger, Earl of Hereford, was disregarded, and a plot was formed at the wedding-feast to depose William and partition England between the two conspirators and Earl Waltheof, whom they sought to make a party to their schemes. Waltheof, however, betrayed the plan to Lanfranc. The rising was promptly quelled, and the conspirators either fled or were heavily punished.

Nottingham was taken by the Danes in 868, and confirmed to them by the Peace of Chippenham (q.v.). It was restored and refortified by Edward the Elder, 922. In 1013 it submitted to Sweyn. In 1067 William the Conqueror reconstructed and strengthened the castle. It was taken and burnt twice during the wars between Stephen and Matilda. Parliaments were held at Nottingham in 1334, 1337, and 1357. The first charter was granted by Henry II. In 1461 it was the scene of the proclamation of Edward IV. In 1485 it was the headquarters of Richard III before the battle of Bosworth. In the Civil War it was at Nottingham that Charles I set up his standard, August 22, 1642. The castle was dismantled (1644) by Cromwell's orders and rebuilt in 1680. In 1811–12 Nottingham was the scene of formidable "Luddite" riots (q.v.), and of a Reform riot in October 1831.

"Victoria County History: Nottinghamshire."

Nottingham, EARLS OF. [FINCH; MOWBRAY.]

Nova Scotia, one of the Maritime Provinces of the Dominion of Canada (q.v.).

Novel Disseisin. [ASSIZE.]

Noy, WILLIAM (1577–1634), was born in Cornwall, and was called to the bar in 1602. He represented various Cornish boroughs in all the parliaments of James I and Charles I until 1629. Until 1631 he was a champion of constitutionalism in parliament, opposing monopolies and proposing a Habeas Corpus Act. But on his appointment as attorney-general in 1631 he became, in his own words, "one that must serve the king's turn." He showed great zeal in the prosecution of Prynne and Sherfield in 1633, and in Prynne's second prosecution in 1634. He was a great friend of Laud.

Nugent, Sir Richard, 15th Baron Delvin (1583–1642), was an Irish nobleman concerned in the rebellion of Tyrone and Tyrconnel (1605). He was imprisoned in Dublin, but succeeded in making his escape. Afterwards he was pardoned by James I, and created Earl of Westmeath in 1621.

Nuncomar (*d.* 1775), was a high-caste Brahmin, who intrigued for the deposition of Mohammed Reza Khan from the dewani of Bengal, hoping to obtain his place. Disappointed of this, and encouraged by the enmity of the council, he brought various charges of peculation against Warren Hastings (1775), who in return had him accused, and he was hanged for forgery.

Sir J. Stephen, "Story of Nuncomar," 1885.

Nunneries. The large majority of English nunneries before the dissolution (1536–1540) belonged to the Benedictine order. The following is a list of some of the most important: Shaftesbury (Dorset), founded, according to tradition, by Alfred, which was so wealthy that Fuller tells us it was a proverb with the country folk "if the Abbot of Glastonbury might marry the Abbess of Shaftesbury, their heire would have more land than the King of England"; Barking (Essex), said to have been founded by Erkenwald, Bishop of London, 666, which had for its first abbess Ethelburga, afterwards canonized; Amesbury (Wilts), of Saxon foundation, but refounded by John in 1199; St. Mary (Winchester); Malling (Kent); Markyate (Bedfordshire); Catesby (Northamptonshire); Clerkenwell, founded c. 1100; Godstow (Oxfordshire), founded c. 1133; Haliwell (Middlesex); St. Helen's (London), founded at the beginning of the thirteenth century; Stratford-at-Bow (Middlesex); Chatteris (Cambridgeshire); Polesworth (Warwickshire); Sheppey (Kent); Wherwell (Hants).

The Cistercian houses were usually small; among the most important were Tarrant (Dorset) and Swine (Yorks). The great nunnery of Dartford, founded 1355, was disputed between the Augustinian and Dominican orders, but was held by the latter at the dissolution. Syon (Middlesex), founded in 1414 and almost the wealthiest house in England, was held by Brigittine nuns (a branch of the Augustinians, reformed by St. Bridget of Sweden); Syon House was, in 1604, granted to the Earl of Northumberland.

The Minoresses, or Poor Clares (the female Franciscans), held four houses in England. The greatest was that in London, where they were placed by Blanche of Navarre, wife of Edmund of Lancaster, about 1293. This nunnery outside Aldgate has given its name to the Minories. Their only other house of importance was at Denny (Cambridgeshire).

Dugdale, "Monasticon Anglicanum"; E. Power, "Mediæval English Nunneries," 1922; L. Eckenstein, "Women and Monasticism," 1896.

[W. J. A.]

O

Oakboys, The, was the name given to the Western Protestant tenants in Ireland, who, complaining chiefly of exorbitant county cess, collected in bodies in 1764, houghed cattle, and burnt farms. They never became formidable.

W. E. H. Lecky, "Ireland in the Eighteenth Century," ed. 1900.

Oates, Titus (1649–1705), was educated at Merchant Taylors' School and St. John's College, Cambridge. He took holy orders and was presented to a small living. A charge of perjury being brought against him, he was forced to give up this position, and was for a short time chaplain in the navy. He was soon dismissed, and then became Protestant chaplain in the Duke of Norfolk's household at Arundel. In association with a fanatical clergyman, Israel Tonge, he devised the story of the Popish Plot (q.v.—1678), which was readily accepted by the popular fears. Everywhere it was rumoured that Protestantism was in danger, and Oates communicated to the authorities that the Catholics were plotting to kill the king and massacre Protestants with the assistance of a French army. Various incidents just then happened which confirmed Oates's story, and he became a hero. He was rewarded with a monthly salary of £40, and a suite of apartments was devoted to his use at Whitehall. In 1685, however, on the accession of James II, Oates was convicted of perjury, and sentenced to stand in the pillory annually, be whipped at the cart's tail, and imprisoned for life. After the Revolution (1688) parliament declared his trial to be illegal and ordered his release, granting him a pension of £5 a week. His attempts to regain notoriety after this were unsuccessful.

Burnet, "History of His Own Time," ed. O. Airy, 2 vols., 1897–1900; J. Pollock, "Popish Plot," 1903.

Oath, The Coronation. [Coronation.]

Oaths in Courts of Law are imposed both upon jurymen and witnesses. They may be traced back to a very remote date, and are intimately connected with the much-vexed question of the origin of trial by jury. The law of Ethelred II directed that the twelve senior thegns in each wapentake should be sworn not to accuse any falsely. Though this is an isolated piece of legislation, we find that in England, as among the other Germanic races, an oath was habitually imposed in the courts upon the parties to a suit and their compurgators, and upon the witnesses who were called in if it was held that the oaths of the former were inconclusive. By the system of sworn recognition introduced by the Normans, which they derived probably from the Frank capitularies, oaths were also enforced, and though first applied to civil cases, this system was extended by the Assize of Clarendon (q.v.) to criminal cases as well. It is needless to discuss

here the gradual divergence of the three elements of the jury system, the grand jury, the petty jury, and the witnesses, and it is enough to say that when their separate functions became defined (c. Edward III to Henry IV) oaths were still imposed upon all three. The later aspects of the question of oaths in courts of law chiefly concern the claims to exemptions from taking the oath that have been put forward from time to time. As in the case of the parliamentary oath, the three classes of persons affected are those who believe in God but are not Christians, Quakers and kindred sects, and atheists, and the legislation concerning them falls chiefly within the reign of Victoria. In 1837 it was provided that persons not professing the Christian religion might take the oath in any form they consider binding; hence Jews employ the words "so help me, Jehovah," and Mohammedans swear by the Koran. Quakers were permitted to make an affirmation instead of taking the oath, in 1833, and this privilege was confirmed by subsequent legislation. In 1854 it was provided, chiefly for the benefit of those who belonged to no recognized religious sect, and consequently did not come under the former relief acts, that if any person called as a witness should be unwilling to be sworn from conscientious motives, he might make a solemn affirmation, and the same privilege was granted to jurors in 1867. These enactments were consolidated in the Evidence Amendment Acts of 1879 and 1880. In 1888 an Oaths Act was passed, allowing anyone to affirm who pleaded that an oath was contrary to his religious belief, or that he had no such belief. [L. C. S.]

Oaths, Parliamentary, were first imposed in the year 1679, when it was enacted that no member could sit or vote in either House until he had taken in its presence the several oaths of allegiance, supremacy, and abjuration, severe penalties being imposed on anyone who should neglect the ceremony. This measure was re-enacted in 1700 and 1760, but in 1829 the Catholic Relief Act provided an especial form of oath for Roman Catholics. In 1866 the Parliamentary Oaths Act substituted one oath for the three previously in use, which in 1868 was altered with the idea of including all religious denominations, the form being, "I, A. B., do swear that I will be faithful, and bear true allegiance to her Majesty Queen Victoria, her heirs and successors, according to law. So help me God." By the law of 1866 a penalty of £300 was imposed on members of both Houses for voting before they had taken the oath, and in the House of Commons the seat was vacated as if the member were dead. In the Upper House, however, a bill of indemnity was usually passed. Standing orders also provided at what hour the oath was to be taken. The most remarkable refusals to take the oaths were those of Sir H. Monson and Lord Fanshaw in 1688, and of Daniel O'Connell in 1829, before the Relief Act was passed, but in neither instance was the objection entertained. The case of the Jews was brought up by the claim of Baron Rothschild in 1850, to take the oaths, omitting the words "on the true faith of a Christian" in the oath of abjuration. A resolution was carried, however, that he was ineligible; nor was Alderman Salomons more successful in the following year. After the question had been discussed in several successive sessions, an act was passed in 1858 by which a Jew was allowed to omit the obnoxious words, and a resolution to that effect became a standing order in 1860. The Parliamentary Oaths Act of 1866 finally placed Jews on an equality with other members, by omitting the words altogether from the form of oath. The right of Quakers, Moravians, and Separatists to make an affirmation instead of taking the oath was first contested by John Archdale in 1693, but unsuccessfully. Several statutes were, however, passed to that effect in the reigns of Anne, George I, and George II; and upon a general construction of these statutes, Joseph Pease, a Quaker, was allowed to affirm in 1833. In the same year acts were passed allowing Quakers, Moravians, and Separatists, and those who had ceased to belong to those persuasions, to make an affirmation instead of taking the oaths; and this concession was confirmed by the Parliamentary Oaths Acts of the following reign. In 1880 Charles Bradlaugh (q.v.), who had been elected for Northampton, claimed to make an affirmation under the Evidence Amendment Act of 1869 and 1870. The report of a select committee being adverse, he presented himself to take the oath, but it was refused. In 1883 the government introduced an Affirmation Bill, but it was thrown out in the Commons. After the general election of 1885 Bradlaugh took the oath without challenge, and in 1888 an act was passed, at his instigation, giving members the choice between taking the oath and making affirmation. [L. C. S.]

O'Brien, William Smith (1803–64), was the second son of Sir Edward O'Brien, of Cahimoyle. His eldest brother, Sir Lucas O'Brien, who was a Tory, became in 1855 Lord Inchiquin, as heir of the Marquis of Thomond. Smith O'Brien was educated at Harrow and at Cambridge, and in 1828 became the Tory representative of Ennis. He was an energetic opponent of O'Connell. From 1835 to 1849 he represented Limerick, and in 1846 he openly joined the Young Ireland party (q.v.), led by Meagher and Mitchel. His descent from Brian Boru, and the claims he imagined himself to have to the Irish crown seemed to a certain extent to have turned his brain. His idea was to establish an Irish republic with himself as president. In 1848 he opposed in parliament the Treason-Felony Bill then proposed, and he was afterwards tried under that very bill in Ireland, but the jury disagreeing, it became necessary to allow him to go free. The treasonable charac-

ter of his plans was, however, becoming clear, and an attempt was made to arrest him. He now left Dublin, and began haranguing the peasantry of the south. At last, on July 25, 1848, he assembled a large body in arms, and led them on the 29th against the police at Boulah Common. O'Brien escaped after the fight, and a reward of £500 failed to lead to his apprehension. On August 5, however, he was recognized at Thurles, as he was quietly taking a ticket for Limerick, and lodged in Kilmainham Jail. On September 28 he was tried at Clonmel by a special commission, and sentenced to death, but his punishment was commuted to transportation. Unlike his fellow-conspirators, he refused a ticket-of-leave, and was sent to Maria Island. In 1856 he received a free pardon, and returned to Ireland. He died at Bangor, and the transportation of his remains thence to Ireland led to a Nationalist demonstration. In private life he was one of the most truthful and kind-hearted of men.

Hodges, "Report of the Trial of Smith O'Brien," 1849.

O'Briens, The Sept of, the most powerful clan in Munster, their chief stronghold being the city of Limerick, claimed descent from Brian Boru (q.v.). In 1543 Murrough O'Brien was made Earl of Thomond for life. He became a Protestant, and displayed more than the usual eagerness for Church lands; he sent a paper to England called the "Irishman's Request," asking for Oxford and Cambridge men to convert the people. Ultimately all his dignities fell to his nephew, Donough, whom, in accordance with the Irish custom of tanistry, he had supplanted. The 4th earl (Donough, *d.* 1624) was a distinguished soldier, and fought against the Spaniards at Kinsale. The family became extinct in 1741.

Occasional Conformity, The Bill against, was designed to prevent Dissenters from complying with the provisions of the Test Act (q.v.) only so far as to qualify themselves for office or membership of a corporation. It was introduced for the first time in 1702 by three Tory members, one of whom was Henry St. John, and provided that anyone who attended a dissenting meeting-house after having taken the sacrament and test for offices of trust or the magistracy of corporations should be immediately dismissed and heavily fined. This measure passed the Commons, but was rejected by the Lords, though Queen Anne put great pressure on that House to pass the bill. A similar fate attended it in the following year, and again in 1704, when the more violent Tories, led by Nottingham, proposed to carry it against their opponents by "tacking it" to the Land Tax Bill. In 1711, however, Nottingham and his "Dismals" formed an unprincipled coalition with the Whigs, the terms being that the latter should support the Occasional Conformity Bill; and it accordingly became law, the money fine being reduced from £100 to £40. This discreditable act continued in force until 1719, when General Stanhope introduced a measure under the cunning title of a "Bill for strengthening the Protestant Interest," by which the Occasional Conformity Act and the Schism Act were abolished, but from which he was forced to exclude the Test Act.

W. T. Morgan, "English Political Parties in the Reign of Anne," 1920.

Ochterlony, Sir David (1758–1825), after having served in the Carnatic under Hastings and Coote, first appeared prominently as Colonel Ochterlony in the capacity of resident at Delhi (1803), after the conquest of Sindhia's French troops. In this capacity he conducted the defence of Delhi in the most gallant manner when Holkar besieged it on his return from Malwa in 1804. In 1814 he was given the command of the division destined to act against Amar Singh in the Gurkha War (q.v.). Driving Amar Singh from point to point he at last shut him up in Malaun. He was raised to the rank of major-general, and had conferred upon him the Grand Cross of the Bath, being the first of the company's officers to attain to that honour. In 1816 he took command of the army for the second Gurkha campaign, which he brought to a successful conclusion. After the war he was appointed British resident in Malwa and Rajputana, and as such had in 1824 to deal with the disputed succession at Bharatpur. The governor-general, Lord Amherst, disapproved of Sir David's measures, and he was reprimanded. He thereupon resigned. The treatment he had received broke his heart, and he retired to Meerut, where he died within two months.

O'Connell, Daniel (1775–1847), was the son of an Irish gentleman of very ancient family. He studied at Louvain, St. Omer, and Douai; was driven from the continent by the French Revolution; and went to London to read for the bar. In spite of the opposition of his family he came forward (January 13, 1800) as a determined opponent of the Irish Union, soon became the leader of the Catholic party, and in 1823 founded the Catholic Association. In 1825 he was prosecuted for saying that "he hoped some Bolivar would arise to vindicate Catholic rights," but the grand jury ignored the bill. It was at his instigation that, in 1826, the Catholics began to show their power at elections. In 1828 he himself stood against Vesey Fitzgerald, and by means of the forty-shilling freeholders won the Clare election, his opponent retiring after five days' polling. His influence in the same year was strong enough to prevent a collision between the Catholics and the Orangemen, which seemed impending. The Emancipation Bill followed (April 1829), but O'Connell having been elected before was still excluded from parliament. He presented himself at the bar of the House (May 15, 1829) and pleaded with great ability to be allowed to sit; his application was

refused, and a new writ issued, but he was returned unopposed and allowed to take his seat. He was now called the "Liberator" in Ireland, and was adored by the people. In 1831 he was forced to plead guilty to a charge of holding illegal meetings, and although he was not punished, his influence was shaken at the time. He in vain opposed the Coercion Act of 1833, but did much service to the Whigs in promoting the cause of reform. Afterwards O'Connell and his "tail," as his followers in parliament were derisively called, were for some time able to exercise great influence in that assembly, for he held the balance between Whigs and Tories. In 1838, however, he had to submit to a reprimand from the Speaker for accusing a member of perjury. In 1840 he revived the Repeal agitation, and in 1843 uttered language that was considered treasonable at the monster meetings he convened. But when government forbade the meeting at Clontarf on October 7 he failed to make good his words, and the Young Ireland party (q.v.), among whom were the most talented of his followers, separated from him. O'Connell and his more immediate followers were arrested and prosecuted for conspiracy. A jury, composed entirely of Protestants, found him guilty, and he was sentenced to a year's imprisonment and a fine of £2,000. The English House of Lords by three to two reversed this decision (1844). This was hailed with enthusiasm, but the Repeal agitation was nevertheless crushed. O'Connell lived for some years longer, but his health was giving way. On February 8, 1847, he delivered his last speech in the Commons, and died soon after at Genoa. In England he was scarcely looked upon as a serious personage, and derisive epithets such as the "big beggarman" were constantly applied to him. But in Catholic Ireland the influence obtained by his character, his energetic championship of the cause of his co-religionists, and his powers as a popular orator, was unprecedentedly great.

O'Connell's "Speeches," edited by his son, 1846; biographies by R. Dunlop, 1900, and M. MacDonagh, 1903; A. Houston, "Daniel O'Connell, His Early Life and Letters," 1906.

O'Connor, Arthur (1763–1852), heir-expectant to Lord Longueville, an intimate friend of all the English Whigs, joined the United Irishmen (q.v.) in 1796. In that year he was with Lord Edward Fitzgerald in France, and concerted with Hoche for an invasion. In 1797 he was imprisoned in Dublin Castle, but was soon released. Though the government was aware of his treason, it was unable to produce its information. O'Connor now established virulent papers like the *Press* and the *Northern Star*, advocating assassination. On February 27, 1798, while on his way to the French Directory as envoy of the Irish insurrectionary party, he was arrested at Margate, and brought before the Maidstone assizes. All the most distinguished members of the opposition, however, came forward as witnesses to character, and he was acquitted. He returned to Ireland, but was arrested on another charge, and kept in prison. Lord Cornwallis gave him and his confederates a pardon on condition of a full confession of his treason. This he did in a tone of bravado before a committee of the Lords. He was then sent to Fort George, and kept there till the Peace of Amiens. The American government refused to receive him, and he went to France.

Musgrave, "History of the Rebellion."

O'Connor, Feargus (1794–1855), Chartist leader, was educated at Trinity College, Dublin, and called to the Irish bar. In 1832 he was returned to parliament as a repealer for County Cork, and mixed with the English Radicals. On being unseated in 1835 he first contested Oldham in vain and then spent much time in travelling about the Midlands and the north. In 1837 he founded the weekly *Northern Star*, and became the leader of the movement which took for its cry the "People's Charter" of 1838 [Chartism], amid the attacks of Lovett's Working Men's Association. He was identified with the "physical force" party, and though not present at the Newport rising of November 1839 he was arrested in March 1840 on a charge of sedition and imprisoned for eighteen months. In March 1843 he was again arrested in connexion with the Plug Riots of 1842. In 1846 he founded with Ernest Jones the "Chartist's Co-operative Land Company." In 1848 he presided (April 10) at the famous meeting at Kennington Common. From this date his mind gradually gave way.

O'Connor, Roderick (or Rory), King of Connaught (*d.* 1198), was the son of Turloch O'Connor. He attempted to succeed to his father's power, but was unable to recover it till 1166 when Murchertach MacLochlainn of Ulster was slain. Roderick was then recognized in the north at least as lord of Ireland. Dermot MacMurchada of Leinster, who had been the chief supporter of MacLochlainn, fled to England to solicit help, and his appeal bore fruit in 1169–70 in the Anglo-Norman invasion of Ireland. [Ireland.] In cruelty Roderick could be the equal of his rival; thus he put to death a son and grandson of Dermot, who were his hostages. He was unequal, however, to the task of repelling the Anglo-Norman attack, and was routed in 1171 before Dublin. When Henry II went over to Ireland in person O'Connor refused to pay him homage. In 1175, however, he concluded a treaty with Henry through ambassadors at Windsor. He thereby acknowledged himself as Henry's vassal, and promised to pay tribute. In return the English king recognized him as overlord of all Ireland, which was not in the hands either of the king himself or of his Norman barons. In his later years he retired to his own abbey of Cong, where he remained in peaceful seclusion till his death in 1198. He left

the title of High-king to be disputed between his grandson Cathal Carrach and his brother Cathal Crovderg.

O'Connors, The Sept of the, was long supreme in Connaught. They rose to importance in the twelfth century under Turloch (1106–56), who made himself king of all Ireland. His son Roderick (Rory) (q.v.) is famous for his connexion with Dermot of Leinster and the Anglo-Norman conquest of Ireland. The establishment of the de Burghs in Connaught by John greatly weakened the influence of the O'Connors, and a long conflict ensued, the O'Connors aiming at the restoration of their shattered authority. On the invasion of Edward Bruce, Felim O'Connor at first sided with the English, but soon after he changed sides, tempted by the promise of the undivided sovereignty of Connaught, and the slaughter of Athenry in 1316 put an end to the existence of the clan as a force in Irish politics. [Connaught.]

Octennial Bill (1768). In 1761 an agitation for a Septennial Bill had begun in Ireland, where, till then, a parliament was of necessity dissolved only by the king's death. In 1761 a bill to this effect was passed, but though returned from England, an error of the draftsman served as an excuse to the Irish parliament for rejecting it. In October 1767, however, the agitation recommenced, chiefly because the bill had not been mentioned in the speech from the throne. In 1768 it was finally introduced as an Octennial Bill, and passed.

October Club, The (1710), was composed of a strong phalanx of Tory members, who, though by no means entirely Jacobite, were chiefly influenced by those who were such. It had long been customary for the members of a party, when some important measure was before parliament, to meet at a tavern for the purpose of concerting a plan of action. The society was termed a club. Soon after the beginning of 1710 a few of the extreme Tories began to hold a series of meetings at the "Bell," in Westminster. "The password of this club—one of easy remembrance to a country gentleman who loved his ale—was October." The October Club soon set themselves to work to undermine the power of Harley, whose moderation they scorned. It was from there that the Jacobites looked for supporters in the last years of Queen Anne's reign. The Bolingbroke faction belonged to the October Club. They took great delight in vindictive attacks on the Whigs, especially on Sunderland.

W. T. Morgan, "English Political Parties in the Reign of Anne," 1920.

Odal, or Udal, Right, is a tenure of land which still prevails to some extent in the Orkney and Shetland Islands, and which before the growth of feudalism was the ordinary tenure of the Teutonic races. Its distinctive feature lies in the fact that land held by this right is held absolutely, and not dependent upon a superior. Odal right is thus antagonistic to feudalism, which recognized service as the only title to land.

Odo (or Oda), Archbishop of Canterbury, 942–59, was the son of one of the Danish chieftains who had taken part in the invasion of 866–7. Odo was attracted by the preaching of a Christian missionary, and embraced the Christian faith. He was adopted by Athelhalm, ealdorman of Wiltshire, and, taking orders, was in 927 made Bishop of Ramsbury. In 942 Odo was promoted to the archbishopric. The archbishop-elect at once declared his intention of becoming a monk, thus placing himself at the head of the party of reform in the Church, whose object it was to encourage monasticism, introduce the Benedictine rule, and enforce celibacy amongst the clergy. During the reign of Edred this party had the ascendancy, but his successor, Edwy, seems to have joined the party of the secular clergy. Odo and Dunstan declared that Edwy's marriage with Elgiva was uncanonical, and after a great deal of violent dispute Edwy consented to divorce her. The story of Odo's subsequent cruel persecution of Elgiva's mother, Ethelgifu, is in all probability absolutely mythical. [Dunstan, St.]

Odo, Bishop of Bayeux (*d.* 1097), was the son of Herluin de Canteville by Herleva of Falaise, the concubine of Robert of Normandy and mother of William the Conqueror. He accompanied and greatly assisted his half-brother in his invasion of England. After his coronation William bestowed on Odo the castle of Dover and large estates in Kent and elsewhere. It is generally supposed that he was created earl about the same time; but in point of fact it is uncertain whether he ever actually bore the title, although he exercised the comital jurisdiction. In 1067, during William's absence in Normandy, he acted as regent of the kingdom in conjunction with William Fitz-Osbern. Their harsh and oppressive rule contributed to the risings of the English in various parts of the country which disquieted the early part of William I's reign. However, for the next fifteen years Odo remained second in authority only to William himself; and in 1075 he took an active part in crushing the rebellion of the Earls of Hereford and Norfolk. He now aimed at the papacy, but his ambitious projects were cut short by the king, who had him arrested as Earl of Kent, and committed to prison, where he remained till William's death. Though he was released and restored to his earldom and estates by Rufus, he inspired the feudal revolt of 1088 on behalf of Robert of Normandy. Being taken prisoner, he was compelled to quit the country, and retired to Normandy, where he acted as adviser to his nephew Robert, and accompanying him on

the Crusade in 1096, died at Palermo in February of the next year.

E. A. Freeman, "Norman Conquest," 1867–71; H. W. C. Davis, "England Under the Normans and Angevins."

O'Donnell, Hugh Baldearg (*d.* 1704), the descendant of an ancient Celtic family, was in the service of the Spanish government when he heard that his countrymen had risen against the Revolution Settlement of 1688. The King of Spain refused him permission to join them. He thereupon made his escape, and after a circuitous journey through Portugal he landed at Kinsale in 1690. His appearance excited great enthusiasm; 8,000 Ulster men joined him, and he went to the assistance of the garrison at the first siege of Limerick. After the defeat of the Irish at Aghrim it was hoped that he would come to the defence of Galway. But he studiously held aloof. Soon afterwards he joined the English army with a few of his devoted followers, and on several occasions did valuable service for William III.

O'Donnell, Hugh Roe, called "Red Hugh" (1571 ?–1602), was a brother of Rory O'Donnell, 1st Earl of Tyrconnel. In 1587 he was treacherously seized by order of Sir John Perrot, and kept a prisoner at Dublin as a hostage for his brother's good behaviour. He escaped after three years' captivity, and at once joined Hugh O'Neill. In 1601 he commanded the O'Donnells, who marched with O'Neill to raise the siege of Kinsale, and their defeat there is said to have been, in part at least, due to his impetuosity. In 1602 he sailed to Spain with a long train of followers, and was received by the court with great distinction, but died soon afterwards.

O'Clery's "Life of Hugh Roe O'Donnell," ed. D. Murphy, 1893.

O'Donnell, Rory, 1st Earl of Tyrconnel (1575–1608), was brother of Hugh Roe O'Donnell. In 1604 he gave up his Irish title, and received a grant of his lands and the earldom from James I. In 1607, however, he seems to have conspired with O'Neill, Earl of Tyrone, and with him at all events he went abroad, where he died, after being attainted, in 1608.

O'Donnells, The Sept of the, were powerful in Ulster, where the O'Neills were their hereditary foes and rivals. Calvagh O'Donnell (*d.* 1566) was captured by Shane O'Neill, together with the Countess of Argyll, his wife, in 1560, and remained a prisoner till 1564, and even then he had to purchase his release by the loss of a large part of his lands. In James I's reign, however, the O'Donnells regained their possessions.

Offa, King of Mercia (757–96), was of the royal house of Mercia, a cousin of Ethelbald, the last sovereign in the direct line of descent. He drove out the usurper Beornred, and quickly made himself master of the kingdom. Under him Mercia became the greatest power in Britain. He thoroughly subdued Kent by his victory at Otford in 774, inflicted in 777 a great defeat on Wessex at Bensington, and annexed the land of the Chilternsaetas to Mercia. Henceforward all southern England was subject to his sway, and in 793 he slew Ethelbert, King of East Anglia, and annexed that region to Mercia. He defeated the Welsh in a series of campaigns, and pushed the boundaries of Mercia westward. Finally, to protect his frontiers he constructed from the Wye to the Dee a great dyke or earthwork, the remaining traces of which still bear his name. Offa was very liberal to the Church both at home and abroad, and founded many monasteries, among which was certainly the great abbey of St. Albans. He seems, however, to have resented the supremacy of Canterbury; and to assert the independence of Mercia and increase his own prestige, he secured the permission of Pope Hadrian to establish a third archbishopric at Lichfield, within his own borders (786). In return Offa promised to the pope an annual payment of 365 gold mancuses—a donation which was probably the origin of the later Peter's Pence (q.v.). The external relationships of Offa were of first-rate importance. He dealt almost on equal terms with Charlemagne, who after his victory over the Avars of Pannonia in 786 dispatched some of his trophies to the Mercian king in token of his goodwill. A double marriage alliance between the Frankish and Mercian houses was proposed, though never executed; and a commercial treaty was concluded between the two kings. The English scholar Alcuin, who resided at Charlemagne's court, was a bond of union between England and Frankland. Further testimony to the extension of commercial intercourse at this date is afforded by Offa's coinage, which included a silver penny modelled on the "denarius" of the Carolings, and a gold mancus copied from the "dirhem" of the Saracen caliphs. The code of laws which Offa drew up has unfortunately perished. Of his importance and ability there can be no doubt; in fact, were our knowledge of his reign less incomplete, we should probably rank him little below that model of Anglo-Saxon rulers—Alfred the Great.

T. Hodgkin, "Political History of England," vol. i; R. W. Chambers, "England Before the Norman Conquest," 1926.

Offaly, Lords and Barons of. [Fitzgerald, Family of.]

Oglethorpe, General James Edward (1696–1785), after serving in the army with distinction, was returned to parliament as member for Haslemere (1722). He was celebrated for his philanthropy. In October 1732, having obtained a charter for settling the colony of Georgia in Virginia, he sailed with 120 associates from Deptford. The town of Savannah was founded before his return to England in 1734. On his second journey to Georgia in 1736 he took with him as secretary Charles Wesley. By means of alliances with

the Indians Oglethorpe managed to ward off the danger threatening his settlements from Spain, notably in 1739 and 1742. He played a prominent part in 1745 in suppressing the Jacobite rebellion, though he was suspected of complicity in the plot and was court-martialled.

Biography by H. C. Cooper, 1904.

Olaf (Anlaf), Haroldson (or St. Olaf) (*d.* 1030), a cousin of Olaf Tryggvason, was chosen king by the Norwegians on the death of Sweyn, who had virtually ruled their country since 1000. Canute, as soon as he was established on the English throne, endeavoured to reassert his father's suzerainty over Norway, and demanded from Olaf the performance of homage (1022). His demand was refused, and three years later he set out with a magnificent fleet, largely manned by English, to assert his supremacy. An indecisive naval engagement was fought at the Helge river, and Canute again retired. In 1028 he renewed the attack, this time with greater success. The Norwegian king fled before him into Sweden, where he managed to secure the help of many outlaws and broken men. With them, and a faithful knot of personal friends, he returned to Norway to regain his throne; but at the battle of Sticklestead he was defeated and slain (1030). His body was hastily buried, but with the revival of national sentiment among the Norwegians he came to be venerated as a saint and martyr, and his remains were later translated in great state to a shrine at Trondhjem (Drontheim). Many English churches are consecrated to him. Tooley Street, in London, still preserves his name in the old Danish quarter.

Olaf (Anlaf), Tryggvason (*d.* 1000), was a member of the house of Harold Harfagr, exiled from Norway by the dominant family of Eric Blood-Axe. His first appearance in English annals is probably in 991, when, we are told, he came with 450 ships to Stone, and thence to Sandwich, and thence to Ipswich, harrying all about, and so to Maldon. Here he was met by Brihtnoth, the famous ealdorman of Essex, whom he defeated and slew. In 994, with Sweyn, the Danish king, he laid siege to London, but failed to take it. They then harried, burnt, and slew all along the coasts of Essex, Kent, Sussex, and Hampshire. On receipt of £16,000 they agreed to a peace, and Olaf promised never again to visit England save peacefully. Next spring he went to Norway and wrested the kingdom from Earl Hakon; here he ruled for five years, during which time he established Christianity in the various districts of Norway and her colonies. He appears to have met his death at the hands of his former comrade-in-arms, Sweyn, in the great sea-fight of Ewold in 1000. Rumours of his living later at Rome and in the Holy Land as a hermit were long rife in the North, but may be dismissed as purely legendary.

Oldcastle, Sir John, styled Lord Cobham (*d.* 1417), was a trusted servant of the Crown in the Welsh Marches, and a personal friend of Prince Henry, to whose household he appears to have been attached. He was an earnest follower of Wyclif and became the leader of the Lollard party. In 1413 the clergy determined to strike a blow at them by indicting Oldcastle. Henry's personal intervention failed to move him from his heretical opinions, and he was accordingly summoned before the archbishop. He refused to appear, and was excommunicated. At last, compelled to attend before a spiritual court at St. Paul's, he yet refused to recant his opinion, and reasserted many of his former statements. Thereupon he was pronounced a heretic, and imprisoned in the Tower; but succeeded in making his escape. A conspiracy was now formed to seize the person of the king at Elmham, and a great gathering of Lollards was arranged for at St. Giles's Fields. Henry's promptitude prevented the plan from maturing, and Oldcastle escaped from London. In 1415 he attempted to incite a rebellion, but in 1417 he was captured in the Welsh Marches, and put to death as a heretic and a traitor. Sir John Oldcastle married as his third wife the heiress of the barony of Cobham, and in her right was summoned to parliament as Lord Cobham, by which name he is often known. [Lollards.]

J. Gairdner, "Lollardy in England," 1908.

Olive Branch Petition, The (July 1775), was the ultimatum on the part of the American colonies prior to the War of Independence. It was a petition drawn up by Congress, urging the king to direct some mode of reconciliation. Respectful and conciliatory, the petition proposed no terms or conditions, though it was generally understood that the colonies would insist on the repeal of the obnoxious statutes, and would require some solemn charter regulating the relations of the two countries in the future. The petition was entrusted to Richard Penn, joint proprietor of the influential colony of Pennsylvania. But on his arrival in London in August "no minister waited on him or sent for him, nor even asked him one single question about the state of the colonies." The king would have nothing to do with the petition or its bearer. The American envoys foresaw too clearly that the result of the refusal would be bloodshed; but Lord Dartmouth only expressed the popular misconception of the gravity of the situation when he said that if he thought the refusal would be the cause of shedding one drop of blood he would never have concurred in it.

Omdut-ul-Omrah (*d.* 1800), Nawab of the Carnatic, on the death of Mohammed Ali (q.v.—1795) succeeded to the throne and debts of his father. During his administration the prosperity of the country was rapidly declining, and the resources of the government were threatened with extinction. He was, however,

surrounded by European money-lenders, and enabled to pay the British subsidy and thus defer the crisis for a short time. Lord Hobart, governor of Madras, proposed that the mortgaged districts should be ceded to the company in lieu of the subsidy. This the nawab refused, and also a similar proposition by Lord Mornington in 1799. On the outbreak of hostilities with Tippoo, Lord Wellesley demanded a war contribution, which was promised, but not paid. Various propositions of cession were made in lieu of subsidy, but all were refused. Meanwhile the nawab had continued the intercourse and correspondence with Tippoo which his father had begun in violation of the treaty of 1792, and at the capture of Seringapatam proofs of this were discovered. Before, however, any action was taken the nawab died (1800).

M. Wilks, "Mysore," 1818 and 1869.

Omichund was a wealthy banker of Murshidabad, who became acquainted with the plot which Mir Jafar (q.v.) had arranged with Clive for the destruction of Suraj-ud-Dowlah (1756). He demanded £300,000 as a bribe for silence. Clive therefore caused two treaties to be made out between Mir Jafar and the British—the real one on white paper, in which Omichund was not mentioned, and the other, the false one, on red, containing a promise to pay him this sum. Clive and the committees signed both, but Admiral Watson refused to sign the false one. Clive therefore forged his signature. When Omichund became aware of the deception he lost his reason.

Biographies of Clive.

O'Neill, Con Bacach, Earl of Tyrone (*d.* c. 1559), joined the Geraldines in their rebellion, and for a long time maintained himself against the English forces. In 1542 he consented to resign his title of "The O'Neill," and, being refused the earldom of Ulster, went over to England and was made Earl of Tyrone; his favourite, though illegitimate son Mathew being elevated at the same time to the peerage as Lord Dungannon and the earldom entailed on him. But he could not maintain his power, and a furious struggle broke out between Mathew's son and his uncle Shane, in which the latter triumphed.

O'Neill, Hugh, 3rd Baron of Dungannon and 2nd Earl of Tyrone, called "the arch rebel" (1540 ?–1616), was the son of Mathew, Baron of Dungannon, who was himself the base son of Con O'Neill, 1st Earl of Tyrone. He first appears as commander of a troop of horse on the queen's side against Desmond. In 1585 the rank and title of Earl of Tyrone were acknowledged to be his, and, on his appeal to the queen, he was also invested with the lands attached to the earldom. He married as his second wife the daughter of Sir Nicholas Bagenal, but was suspected of having carried her off by force. Afterwards he was the ally of Red Hugh O'Donnell (q.v.), but nevertheless he still temporized while he sought to obtain help from Spain. In 1595 he at last threw off the mask, and, assuming the royal title of "The O'Neill," allied himself with the neighbouring clans. After some fighting he seemed ready to submit, and was pardoned in April 1598. He was soon in arms again, however, and on August 14 he overthrew Sir Henry Bagenal in person at the battle of Blackwater. Ulster, Connaught, and Leinster in consequence rose. The queen, now thoroughly alarmed, sent over the Earl of Essex as lord-lieutenant. He brought with him ample powers, and an army of 20,000 foot and 2,000 horse, the largest Ireland had seen. The two leaders met at a ford on the borders of Monaghan and Louth; a truce was arranged, and Essex consented to submit O'Neill's demands to the queen (September). They included complete freedom of religion and the restoration of all forfeited land to the O'Neills, the O'Donnells, and to Desmond. Essex soon afterwards left Ireland, and Lord Mountjoy succeeded him as commander of the English forces. The rest of the country gradually submitted, but O'Neill still held out in hopes of foreign succour. In 1601, 4,000 Spaniards at last landed at Kinsale, and some 2,000 more at Castlehaven. Kinsale was at once besieged by Lord Mountjoy and the Earl of Thomond. O'Neill, joined by O'Donnell, and by Captain Tyrel with the 2,000 Spaniards from Castlehaven, marched to raise the siege. Against his own better judgment he engaged the English forces on December 23, 1601, and was defeated with a loss of 1,200 killed. In crossing the Blackwater on his retreat he suffered another severe loss and was himself dangerously wounded. The lord-deputy then followed him into Tyrone, took his forts, ravaged the country, and even broke to pieces the old stone seat on which the O'Neills had been from time immemorial inaugurated as chiefs. When all hopes of Spanish succour came to an end Mountjoy induced the queen to accept O'Neill's submission, which he made at Mellefont, and he was reinstated in his earldom of Tyrone. James I at first treated him very kindly, but, when the English shire system began to be introduced and the penal laws to be carried out, Tyrone conspired with Tyrconnel and the Spaniards. In 1607 he fled to Rome, where he died in 1616. By the death of his sons soon after, this branch of the O'Neills became extinct.

Biography by J. Mitchel, 1846; D. Coffey, "O'Neill and Ormonde," 1914.

O'Neill, Owen Roe (1590 ?–1649), was a grandson of Hugh, 2nd Earl of Tyrone. He had been an officer in the Spanish service, but returned to Ulster, where in July 1642 he assumed command. He was soon hailed as "The O'Neill," though he was not in the direct line of descent. The council entrusted him with the command in Ulster; but he was not at first very successful, and had to appeal to them for help. But on June 5, 1646, he won the splendid victory over Monro's Scots and English at Benburb (q.v.). He was opposed

to the reconciliation between Ormonde and the Catholics, and in 1649 went so far as to come to an agreement with Monck; but after Rathmines the English parliament refused to agree to this treaty, and he then proceeded to join Ormonde. Before he could effect his purpose, however, he died.

D. Coffey, "O'Neill and Ormonde," 1914; J. F. Taylor, "Owen Roe O'Neill," 1896.

O'Neill, Sir Phelim (1604 ?–53), was one of the leaders in the Ulster rising of 1641. He was a weak man, and the only one among the leaders who seems to have really allowed and encouraged outrages. Early in 1642 he announced that he was entrusted with a royal commission. He also began to style himself "The O'Neill." In July 1642, however, the command dropped from his feeble hands, and Owen Roe O'Neill, his successor, expressed in strong terms horror and disgust at his conduct. In 1653 he was tried before the High Court of Justice at Kilkenny, presided over by Sir Gerald Lowther, and, together with some 200 others, convicted and executed.

T. Fitzpatrick, "The Bloody Bridge," 1903.

O'Neill, Shane (1530 ?–67), was the legitimate eldest son of Con O'Neill. By Henry VIII's patent the earldom of Tyrone, as granted to Con, was to descend to Mathew, his base son, and his heirs. Mathew had before Con's death fallen by Shane's hand, but his son was supported by England. Shane O'Neill, however, won recognition as "The O'Neill" by a large part of the clan, and held out in rebellion against the Earl of Sussex, his personal foe. An attempt to set up O'Donnell against him led to that chief's capture (1560). As Shane was anxious for peace, he was induced to visit England, where he was well received by Elizabeth, but not allowed to return. When, however, in 1561, the young Earl of Tyrone (Mathew's son Brian) was murdered by one of his kinsmen Shane was allowed to depart, and at once succeeded to all his nephew's power. In 1564 the lord-deputy made an attempt at a meeting with Shane at Dundalk to induce him to liberate O'Donnell, who was still his prisoner. This he finally did, but on terms sufficiently humiliating for England and its ally. Soon afterwards he concluded a treaty with Sir Thomas Cusack, in accordance with which he submitted; he was, however, allowed to call himself "The O'Neill" till an English title should be found for him, and the garrison of Armagh was withdrawn. This treaty he observed very faithfully, and, in accordance with the wishes of the English, he attacked and for the time destroyed the Island Scots (q.v.) in 1564. When Sir Henry Sidney went over as lord-deputy Shane refused to restore O'Donnell's lands, and ravaged the Pale. In consequence he was attacked, and in 1567 all his forts were taken, and his clan abandoned him. He fled to the Scots, but was murdered.

Ollamh, "Story of Shane O'Neill," 1904.

O'Neills, The Sept of the, was the regal race of Ulster, representative of the ancient family which governed Ireland before the days of Brian Boru. At the time of Edward Bruce's invasion in 1315 their chief, Donal, resigned his title in favour of Bruce, but, after Bruce's defeat and death at Dundalk, Donal was driven from Tyrone and died in obscurity in 1325. The regal title of The O'Neill was, however, always borne by the chief of the Sept when he was in arms against England. In 1542 Con O'Neill (q.v.) submitted to Henry VIII, and in return for the surrender of his hereditary title was made Earl of Tyrone, being refused the earldom of Ulster. The old claims were however, revived under Elizabeth by Shane and Hugh O'Neill, and in the seventeenth century by Phelim and Owen Roe.

Ontario, or Upper Canada, is a province and one of the original federating states of the Dominion of Canada (q.v.).

Opium Wars. [China, Relations with.]

Orange Free State. [South Africa, Union of.]

Orangemen, The, was a term which began to be used as early as 1689, and was applied to the upholders of Revolution principles. On September 21, 1795, the first Orange lodge was instituted by the Peep-o'-Day Boys (q.v.). The lodges multiplied, their chief object at that time being to disarm the Catholics, who indeed had no right to keep arms. By 1797 they numbered 200,000 men. Many noblemen and gentlemen joined them, and it was their influence which counteracted that of the United Irishmen (q.v.) in the north. In 1825 they were dissolved by the Association Bill. In 1836, however, they again numbered 145,000 members in England and 125,000 in Ireland. The Duke of Cumberland was Grand Master, and the Orangemen were suspected of a wish to change the succession in his favour by force of arms. Consequently, after a parliamentary inquiry, their lodges were broken up. In 1845 they were again revived, and many faction fights followed in Ireland. In 1869 great excitement was created by the arrest of their Grand Master for violating the Party Processions Act. Later they became active in their opposition to Home Rule.

W. E. H. Lecky, "Ireland in the Eighteenth Century," ed. 1900.

Ordainers, The Lords, consisted of eight earls, six barons, and seven bishops, appointed in March 1310, to hold office till Michaelmas 1311, and to draw up ordinances for the reform of the realm. A precedent for the appointment of such a commission was found in the proceedings of the Oxford Parliament of 1258, and in both cases it is noticeable that the Commons had no share in the matter. Archbishop Winchelsey was at the head of the clergy, while among the earls the

extreme party, led by Thomas of Lancaster, predominated. Two days after their appointment the Ordainers issued six preliminary ordinances, and when parliament assembled in August 1311 thirty-five were laid before it. The range of these enactments was extraordinarily wide, but the most important clauses were those which provided for the control of the king and for penalties against his favourites. The offices of state and of the household were to be filled with the consent of the barons in parliament; the king was not to go to war, raise an army, or leave the kingdom without the permission of parliament. He was "to live of his own," and special judges were to be appointed to hear complaints against the royal officials and bailiffs. The ordinances, it has been well said, were "a complete programme of limited monarchy." The party of the Ordainers broke up as a result of the capture and treacherous execution of Piers Gaveston (q.v.) in 1312; Lancaster and his supporters made formal submission to Edward II in October 1313.

T. F. Tout, "Place of Edward II in English History," 1914.

Ordeal. This name, once written *ordál* and *ordél*, etymologically signifies a distribution into "deals" or parts, then a discriminating, and then a deciding (Ger. *Urtheil*), and was given to a peculiar method of reaching the facts in criminal cases that made a feature of the Anglo-Saxon judicial system. Though represented as an inheritance from pagan times, it is described as "a reference to the direct judgment of God," and would seem to have been allowed as an alternative to those who failed in or shrank from the process by compurgation or by oath. "If he dare not take the oath," says an old law, "let him go to the triple ordeal." But the recorded details will not warrant a positive statement. We only know that in certain circumstances, while the court, sheriff, bishop, thegns, etc., declared the law, the ordeal was expected to reveal the facts. The ceremony took place in church. After three days of severe discipline and austere diet, having communicated and made oath that he was innocent, the accused person, standing between twelve friends and twelve foes, when a special service had concluded, plunged his arm into boiling water, drew out a stone or lump of iron, and had his arm bandaged by the priest. This was the ordeal of water. Or he was called on to seize a bar of iron that had lain on a fire till the last collect of the service had been read, carry it for three feet, and hasten to the altar, when the priest promptly applied the bandages. This was the ordeal of iron. If in three days' time the priest could say the arm was healed, the sufferer was pronounced guiltless; if not, he was judged as one convicted of God. Minor or less accredited ordeals were the *corsned*, or eating of the consecrated or accused morsel, and the casting of the subject, bound, into deep water. If the former did not choke, if the latter threatened to drown, it was taken as a proof of innocence. Walking on burning ploughshares also appears as an ordeal, but seldom, if ever, save in incredible stories, as in that told of Emma, Canute's widow. Ordeal continued after the Conquest. The Conqueror allowed it to Englishmen when challenged by Normans, in place of the newly-introduced trial by battle. Domesday is full of cases in which men offer to prove their rights by battle or by ordeal. In the Assize of Northampton (1176) (q.v.) it is ordered that men presented before the king's justices for the darker crimes shall "go to the judgment of water." But the method fell into disrepute; the Church withdrew her countenance from it; other processes, notably the crude forms of the jury system, grew into favour; the Lateran Council of 1215 abolished it. This sealed its doom in England as elsewhere; a letter of Henry III's to the itinerant justices in 1219 is usually accepted as marking its final extinction.

W. S. Holdsworth, "History of English Law," 1923; Lea, "Superstition and Force." [J. R.]

Orders in Council are orders issued by the sovereign with the advice of the privy council. They have been issued in times of emergency. In 1766 and again in 1792 an embargo was imposed on the exportation of corn, because of a deficient harvest and the prospect of a famine. Napoleon's Berlin Decrees, declaring the whole of the British Islands to be in a state of blockade, called forth, on January 7, 1807, an Order in Council prohibiting all vessels, under the penalty of seizure, from trading to ports under the influence of France. Further orders bearing upon the same question were issued on November 11 and 21 of the same year. On April 26, 1808, by a new Order in Council, the blockade was limited to France, Holland, a part of Germany, and the north of Italy. The legality of Orders in Council has been frequently questioned. They have, however, been authorized by statute in various matters connected with trade and the revenue; and the International Copyright Act, 7 and 8 Vict. cap. 12, contained a clause empowering the Crown by Order in Council to extend the benefits of that act to works first published in any state that gave a like privilege to the productions of this country.

Ordinance is a form of legislation opposed to a statute. An ordinance has been defined as "a regulation made by the king, by himself, or in his council, or with the advice of his council, promulgated in letters patent or in charter, and liable to be recalled by the same authority." The essential difference between an ordinance and a statute lay in the fact that the former did not require to be enacted in parliament, and might be repealed without parliament. Moreover, the ordinance is the temporary act of the legislature. From the earliest days of parliament a great deal of jealousy was felt on account of the ordaining power of

the king and his council. It very frequently happened that an ordinance practically repealed or materially modified what had been enacted by statute; and in 1389 a petition was presented by the Commons praying that no ordinance be made contrary to the common law, the ancient customs of the land, or the statutes made by parliament. The sovereign still possesses the power, which must be given to the executive, of legislating by ordinance in certain cases. But these ordinances, or Orders in Council (q.v.) as they are termed, are only made with the consent of parliament, are in most cases laid before the two Houses, and may be abrogated by act of parliament.

Ordinances, The, of 1311. [Ordainers, The Lords.]

Ordovices, The, were an ancient British tribe who occupied the north of Wales and Anglesey. They maintained a strenuous resistance to the Romans. Suetonius Paulinus attacked them and destroyed the sacred groves on Mona in A.D. 60; but they were not finally subdued until 78, when Agricola established the twentieth legion at Deva to hold them in check.

Oregon Question, The. The treaty of 1783 between the United States and Great Britain had omitted to define the frontier between Canada and the United States eastwards from the great lakes, and also westwards from the Rocky Mountains, leaving open the disposal of the vast district lying between the Rocky Mountains and the Pacific. In November 1818 a convention was concluded between the two governments containing the stipulation that "whatever territory may be claimed by one or other of the contracting parties on the north-west coast of America, to the west of the Rocky Mountains, as also all bays, harbours, creeks, or rivers thereon, shall be free and open to the ships, citizens, and subjects of both powers, for ten years from the date of the signature of the present convention." This convention was renewed August 6, 1827, for an indefinite period, with the understanding that either party might rescind the stipulation by giving twelve months' notice. The boundary question was thus still left in abeyance. Numerous difficulties occurred, and in 1846 the American legislature gave notice that the existing convention would terminate in twelve months. A great deal of indignation had previously been excited in Great Britain by President Polk's inaugural address in 1845, in which he distinctly claimed Oregon as part of the United States, and asserted that the Americans would maintain their right to it by force of arms if necessary. This speech was replied to by Sir Robert Peel in a spirited address to the House of Commons. The British government at once transmitted a proposition for a settlement, which was eventually accepted by the United States. The territory was then equitably divided between the two countries by the Oregon Treaty of 1846. The north-west frontier was defined along the mainland to the coast, but there were some minor points which were not defined with sufficient precision. Hence a dispute arose later as to the ownership of the little island of San Juan, which was decided against Great Britain by arbitration in 1872. [San Juan Award.]

R. G. Mowat, "Diplomatic Relations of Great Britain and the United States," 1925.

Orford, Earls of. [Russell; Walpole.]

Orkney and Shetland, the northernmost county of modern Scotland, consists of two groups of islands, of which the Orkneys are the southernmost. There are traces of their having been originally inhabited by Picts. If Nennius could be believed ("Mon. Hist. Brit.," p. 56A), it was the original settlement of that nation. In A.D. 86 Agricola took possession of the Orkneys, but it is improbable that the Romans ever effected a definite occupation. When in 682 the Pictish king, Brude MacBile, devastated the Orkney Islands he must have waged war against some civil foes. But the real history of the northern islands begins with the Scandinavian settlements. Their position exposed them to Viking outrages, and invited the settlement of the hardy Norsemen, who fled beyond sea from the tyranny of Harold Harfagr. In 874 Thorstein the Red, son of a Norse king of Dublin, had already conquered both Orkney and Shetland, and Caithness and Sutherland. But within ten years Harfagr himself sailed to Orkney, added it to his empire, and constituted it an earldom in favour of Rognwald, who handed it over to his brother Sigurd. Jarl Sigurd soon added to his government Caithness and Sutherland, if not districts still farther south. It is unnecessary to enter into the detailed history of the jarls of Orkney, of their wars with the Scots, in the Hebrides, and in Ireland. Their district was frequently split up into two portions, held by different members of the reigning family. The Scottish kings claimed some indefinite suzerain rights over Caithness, but Orkney paid scat or tribute to Norway alone. Some of the more valiant of the earls conquered the whole of the districts north of the Spey, but the evidence of language no less than of history shows that "Sutherland" was the southernmost point of the district permanently occupied by the Norsemen. Unlike the Hebrides, the jarldom of Orkney was not only conquered, but colonized. The original inhabitants were nearly extirpated. To this day the language of the district is English, the nomenclature Norse, the laws and constitution purely Scandinavian. The udal tenure and the Norse poor law are but things of yesterday in Orkney. After the establishment of Christianity by Olaf Tryggvason (q.v.) in 997, Orkney became the seat of a bishopric, and Shetland later of an archdeaconry, which were included in the province of Trondhjem. But the obedience of

the Bishop of Caithness was more doubtful. Earl Thorfinn (1014–64), the founder of the cathedral of Kirkwall, was almost the last of the great conquering jarls of Orkney. His conquests lapsed on his death. His sons, Paul and Erling, who joined Harold Hardrada's expedition to England in 1066, ruled jointly, and were the founders of two lines of earls. The son of Erling was the famous St. Magnus. Malcolm Canmore by his marriage with Thorfinn's widow brought the whole district into some relation with the Scottish crown. But in 1093 both Orkneys and Western Isles were conquered for a time by Magnus Barefoot of Norway, but on his death in 1104 the native jarls regained their practically supreme authority. In 1196 William the Lion definitely subjected Caithness to his throne. In the next century the earldom of Caithness was divided between the Angus and Moray families. At a later period the Sinclairs got possession of it. The islands remained under the nominal suzerainty of the kings of Norway, and, after the Danish conquest, of the kings of Denmark. In 1470 they were handed over to James III as security for the portion of his wife, Margaret of Denmark. At the same time the bishopric was transferred from the province of Trondhjem to that of St. Andrews. The pledge was never redeemed, and at last, on the marriage of James VI with Anne of Denmark, the pretensions of the Danish kings were more formally ceded. The islands were constituted into a Scottish county, though it was not until the Reform Act of 1832 that Shetland had any voice in returning parliamentary representatives. The land gradually passed into the hands of Scottish proprietors, but the bulk of the population remained Norse, though that language died out with the cessation of the political connexion.

P. Hume-Brown, "History of Scotland," 1911; C. S. Terry, "History of Scotland," 1920.

[T. F. T.]

Orleans, The Siege of (1428–9), was begun by the Earl of Salisbury in October 1428. The English were at this time masters of the whole country north of the Loire, and were anxious to extend their conquests across that river. For this purpose it was necessary that Orleans should be taken, as it commanded the valley of the Loire. The size of the city rendered a strict blockade almost impossible, while a considerable French force harassed the besiegers. The battle of the Herrings (q.v.) which was fought in February 1429, seemed to deprive the besieged of all hope of succour, and the fall of Orleans was certain, when the sudden rise of Joan of Arc, and the enthusiasm she created, aided by the skill of Dunois and other generals selected by her, entirely changed the aspect of affairs. Led by the heroine of Domrémy, the French succeeded in entering Orleans in April, and on May 8 the English raised the siege and retired, being defeated with considerable loss a month later (June 18) at Patay. The raising of the siege was the turn of the tide; after this the English lost town after town, fortress after fortress, till at last, of all their great French possessions, Calais alone was left to them.

Sir C. Oman, "England and the Hundred Years' War," 1898; and biographies of Joan of Arc.

Orleton, Adam of, Bishop of Winchester (*d.* 1345), was made Bishop of Hereford in the year 1317, translated to Worcester in 1327 and to Winchester in 1333. He supported the rising under Badlesmere in 1322, and in 1323 he was accused of high treason before parliament. He refused to recognize the jurisdiction of the lay court, and was supported by all the other prelates and many of the barons. Edward II, however, persisted with the trial. A verdict of guilty was returned, and Orleton's property was sequestrated. Before long, however, he was ostensibly reconciled with the king; but he never forgot the treatment he had received, and in 1326 he took the lead among the bishops in support of Isabella and Mortimer. He played a very important part in the events which led to Edward's deposition, acting as spokesman for Isabella in parliament and before the king himself. Under the new reign he became treasurer and the proceedings against him in 1323 were reversed. He was one of the leaders of the attack upon Archbishop Stratford in 1341.

Ormonde, Earls and Dukes of. [Butler.]

Orrery, Charles Boyle, 4th Earl of (1676–1731). [Boyle.]

Orsini Question (1858). On January 14, 1858, Felix Orsini and other Italian exiles attempted the assassination of the Emperor of the French by means of explosive bombs. As these men came from London, where they had made their preparations, great indignation was excited in France that shelter was afforded to them. Count Walewski, French minister of foreign affairs, wrote with some acrimony to Count Persigny, French ambassador in London, on the subject, inveighing against the defective laws of England, which allowed the right of asylum to protect political assassins. The French ambassador made representations to the British government, and Lord Palmerston, recognizing the justice of the representations, introduced a bill for the punishment of conspiracy to murder (February 8). Unfortunately, however, certain French officers had thought fit to give vent to their indignation against England in their congratulations to the emperor, and entreated him to allow them to "demand an account of the land of iniquity which contains the haunts of the monsters, who are sheltered by its laws." The result was that in spite of Count Walewski's endeavours to remove the bad impression, the spirit of Britain was roused and Palmerston's measure was regarded as an unworthy concession to the menaces of the French army. It was thrown out on a division (by 234 to 215) and

Palmerston resigned. His successor, Lord Derby, took up a stronger position, and returned a firm answer to Count Walewski's note. A satisfactory reply was received, and the matter terminated in a friendly and honourable manner.

Dalling and Bulwer, "Life of Lord Palmerston," 1874.

Orthes, The Battle of (February 27, 1814), was fought at the close of the Peninsular War, and gained one of the strong positions which Soult had taken up in the south of France. Two days before the battle Beresford forced the passage of the Gave de Pau, below Orthes. On the next day Soult learnt this, and took up a strong position on a ridge, which was in part covered with woods, and presented a concave front to the allies. The ridge was crossed by the main road from Orthes to Dax, and was protected in front of its centre by some swampy ground, at the farther side of which was an old Roman camp. Wellington's plan was to turn the French right, while Hill, skirting their left, should seize the road to St. Sever; thus Soult would have no line of retreat, and would be shut up in Orthes. The attacks on the French right on the morning of the 27th completely failed; but Wellington ordered a concentrated assault to be made on the French left and centre, which succeeded, and the French fell back. Hill meanwhile had forced the ford at Souars, and was now in possession of the Pau road. There was thus open to Soult only a narrow road to Sault de Navailles, along which he conducted the retreat with such skill that the French were able to seize a small ridge before Hill could occupy it. Wellington, being wounded, was unable to superintend the pursuit himself, and it was not carried on so vigorously as it might have been. As it was, however, Soult lost an enormous number of stragglers.

Sir C. Oman, "Peninsular War," 1902–20.

Osborne, Thomas, Duke of Leeds (1631–1712), Viscount Latimer and Baron Danby (1673), Earl of Danby (1674), Marquis of Carmarthen (1689), and Duke of Leeds (1694), was the son of Sir Edward Osborne, of Yorkshire. He became high sheriff of York in 1661, and took an active part in the prosecution of Clarendon. He became successively treasurer of the navy (1668), privy councillor (1673), and on the fall of Clifford lord high treasurer (1674). At home he put in force the laws against Catholics and Dissenters, endeavoured to impose a non-resistance test on all public functionaries, and introduced a bill to give securities to the Church in event of the succession of a Catholic king. Abroad he opposed the aggrandizement of France, so far as the king allowed him, and contrived to bring about the marriage of the Princess Mary to William of Orange (1677). But he corrupted the House of Commons, and stooped to be the agent of Charles II in his bargains with Louis XIV. The latter, finding Danby the opponent of French policy, worked his overthrow through Ralph Montagu, the ambassador at Paris, who revealed the secret dispatch by which Danby, at the king's command, asked payment for England's neutrality. He was impeached in 1678, and though not tried, was confined in the Tower till 1684. It was decided that the king's pardon could not be pleaded in bar of an impeachment by the Commons, and that the dissolution of parliament did not put an end to an impeachment. In the next reign, finding that the measures of James II threatened the Church, Danby allied himself with the Whig lords, signed the invitation of June 20, 1688, to the Prince of Orange, and secured York for the Revolution. Yet though he did not shrink from taking up arms, he scrupled to declare James deposed, and headed the party which argued that the king had by his flight abdicated, and that the crown had thus devolved on Mary. In the discussions between the Lords and the Commons which followed it was mainly owing to Danby that the House of Lords consented to agree with the Commons and invite William to ascend the throne. Therefore he naturally obtained a great position under the new government. He was appointed president of the council, and became in 1690 the real head of the ministry; "as nearly prime minister," says Macaulay, "as any English subject could be under a prince of William's character." His second administration, like his first, was stained by systematic bribery, nor was he free from corruption himself. In 1695 it was proved that he had received a bribe of 5,500 guineas from the East India Company, and he was for a second time impeached. He escaped condemnation, and caused the suspension of the proceedings by contriving the flight of the principal witness; but though he retained his place for three years longer, he completely lost his power. "Though his eloquence and knowledge always secured him the attention of his hearers, he was never again, even when the Tory party was in power, admitted to the smallest share in the direction of affairs. In 1710 he made his last important appearance in debate in defence of Sacheverell, and thus explained his conduct in 1688." He had, he said, a great share in the late revolution, but he never thought that things "would have gone so far as to settle the crown on the Prince of Orange, whom he had often heard say that he had no such thoughts himself. That they ought to distinguish between resistance and revolution, for vacancy or abdication was the thing they went upon, and therefore resistance was to be forgot; for had it not succeeded it had certainly been rebellion, since he knew of no other but hereditary right." But though he disavowed the principles of the Revolution, and shrank from the logic of his actions, his name is inseparably associated with that event, and the part he played then is his best title to remembrance. His character has been very variously judged;

he was bold, ambitious, and unscrupulous, and he has been defined as "a bourgeois Strafford."

Biography by Andrew Browning, 1913.

[C. H. F.]

Osgod Clapa was a Dane who acted as staller or master of the horse to Hardicanute, and later to Edward the Confessor. It was at the marriage of his daughter with Tofig the Proud that Hardicanute died. He seems to have been suspected of intrigues with Magnus of Norway, and was accordingly banished in 1046. He retired to Flanders, and for some time vexed the English court with piratical descents.

Osred II, King of Northumbria (788–790), was the son of Alchred; he succeeded on the murder of Elfwald, but had held the kingdom little more than a year when Ethelred Moll (q.v.), who had been expelled in 778 from the throne, returned, and compelled him to abdicate. He was obliged to assume the tonsure, and subsequently to seek refuge in exile in the Isle of Man. He returned in 792, but was captured and beheaded by Ethelred.

Ostmen (or Eastmen) (Norse, *Austmathr*), was the name generally applied to the Scandinavian settlers in Ireland. Towards the end of the eighth century the exceptionally disturbed condition of Ireland, where the power of the *ard ri* (over-king) had been reduced to nothing, and sept constantly waged war against sept, invited the Viking rovers to plunder and settle on its coasts. In 795 the first recorded invasion took place. For the next half-century the invaders sought plunder only. But about 850 they formed permanent settlements along the whole east coast. Dublin, whose suburb Oxmanstown still preserves the name of the Ostman, Wexford, Waterford—both purely Norse names—Limerick even, in the remotest part of the island, became the centres of Scandinavian jarldoms. With characteristic facility, the new-comers soon mixed with the natives. Besides the pure races—the Dub-gaill, or black foreigners, and Find-gaill or white foreigners, as the Danes and Norwegians were respectively called—the mixed race of Gall-goidel soon became equally famous as pirates, warriors, and mariners. They constantly spread devastation along the shores of Britain. The Welsh coast, from its proximity, was especially often attacked by them. But they also had close relations with the Northmen more to the north. A son of a king of Dublin first conquered Orkney; and names like Njal give weight to the theory that Iceland was largely settled by Irish Danes, or at least had constant dealings with them. The Danish kings of Dublin were especially powerful and stood in a peculiarly close relation to the Scandinavian settlers in Northumbria during the first half of the tenth century. At last the vigour of the Viking states began to abate. The Ostmen were compelled to acknowledge the overlordship of great English kings, like Edgar. Intermarriage between Norse and Irish was common, but the clan-system among the latter was strong enough to keep the two races distinct right down to the Anglo-Norman invasion of the twelfth century. In the meantime, however, a great Celtic reaction set in, which culminated in the decisive victory of the famous Brian Boru (q.v.) at the battle of Clontarf in 1014. The power of the Norsemen was broken, though the weakness of the conquerers left Dublin a Danish city until the arrival of Strongbow. Their conversion to Christianity still further weakened the old Viking prowess. Their bishoprics, connected with Trondhjem in early times, were in striking contrast to the clan system of the Irish Church. The anxiety of these Norse bishops to avoid amalgamation with the latter by acknowledging the supremacy of Canterbury is strikingly brought out by the relations of Lanfranc with the Archbishop of Dublin. At last the remnants of the Ostmen readily assimilated themselves to their kinsfolk the Norman lords and soldiers who conquered the greater part of Ireland in the reign of Henry II. Except for their influence in the place-names of the island, on the growth of the towns, and the expansion of trade, they left few permanent traces in the later history of Ireland.

A. Mawer, "The Vikings," 1913; C. F. Keary, "The Vikings in Western Christendom," 1891.

Ostorius Scapula, Roman governor in Britain (47–51), quelled a revolt of the Iceni in A.D. 48, and thoroughly reduced South-eastern Britain. He conducted the successful campaign against Caratacus (see *Caradoc*), the exiled king of the Catuvellauni, who had taken refuge with the Silures of South Wales, and sent him and his family captive to Rome in A.D. 50. Subsequent risings of the Silures, however, taxed his energies, and are said to have occasioned his death.

Oswald, King of Northumbria (*d.* 642), was the son of Ethelfrith of Bernicia. After his father's death at the battle of the Idle in 617, at the hand of Edwin of Deira, he escaped with his brothers to Scotland, where he remained till 634. The defeat and death of Edwin by Penda of Mercia and Cadwallon of Wales, at Heathfield in 633, gave to the exiled house of Bernicia its opportunity; and after the death of his elder brother Eanfrid, Oswald was called to the Northumbrian throne. He defeated Cadwallon at Heavenfield, near Hexham, and established himself as undisputed sovereign both of Bernicia and Deira. He ranks, according to Bæda's reckoning, as the sixth Bretwalda, and is said to have reigned over Angles, Britons, Picts, and Scots. He was an ardent Christian, having received the Celtic form of the faith during his exile in the great monastery of Iona or Hii. One of his first tasks, therefore, was to re-establish, with the help of St. Aidan, Christianity in Northumbria, where it had perished as a result of the triumph of the heathen Mercians. Oswald's virtues receive high praise from Bæda, and he seems to have been one of

the noblest of the English kings before Alfred the Great. He was killed at Maserfield (Oswestry), in battle against Penda of Mercia, his inveterate enemy. By his subjects he was regarded as a martyr, and miracles were said to be wrought by his relics. At his death Northumbria relapsed temporarily into anarchy.

Oswestry is a town in Shropshire of considerable antiquity. It derives its name from Oswald, King of Northumbria (q.v.), who was slain there in 642. The remains of a castle said to date from the Norman Conquest are situated on a hill to the west of the town.

W. Cathrall, "History of Oswestry," 1855; "Victoria County History: Shropshire."

Oswy (or Oswiu), King of Northumbria (*d.* 671), was a younger son of Ethelfrith of Bernicia. On the death of his brother Oswald, at Maserfield, in 642, he became King of Bernicia, but Deira went to Oswin, a member of the rival house. In 651 Oswy defeated and murdered Oswin, but failed to subdue Deira. During the early part of this reign Northumbria was exposed to frequent attacks from Penda of Mercia, who was, after Oswald's death, the strongest power in the island. He was, however, defeated and slain by Oswy in 655 at the battle of Winwaed. For a short time after this Oswy was supreme in England. He reunited Deira to Bernicia, and for some years ruled directly over the whole of Mercia, but was eventually compelled by Wulfhere to retire within the boundaries of his own kingdom (659). His reign was most prosperous, and his kingdom was greatly enlarged by alliances with and victories over the Picts. He enjoyed supremacy over the Niduarian Picts of Galloway, and even over some of those beyond the Forth, while the Welsh of Strathclyde also were subject to him. The most important event of his later years was, however, unconnected with secular politics. In 664 there was held, under his ægis, the celebrated Synod of Whitby (q.v.), as a result of which Northumbria abandoned its allegiance to Iona and was brought into communion with Canterbury and Rome. The importance of Oswy's decision in favour of the Roman as against the Celtic usage can hardly be overestimated. A conflict with his eldest son Alchfrid, and with the intractable Wilfrid of Ripon, marked the next few years, but Oswy seems to have closed his career (February 671) in peace.

Otadeni (or Ottadeni), The, were an ancient British tribe occupying the coast from the Tyne to the Firth of Forth, including a large part of Northumberland, with the present counties of Berwick and East Lothian, and part of Roxburghshire.

Otford, The Battle of (774), was fought between Offa of Mercia and the Kentishmen, and resulted in a victory for the former, and in the submission of Kent to Mercia.

Otho, one of the chaplains of Pope Honorius III, was sent over to England as nuncio in 1225, partly to plead for Falkes de Breauté (q.v.), in which he was unsuccessful, and partly to raise money for the pope. His demands were refused, and in 1226 Otho left England, to return in 1237 with full legatine powers. He now acted with great moderation, arranged some difficulties with Scotland, prolonged the truce with Llewelyn of Wales, reformed the Church in a great council held at St. Paul's in November, and attempted to abolish pluralities. But his popularity was short-lived. He was the centre of a brawl at Oseney, near Oxford, in 1238, and barely escaped personal injury; while his exactions on behalf of Gregory IX, after the outbreak of the conflict with the emperor in 1239, became intolerable. He withdrew from England at length in 1241, taking with him, according to popular belief, more money than he left behind.

K. Norgate, "Minority of Henry III," 1912.

Ottawa is the capital of Canada. It was named Bytown, after Colonel By, until 1854, when it was incorporated as a city under its present name. In 1865 it was made the Canadian capital and seat of the legislature. The Parliament Houses, begun in 1860 and reckoned amongst the finest buildings in America, were destroyed by fire in 1916 and since reconstructed. [Canada, Dominion of.]

A. Wilson, "History of Old Bytown," 1876.

Otterburn, The Battle of (August 19, 1388), was fought between an invading force of Scottish troops, headed by the Earl of Douglas, and an English force, led by the Percys. The Scottish army was divided into two portions, which marched into England by different routes. The smaller division, after harrying the country as far as Durham, retreated to Otterburn, in Northumberland, where they were surprised by Hotspur. Although the Scots were numerically inferior, their victory was decisive; both the Percys (Hotspur and Ralph) were taken prisoners, and many of the English were slain. The battle of Otterburn has been transformed and idealized in ballad poetry under the name of *Chevy Chase*. It marks the fading from the defenders of Scotland of the dread of immediate absolute conquest by England.

P. Hume Brown, "History of Scotland," 1911; C. S. Terry, "History of Scotland," 1920.

Oudenarde, The Battle of (July 11, 1708), was one of the great battles in the War of the Spanish Succession. Finding that the war was becoming unpopular both with the English and Dutch, Marlborough resolved on a decisive blow. The French, numbering 100,000, under the Duke of Burgundy, who was jealous of Vendôme, the second in command, were attempting to take Oudenarde, a fortress on the Scheldt. Marlborough, having been joined by Eugène, in command of the allies, numbering a little more than 80,000, advanced towards them,

and they promptly raised the siege. Although the French outnumbered the allies, they were utterly routed. They lost 6,000 men and had 9,000 taken prisoners, besides ten pieces of cannon and 4,000 horses. The allies lost nearly 3,000 men.

J. W. Fortescue, "History of the British Army," vol. i, 1889.

Oudh, at one time a province of the Mogul Empire, became connected with England during the governor-generalship of Warren Hastings, through the Treaty of Benares and the transactions with regard to the Rohillas. The treaty began that defensive alliance which gradually tended to subject the vizir to the British, and which, in 1801, after various cessions of territory, placed him in an isolated position, surrounded by the British territories, without the necessities of defence. The sovereigns, in consequence, gave themselves up to extravagance, debauchery, and misgovernment, in spite of the repeated protests and threats of the British. Gazi-ud-din, on his accession in 1814, assumed, by the advice of Lord Hastings, the title of King of Oudh, and no longer recognized the authority of the Mogul. In 1856 Lord Dalhousie annexed the country by the order of the directors, the king becoming a state prisoner. In 1877 the two provinces of Agra and Oudh were placed under one administrator, the lieutenant-governor of the North-west Province and chief commissioner of Oudh. The name "United Provinces of Agra and Oudh" was adopted in 1902, and in 1921 the lieutenant-governorship became a governorship.

W. Crooke, "The North-Western Provinces," 1897.

Oulart, Skirmish at, May 26, 1798, occurred during the Irish Rebellion and involved the victory of 8,000 insurgents. Of some 200 of the North Cork Militia, all but five were killed. Father John Murphy (q.v.) led the rebels.

F. F. Kavanagh, "Rebellion of 1798," 1913.

Outlawry, i.e., exclusion from the protection and benefit of the law, has been from very early times the punishment which has attended flight from justice, or refusal to appear before a legal tribunal. In the laws of Edgar it is even enacted that a person refusing obedience to a decision of the hundred shall, after being fined three times, become an outlaw, unless the king allows him to remain in the land. An outlaw was said to "bear a wolf's head," and therefore to be lawfully slain by any who met him. But as early as the thirteenth century some doubt seems to have been felt as to the expediency of so summary a procedure. Thus Bracton laid it down that though an outlaw might be killed if he defended himself or ran away, so that it was difficult to take him, when once taken his life was in the king's hands, and anyone then killing him must answer for it as for any other homicide. Yet Fleta, under Edward II, declares that an outlaw may be killed anywhere with impunity, and the case to which Coke refers, in order to prove that under Edward III such an act was declared by the judges unlawful, shows really that the old principle was still recognized. But as manners softened, the question ceased to be of practical importance, though the legal doctrine was still doubtful as late as Philip and Mary. The most important consequence of outlawry was the forfeiture of chattels for all cases, with the addition, in cases of treason or murder, of the forfeiture of real property; for other offences, of the profits of land during the outlaw's lifetime. Outlawry in civil cases for refusal to appear in court was abolished in 1879. In criminal cases it is practically obsolete, and no longer necessary, since extradition treaties have become general. It may be added that outlawry does not lie against a peer except for treason, felony, or breach of the peace.

W. S. Holdsworth, "History of English Law," 1923. [W. J. A.]

Outram, Sir James (1803–63), saw active service in Afghanistan (1838), and subsequently acted as resident at Hyderabad, Satara, and Lucknow. In 1842 he was appointed commissioner to negotiate with the Amirs of Sind, in which capacity he differed from Sir Charles Napier as to the latter's conduct. In 1856 he became chief commissioner of Oudh. His name is inseparably connected with the defence of Lucknow, and he ranks as one of the saviours of India during the Mutiny. In 1856 he commanded during the Persian War, and became in 1858 a baronet and lieutenant-general.

Biography by Sir F. J. Goldsmid, 1880; L. J. Trotter, "The Bayard of India," 1903.

Overbury, Sir Thomas (1581–1613), was educated at Queen's College, Oxford, became a student at the Middle Temple, and was knighted in the year 1608. Overbury earned distinction as a poet, traveller, and writer, and became the friend and confidential adviser of Robert Carr. The king became jealous of his influence, and wished to remove him from the court, whilst at the same time his opposition to Rochester's proposed marriage with Lady Essex made Rochester wish to get him out of the way for a time. James offered Overbury a diplomatic post abroad, which Rochester encouraged him to refuse, and the king for this refusal committed Overbury to the Tower (April 26, 1613). Rochester merely wished to keep Overbury quiet. Lady Essex seized the opportunity to be rid of him altogether, and at length succeeded in getting him poisoned (September 15, 1613). On December 26, the same year, took place the marriage of Lord Rochester, now created Earl of Somerset, to the divorced Countess of Essex. Early in 1615 the fact that Overbury had been poisoned came to the knowledge of Sir Ralph Winwood, the king's ambassador in the Low Countries, and was by him revealed to the king. Four of those concerned in the plot were executed, and the earl and countess were tried before the Lord

High Steward's court (May 1616). Both were declared guilty, but pardoned by the king, and, after 1623, released from their confinement in the Tower.

Gardiner, "History of England," (believes Somerset not guilty); Rimbault, "The Works of Sir Thomas Overbury"; C. E. Gough, "Sir Thomas Overbury," 1909; E. A. Parry, "The Overbury Mystery," 1925.
[C. H. F.]

Overkirk, General (*d.* 1708), was one of the Dutch favourites of William III, whose life at the battle of St. Denis he saved. On the accession of William he became master of the horse. He took an active share in William's battles in Ireland, and received grants of Irish land. On the outbreak of the War of the Spanish Succession he shared with Opilan the command of the Dutch troops.

Owen, Robert (1771–1858), philanthropist and Socialist, was the son of a saddler in Newtown, Montgomeryshire. He left school at nine, and served as draper's assistant in Stamford and in London. Then he went to Manchester, where he was amazingly successful. At nineteen he was manager of a large cotton mill which, under his direction, became one of the most famous establishments in Lancashire. While there he considerably improved the quality of the spun cotton. In 1794 he helped to form the Chorlton Twist Company. As its manager, he bought the New Lanark Mills (Glasgow) from David Dale, and shortly afterwards married the latter's daughter. In 1800 he settled at New Lanark as manager and part owner. It was while in Scotland that he carried out his philanthropic schemes which became famous all over the world and to which pilgrimages of inspection were made by reformers and statesmen from all over Europe. He reduced the hours of work; rebuilt the houses of his work-people; provided them with goods at cost price; improved the sanitation of the village; established visiting committees; raised the discipline and moral tone; and lastly (which eventually won over the support of his suspicious employees) continued pay while the factory was closed during a trade depression. To further his reforms he bought out his partners and formed a company with Bentham, Allen, and other Radicals in 1814. In 1816 he became the founder of infant schools in Great Britain by establishing such an institution at Lanark. From 1817 onwards his interests became more and more absorbed in the promulgation of his ideas to the world at large. He worked actively for factory reform, and was chiefly responsible for the passage of the act of 1819, though its terms keenly disappointed his expectations. In 1817 he first propounded his Socialist scheme—the establishment of communal villages—as a relief for the unemployed. Shortly afterwards he came to the conclusion that such a reorganization of the community was the ideal for society as a whole, and the rest of his life was spent in advocating this form of Socialism. His essays became widely read, and his influence grew to be enormous, eventually giving rise to many diverse movements such as the co-operative movement, secularism, militant trade unionism, etc. His popularity with the upper classes waned in proportion as it grew with the workers. He travelled considerably, and in 1825 attempted the establishment of an ideal community at New Harmony, U.S.A. The project was abandoned in 1828, and he returned to conduct a vigorous propaganda in England. As a result of "Owenism" the word "Socialist" first came to be used (1827) by some of his disciples. In 1832 he established the National Labour Exchange in London, with the use of "labour notes" to eliminate the middleman and to secure to the worker "the right to the whole produce of labour." It flourished for a time, but failed by 1834. At the same time he was intimately associated with the rise and fall of the Grand National Consolidated Trades Union of 1833–4. Thence onwards he ceased to be an organizing force among the newer trade unionists. He wrote and lectured prolifically from 1813 to the end, and ran numerous journals to spread his ideas.

Autobiography by Robert Owen (to 1817), 1919; biographies by F. Podmore, 1924, and G. D. H. Cole, 1925.
[C. H. D.]

Oxford, The City of, is mentioned as the seat of a school or college as early as 802. It was taken by Edward the Elder in 912, and became one of the most important of the West Saxon towns. It was captured by the Danes under Sweyn in 1013, after being burnt during the Danish attacks in 979, 1002, and 1010, and was several times the seat of the witenagemot under Canute. It was stormed by William the Conqueror in 1067, and the castle built about 1070. The city prospered under the Norman sheriff, Robert D'Oili. The castle was occupied by the Empress Maud in 1142, and captured by Stephen on her escape. The treaty between Henry II and Stephen was made at Oxford (November 7, 1153). The Dominicans and Franciscans settled in the city in 1221 and 1224 respectively. In 1258 the "Mad" Parliament met there, and the Provisions of Oxford were drawn up. Latimer and Ridley were burnt in Broad Street in 1555. In the Civil War Oxford was the head-quarters of Charles I after October 1642. The king established his mint there in 1643, and held a parliament in 1644. But in June 1646 the city surrendered to Fairfax. Charles II held the last Oxford Parliament in 1681. Later the city became Jacobite.

C. W. Boase, "Oxford," 1887; A. Lang, "Oxford," 1885.

Oxford, Earls of. [Asquith; Harley; Vere.]

Oxford, Provisions of (1258), were the schemes of reorganization and reform forced on Henry III by the "Mad" Parliament of Oxford in 1258. A commission of twenty-four persons was appointed, twelve nominated by

the king, and twelve by the barons. By the advice of these commissioners the king was to draw up means for the reform of the civil administration, the Church, and the royal household. When the parliament met, the barons brought forward a schedule of grievances which they desired the commissioners to remedy. The Provisions of Oxford themselves supply the machinery by which these grievances might be redressed. The twenty-four commissioners met, and each twelve selected two out of the other twelve, and these four nominated fifteen who were to form a council for advising the king and to hold three annual parliaments. With them the barons were to negotiate through another committee. There was also another committee of twenty-four, whose business it was to inquire into financial matters; while the original twenty-four were to undertake the reform of the Church. The commissioners drew up the Provisions of Westminster (q.v.), and drove the foreigners out of the country. This government lasted till 1261, when Henry repudiated his oath and the pope issued a bull absolving him. [MONTFORT, SIMON DE.]

Stubbs, "Select Charters," ed. 1913; E. F. Jacob, "Studies in the Period of Baronial Reform and Rebellion," 1925.

Oxford, UNIVERSITY OF. [UNIVERSITIES.]

Oyer and Terminer is the name given to a commission granted by the Crown to judges and others, "to hear and to determine" cases of treason, felony, and trespass. By virtue of this commission, judges deal with criminal cases in the various circuits. The words oyer and terminer are derived from the French *ouïr*, to hear, and *terminer*, to determine. The commissions, within regular form, date back to the end of the thirteenth and beginning of the fourteenth century.

P

Pace, RICHARD (1482?–1536), became secretary to Henry VIII on the recommendation of Pope Leo X, in 1515. He was sent by Wolsey on a diplomatic mission to the Swiss in the same year, and two years later he went to Germany to sound the Imperial electors. He became secretary of state in 1516, and dean of St. Paul's in 1519. The year 1520 saw him at the Field of the Cloth of Gold, and in 1521 and 1523 he went to Rome to advance Wolsey's candidature for the papacy.

A. F. Pollard, "Henry VIII," 1902.

Pacifico, DAVID (1784–1854), was a Portuguese Jew, born in Gibraltar, and consequently a British subject, resident at Athens. In April 1847 his house was attacked and burnt by the mob. The Hellenic authorities took no steps to prevent the outrage, and refused to indemnify Pacifico, who claimed heavy damages. Lord Palmerston demanded instant compensation; and on the refusal of the Greeks to satisfy this claim, or that raised in the case of the *Fantôme*, and of Dr. George Finlay [FINLAY QUESTION], a British fleet was ordered to enter the Piræus and seize the shipping there belonging to Greek owners, January 1850. The Hellenic government appealed to France and Russia. Negotiations took place between the governments of Great Britain and France, in the course of which a serious quarrel between the two powers was with difficulty avoided. Finally the claims were settled by arbitration, and Pacifico received about one-thirtieth of the sum he demanded. Palmerston's coercive measures towards the Hellenic government formed the subject of animated debates in both Houses of Parliament. In the House of Lords a vote of censure was carried against the government by a majority of 37. In the Commons, however, a vote of confidence was carried by 46, after a remarkably brilliant speech from Palmerston.

"Annual Register," 1847; "Hansard's Debates," 1850; Dalling and Bulwer, "Palmerston," i, 176–227, 1876.

Paget, HENRY WILLIAM, 1ST MARQUIS OF ANGLESEY (1768–1854), eldest son of Henry, 1st Earl of Uxbridge, served under the Duke of York in Flanders in 1794, and again in Holland in 1799, as colonel of a dragoon regiment. In December 1808 he joined Sir John Moore's force as a major-general, and greatly distinguished himself by the manner in which he covered the disastrous retreat of the British army, and contributed in no small measure to the victory at Corunna. In 1806 he was returned to parliament for Milbourne Port, and he was called to the Upper House on the death of his father in 1812. In the campaign of 1815 he was appointed to the command of the cavalry. At Waterloo, where he led the heavy brigade in the terrible charge which overwhelmed d'Erlon's division, he distinguished himself by the utmost intrepidity. In the battle he was wounded in the leg, which had to be amputated. For his services he was created Marquis of Anglesey, and received the thanks of both Houses of Parliament. In 1827 he was appointed master-general of the ordnance; and in 1828 the Wellington cabinet made him viceroy of Ireland. His advent was looked forward to with much dread in Ireland, owing to some thoughtless remarks he had once made as to using military force to quell disturbances. But he very much belied the anticipations that had been formed of him, and, by his impartial conduct and strict justice, gained great popularity. His views on Catholic emancipation, of which he was a strong advocate, entirely differed from the policy of the cabinet, and he was summarily removed from his post. In 1830 he was again appointed lord-lieutenant, and carried on the government of Ireland till the dissolution of Lord Grey's government in 1834. In 1846 he was made a field-marshal, and in the same year once more became master-

general of the ordnance, which office he held till 1852, when he retired into private life.

Wellington Dispatches, 1841.

Paget, Thomas, 3rd Baron (*d.* 1590), the second son of William, Lord Paget of Beaudesert, was a zealous Catholic, and a supporter of Mary, Queen of Scots, and the Jesuits. He was attainted and compelled to take refuge abroad, on suspicion of being concerned in Throgmorton's plot (November 1583). His estates were forfeited in his absence in 1587.

Paget, William, 1st Baron Paget of Beaudesert (1505–63), was born of humble parents. He attracted the notice of Bishop Gardiner, and rising rapidly, was knighted, and became one of the secretaries of state in 1543, and in that capacity negotiated peace with France in 1546. He was appointed one of the council of regency by the will of Henry VIII, with the office of chief secretary, and supported Somerset in setting aside that arrangement and assuming the office of Protector. In 1549 Sir William Paget was sent on a mission to the Emperor Charles V, to persuade him to join England in a war with France; and, though unsuccessful, he was on his return raised to the peerage as Lord Paget of Beaudesert. In a statesmanlike letter, written from Germany, he attempted to inspire the wavering councils of the Protector with prudence and vigour in dealing with the rising in the west of England, but to little purpose. The see of Lichfield lost the greater part of its lands in order to furnish him with an estate. On the fall of Somerset, to whom he had been consistently faithful, Paget was thrown into the Tower, and deprived of his appointments (1551), but was pardoned in the following year. On the accession of Mary he became one of her most trusted advisers, and was made keeper of the seals. He was throughout in favour of moderation, and had no sympathy with those who wished for the establishment of the Inquisition and the execution of the Princess Elizabeth. He was one of the promoters of the marriage between Mary and Philip of Spain, and was disposed to regard the friendship of Charles V as highly necessary for England. On the accession of Elizabeth he resigned the seals; but though he did not enjoy the confidence of the queen, he continued from time to time to give her advice. During the last years of his life he advocated an alliance with Henry IV of France in preference to the friendship of Spain.

Paine, Thomas (1737–1809), was the son of a Norfolk staymaker. He lived first at Sandwich and then at Lewes, practising various trades with indifferent success. In 1774 he emigrated to America, where he became editor of the *Pennsylvania Magazine*, and in 1776 published his famous pamphlet, "Common Sense," which was followed by a periodical called the *Crisis*, written for the purpose of keeping up the flagging spirits of the colonists. Paine was rewarded by Congress by the appointment of secretary to the committee of foreign affairs, and in 1781 was sent to France in company with Colonel Laurens to negotiate a loan for the United States. He visited France a second time in 1787, and went thence to England, where, in 1791, he published the "Rights of Man" in reply to Burke's "Reflections on the French Revolution." The government thereupon resolved to prosecute him for his attack upon the constitution, and, in spite of Erskine's brilliant defence, he was found guilty. He had already anticipated his sentence, however, by retiring to France, where he was returned to the National Convention by the electors of Pas-de-Calais. "The foreign benefactor of the species," as Carlyle calls him, voted with the Girondists, and advocated the banishment rather than the execution of the king. His moderation procured for him expulsion as a foreigner from the convention by the Jacobins, and imprisonment. In 1794, however, he was released on the intercession of the American government, and resumed his seat. The "Age of Reason," composed during his imprisonment, was a defence of Deism, written in extremely gross taste. Paine returned to America in 1802, and spent the rest of his life in obscurity.

"State Trials," xxii, 357; biographies by W. Cobbett, 1819; M. D. Conway, 1892; J. E. Remsbury, 1880; F. J. Gould, 1925. "Paine's Works," 4 vols., ed. M. D. Conway (New York, 1896–8).

Pains and Penalties, Bills of, are analogous to bills of attainder, from which they differ in the fact that the punishment is never capital, and does not affect the children. [Attainder; Impeachment.]

Pakenham, Sir Edward (*d.* 1815), was a brother-in-law of the 1st Duke of Wellington, and one of his most trusted subordinates. He distinguished himself greatly in the Peninsular War, playing an important part in the victory of Salamanca (July 22, 1812). During the war with America he commanded the expedition sent against New Orleans. The place was vigorously defended by General Jackson, and in the disastrously unsuccessful assault (January 8, 1815) Pakenham lost his life.

Sir C. Oman, "Peninsular War," 1902–20.

Pakington, Sir John (1671–1727), was a high Tory, and member for the county of Worcester during the reigns of William III and Anne. He preferred a complaint against William Lloyd, Bishop of Worcester, and his son, for using their influence in the elections against him, and proved his case, the House censuring their conduct as "unchristian." Pakington was throughout his life a violent partisan; his speech against the union with Scotland was hooted down because of its ungenerous insinuations, and he was equally headstrong in his opposition to the Occasional Conformity Bill. There does not appear to be any justification for the idea that he was the original of Sir Roger de Coverley. He was the

ancestor of John Pakington, created Baron Hampton (*d.* 1880), who held various posts in Lord Derby's ministries, and who, in 1866, disclosed to his constituents the secret of the famous "Ten Minutes' Bill."

Pale, The. That part of Ireland which was *de facto* subject to English law began to be called the "Pale" in the late fourteenth or early fifteenth century. It was in earlier times distinguished from Celtic Ireland as "the English land," or "English ground." The Pale was surrounded by a belt of waste marches, beyond which lay the lands of the Irish enemy. From the invasion of Edward Bruce, in 1315, until the Geraldine rebellion in the sixteenth century, the extent of "the English land" steadily diminished. Bruce harried the Pale mercilessly in 1316 and 1317. The small English freeholders were forced to follow the lord-deputy in his "hostings." Their abandoned farmsteads were robbed and burnt by English and Irish alike. They fled in great numbers across the seas, in spite of the most strenuous legal prohibitions. The Statute of Kilkenny (1366) (q.v.) openly acknowledges the division of Ireland into a Celtic and an English territory, and attempts to isolate them from each other by decreeing savage penalties against Celtic intruders into the Pale, and English colonists adopting Irish customs. But the law was soon a dead letter. A statute of Edward IV provides, just a century later, for the swearing-in of the Irish inhabitants of the Pale as lieges, and declares that deputies shall be named to accept their oaths "for the multitude that is to be sworn." The Parliament of Drogheda in 1494 ordered the construction of a mound and ditch around the English borders, "in the county of Dublin, from the waters of Annaliffy to the mountain of Kildare, from the waters of Annaliffy to Trim, and so to Meath and Uriel." These practically continued to be the limits of the Pale until Henry VIII undertook the conquest of the whole island. Dalkey, Tallaght, Kilcullen, Naas, Kilcock, Siddan, Ardee, Derver, and Dundalk formed the border in 1515. In 1534 there was, it was said, "no folk subject to the king's laws, but half the county Uriel, half the county of Meath, half the county of Dublin, half the county of Kildare." In 1537 Justice Luttrell describes the Pale as a "little precinct, not much more than 20 miles in length ne in bredth." Bullied by the Crown, "cessed" by the parliament, subjected by their lords at once to feudal dues and to tribal impositions, plundered by corrupt judges and extortionate deputies, blackmailed by the Irish in time of peace, and harried by both sides in time of war, the dwellers in the Pale were probably the most wretched of all the wretched inhabitants of Ireland.

E. Curtis, "Mediæval Ireland," 1923; E. Hull, "A History of Ireland," 1926.

Palladius, St., was one of the numerous Christian missionaries who preceded St. Patrick in Ireland. He was consecrated bishop by Pope Celestine I, and dispatched by him in 431 to Ireland. Little is known about his previous history; he was probably a member of a Gallic family exiled to Britain, and seems to have become Deacon of Rome. He landed near Wicklow, but failed to gain many converts, and departed, having erected there three wooden churches. On his way back to Rome he died, one account representing him as having been martyred by the Scots.

Palliser, Sir Hugh (1723–96), was second in command to Admiral Keppel (q.v.) in a ludicrously abortive action with the French off Ushant in 1778, in which, after several hours' fighting, the rival fleets withdrew without any advantage having been gained on either side. Keppel declared that Palliser was to blame for this failure. Mutual recriminations ensued, and the former being a member of the opposition, the latter a lord of the admiralty, their case was made a party question. At length the matter was referred to a court-martial, which, reflecting the unjust tone of popular opinion, triumphantly acquitted Keppel; and when Palliser, feeling that this was a reflection on himself, resigned his appointments and demanded an inquiry, he could only obtain a very qualified sentence of approval.

R. M. Hunt, "Life of Palliser," 1844.

Palmer, Roundell, 1st Earl of Selborne (1812–95), son of the Rev. William Palmer of Mixbury, Oxfordshire, was educated at Rugby and Winchester and Trinity College, Oxford. He was elected to a fellowship at Magdalen, and was called to the bar at Lincoln's Inn (1837). In 1847 he was first returned to parliament for Plymouth as a Peelite. He represented Plymouth till 1852, when he was defeated; but regained his seat (1853), and held it till 1857. In 1861 he was appointed solicitor-general in Lord Palmerston's government, though he had not a seat in the House. He was then knighted, and shortly afterwards elected for Richmond, which he continued to represent till his elevation to the peerage. In 1863 he became attorney-general under Lord John Russell. In 1868 he was offered the chancellorship, but refused, as he could not agree with the administration on the Irish Church disendowment question. He continued, however, to be an independent supporter of the government on most questions, and represented it at Geneva (1871). [Geneva Award.] He was appointed lord chancellor on the retirement of Lord Hatherley (1872), on which occasion he was raised to the peerage as Baron Selborne, retiring with the Liberal party in 1874. He again became Liberal chancellor in 1880, but refused the same office in the Home Rule cabinet of 1886. He was created an earl in 1882.

Palmer, Sir Thomas (*d.* 1553), was joint commander of the English force which invaded Scotland in 1548, and took Haddington. During

the blockade of the town by the French and Scots he was taken prisoner while escorting a relieving force which revictualled the exhausted garrison. Palmer's chief notoriety is derived from his betrayal (in 1551) of the Protector Somerset to the Earl of Warwick, to whom he revealed a plot to murder Warwick himself and others of the Protector's enemies, which, when supplemented by some false additions, led to his death. Palmer was subsequently condemned by a special commission and executed for his share in the treason of Northumberland and Lady Jane Grey.

Palmerston, Henry John Temple, 3rd Viscount (1784–1865). [Temple.]

Pamirs, The, are a group of elevated tablelands on the borders of Afghanistan and Turkistan, a portion of which was claimed by Russia in virtue of her conquest of Kokand in 1875, while part was claimed by Afghanistan and part by China. In 1892 a Russian expedition under Colonel Yonoff penetrated into the district from Ferghana and came into conflict with an Afghan force at Soma Tash, driving them back with some loss (July 23), and subsequently required two British officers to retire from the territory. The Russian view was stated to be that Great Britain might incite the Afghans and Chinese to use the territory as a basis for aggression against Russia. In 1895 a Boundary Commission settled the limits of the British and Russian spheres of influence, the British sphere being assigned to Afghanistan, the western frontier of which was thereby determined from Zulfikar on the Heri Rud to the Pamirs.

Pandulf, papal legate (*d.* 1226), subdeacon of the household of Pope Innocent III, was sent to England in 1213 to make terms with King John. For a while the king held out, but finding himself deserted by everyone, he consented to Pandulf's terms, and resigned his kingdom to the pope, receiving it back as a fief of the Holy See. Pandulf remained in England throughout the struggle for the Charter, and rendered signal service to the royal cause. In reward he was elected to the see of Norwich, although he was not consecrated until 1222. On John's death he returned for a while to Rome, but in September 1218 he was appointed legate in England in place of Gualo. For the next three years the ultimate authority in the realm resided in him. He was in fact, if not in name, the successor in the regency of William Marshal, Earl of Pembroke. His ecclesiastical jurisdiction conflicted, however, with that of Archbishop Stephen Langton, who in 1221 induced the pope to recall him and to promise to appoint no successor during his (Langton's) lifetime. Pandulf retired to Rome, where he died in 1226. His body was brought to England and buried in the cathedral church of Norwich.

H. R. Luard, "Relations Between England and Rome in the Earlier Portion of the Reign of Henry III," 1877; A. Gasquet, "Henry III and the Church," 1905.

Panjdeh Incident, The, occurred between Great Britain and Russia in 1885. In 1884 the Amir of Afghanistan accepted a proposal for the delimitation of the frontier between his territory and Turkistan by a British and a Russian commission. The British commission set out, but the dispatch of the Russian was delayed pending further negotiations between the governments; and meantime Russian troops were pushed forward to occupy some of the points claimed. They were met by Afghan troops, and came into conflict with them at Dash Kepri, near Panjdeh, March 30, 1885. The Afghan troops were defeated, and the Russians set up a temporary administration in Panjdeh. A strong war feeling was aroused in England, but subsequently (May 2) it was agreed that the question who was responsible for the collision at Panjdeh should be decided by arbitration. The arbitration was never effected, but eventually Great Britain, on behalf of the Amir, gave up his claim to Panjdeh, he receiving in return the southern outlet of the Zulfikar Pass. The delimitation of the Russo-Afghan frontier was completed in 1895.

Papacy, Relations with. The conversion of the south of England by the Roman monk Augustine, who was sent by Pope Gregory I, established a close connexion between the Church in England and the papacy. Gregory I drew up a scheme for the ecclesiastical organization of England according to the lines of the provincial organization of the Roman Empire. There were to be two ecclesiastical provinces—one in the south, and one in the north—and each of the metropolitans was to have twelve suffragan bishops under him. This scheme was never entirely realized. The north of England was converted by Celtic missionaries; but the superior organization of the Roman Church made it more attractive to many minds. The Northumbrian Wilfrid (q.v.) visited Rome, and returned a staunch adherent to the Roman system. The struggle between the Roman and Celtic Churches disturbed Northumbria till the Synod of Whitby (664), chiefly owing to Wilfrid's influence, decided in favour of Rome. This decision brought England within the circle of Western civilization, and made possible her political union. Soon afterwards the death of an archbishop of Canterbury at the papal court gave Pope Vitalian an opportunity of nominating Theodore of Tarsus as his successor. It is a striking instance of the cosmopolitan influence of the Roman system that an Eastern monk should rule the English Church. Archbishop Theodore had a rare gift for organization. He established the framework of the ecclesiastical system pretty much as it remains at present. He made the Church in England strong in religion and learning. England became a centre of missionary activity. In the eighth century English missionaries spread Christianity along the Rhine, and paid back England's debt of gratitude to the papacy by bringing the

Frankish Church into closer connexion with the holy see. In 787 a sign of England's relationship to Rome was given by Offa, King of Mercia, who, to obtain the pope's consent to the establishment of a Mercian archbishopric at Lichfield, granted a tribute to the pope. This payment of a penny from every hearth passed on under the name of Peter's Pence (q.v.), and in later days the traditional sum of £201 9*s.* was paid for the whole kingdom. Though the papacy was regarded with great respect, its interference was rarely invited in the affairs of the English Church. In the tenth century Dunstan made the intercourse with Rome closer, and the archbishops from that time went to Rome for their palls.

On the whole, it may be said that in Anglo-Saxon times the Church in England was decidedly national, and worked harmoniously with the State. Few matters were referred to the pope's decision. Even Dunstan rejected a papal sentence, and legates were rarely seen in England. But the events preceding the Norman Conquest tended to bring the papacy into closer relations with English politics. Under Edward the Confessor a Norman favourite, Robert of Jumièges (q.v.), was made Archbishop of Canterbury. On Godwin's return from exile Archbishop Robert fled amongst the other Normans. His place was filled up by the election of Stigand, which Pope Leo IX refused to recognize, as being uncanonical. Pope Alexander II favoured the expedition of Duke William of Normandy, and sent him a consecrated banner. The papal approbation lent the Norman Conquest somewhat the appearance of a crusade, and three papal legates were sent afterwards to reform the English Church. Many bishops were deposed, and Norman successors were given to their sees. But neither William I nor Archbishop Lanfranc had the smallest inclination to surrender any of the rights of their position. The great Pope Gregory VII sent to demand arrears of Peter's Pence, which he considered as a feudal due, and claimed also the performance of homage. William I answered that he would pay the arrears; as to the homage, he had never promised it, his predecessors had never performed it, and he knew not on what grounds it was claimed. Moreover, William I reduced to shape the claims of the Crown in ecclesiastical matters. He set forth three points: (1) That no pope should be acknowledged in his realm save after his consent. The reason for this was the frequency of disputed elections to the papacy, and conflicting claims between rivals. (2) No decision of national or provincial synods was to be binding without his consent. (3) No vassal of the Crown was to be excommunicated till he had been informed of the offence.

The strong position assumed by William I was used by William II as a means of tyranny and extortion. Ecclesiastical fiefs were treated like lay fiefs; bishoprics were kept vacant, and their revenues were seized by the Crown. The reign of William II shows the need which there was for a power like that claimed by Gregory VII to protect the Church from feudal exactions. A schism, however, weakened the papacy. Archbishop Anselm (q.v.) was attacked by William II because he wished to receive the pall from Urban II, whom the king had not yet acknowledged as pope. Finally the pall was sent to England, and was taken by Anselm from the high altar at Canterbury. But Anselm could not stand against the persecution of William II, and fled to the continent, where the papacy was still powerless to help him. On Henry I's accession he returned; but he had learned in his exile the most advanced principles of the Hildebrandine policy, and on his return he raised an objection to the investiture of spiritual persons by a layman. This was practically to assert the entire freedom of the Church from the State. Henry I would not yield, and Anselm again went into exile. But the king needed the archbishop's help, and in 1107 Pope Paschal II agreed to a compromise, which ten years afterwards was extended universally. The Crown was to receive homage for the temporalities attached to an ecclesiastical office, while the spiritual emblems, the ring and crosier, were to be conferred by spiritual persons. Soon after this Henry I used the mediation of Pope Calixtus II to compose his differences with the French king. Another subject of dispute arose about the presence of papal legates in England. The pope, as universal visitor of the Church, sent *legati a latere* for special purposes. The English clergy maintained that the archbishop of Canterbury was permanent representative of the pope (*legatus natus*) in England, and could not be superseded. Henry I did not fight this question. In 1125 a papal legate, John of Crema, presided at an important council in London; but the protest against legates was not in vain.

Henry II procured from the one English pope, Hadrian IV, a grant of the sovereignty of Ireland, which was said to be conferred on the ground that by the donation of Constantine all islands were vested in the Roman see. But he made no use of this grant till the murder of Archbishop Thomas Becket made it desirable for him to show some zeal in the pope's service. During the quarrel between Henry II and Becket the papacy was not strong enough to interfere with effect. Even after Becket's murder Alexander III received Henry II's excuses, and did not join his enemies. Henry II's invasion of Ireland was followed by the Synod of Cashel (q.v.), in which the Irish Church was reformed in accordance with the pope's wishes.

The reign of John marks the farthest advance of the papal power in English affairs. Under Innocent III the papacy reached its highest point, and John's brutal character was no match for the pope. A disputed election to the see of Canterbury led to an appeal to Rome.

There was enough informality to justify Innocent III in setting aside both the claimants; but he went farther, caused a new election to be held in Rome, and nominated Stephen Langton (q.v.) to the suffrages of the monks. John refused to admit Langton, and Innocent III laid his kingdom under an interdict. John confiscated the goods of the clergy: Pope Innocent III proceeded to excommunicate, and finally to depose, the king. John's tyranny had alienated his subjects, and the French king was ready to execute the papal sentence. In despair John made abject submission, granted his kingdom to the pope, and received it back as a fief (1313) by the annual rent of 1,000 marks. As John debased himself the spirit of the English barons rose. Aided by Archbishop Langton they demanded a charter of liberties. Innocent III, to his disgrace, took the side of his vassal, and the Great Charter was a victory won by a united people against the king and the pope alike. Innocent III annulled the charter, but died as the struggle was about to commence. John's death quickly followed, and the minority of Henry III gave time for reflection. The young king was crowned by the legate Gualo (q.v.), and for a time there was an attempt on the part of the papacy to set up a legatine government in England. Archbishop Langton, by earnest remonstrances, procured the withdrawal of legates and the confirmation by the pope of the legatine power of the archbishop of Canterbury. For two centuries there was no further attempt to interfere by legates in English affairs.

The papacy was soon involved in a desperate struggle against the imperial house of Hohenstaufen, for which it needed large supplies. England was exposed to increasing exactions, and the feeble character of Henry III made him a willing tool in the hands of the resolute popes, Gregory IX and Innocent IV. The pope taxed the English clergy to the extent of a twentieth or a tenth of their annual incomes. They protested at the Council of Lyons (1245), but their remonstrances were not supported by the king. Moreover, the pope used recklessly his prerogative of provisions, or nominations to vacant benefices, suspending the rights of the patrons. It was said that the incomes thus drawn from England by foreign and non-resident ecclesiastics amounted to 50,000 marks. An association was formed, headed by a knight, Sir Robert de Twenge (q.v.), which took the law into its own hands, harried the papal collectors, and drove them from the kingdom. Innocent IV offered Henry III the kingdom of the Two Sicilies for his second son Edmund, and Henry III did his best to induce England to pay the expenses of the war necessary to gain possession of this disputed heritage. The laity refused to pay; but the clergy suffered from every device which the papal ingenuity could frame. Hence clerical discontent was a strong element in the Barons' War, and the nation generally looked upon the pope as a foreign intruder.

The great king Edward I had to face a resolute pope in Boniface VIII, who aimed at making the papacy the centre of the international relations of Europe. By the bull *Clericis laicos* (q.v.), Boniface VIII forbade the taxing of the clergy except by his consent. The convocation in 1297 pleaded the pope's prohibition against a heavy demand for money made by the king. Edward I replied by outlawing those who refused to pay, and the clergy were driven to make composition with the royal officers. Soon afterwards, however, Edward I was glad to employ Boniface VIII as arbitrator in an untimely difference between himself and the French king. Boniface VIII, wishing to extend his influence, encouraged the Scots to appeal to him as judge between them and Edward I. Edward, to avoid a personal quarrel with the pope, laid his letter before parliament at Lincoln in 1301. The barons replied that the kings of England had never pleaded, nor been bound to plead, concerning their temporal rights before any judge, ecclesiastical or secular; their subjects would not permit them to do so. Boniface VIII was engaged in a contest with the French king, which ended in his defeat, and led to the establishment of the papacy at Avignon. The feeble Edward II was ready to use Pope John XXII as the means of procuring a truce with Scotland; but the fortunes of war had changed after Bannockburn, and it was now the turn of the Scots to refuse the papal mediation.

The French war under Edward III increased the English resistance to papal exactions, which under the Avignonese popes grew heavier and heavier. The popes at Avignon were thought to be on the French side, and England would not see her money carried to her foes. In 1343 the agents of two cardinals who held preferment in England were driven from the land. In 1351 was passed the Statute of Provisors (q.v.), which enacted that if the pope appointed to a benefice the presentation for that time was to fall to the king, and the papal nominees were liable to imprisonment till they had renounced their claims. To avoid the conflict of jurisdiction between the royal courts and the papal courts, the Statute of Præmunire (q.v.) in 1353 forbade the withdrawal of suits from the king's court to any foreign court. In 1366 Pope Urban V demanded arrears for the last thirty-three years of the tribute of 1,000 marks which John had agreed to pay to the papacy. The prelates were foremost in giving their opinion that John had no power to bind the nation to another power without its consent. Lords and Commons together resolved that they would resist to the utmost the pope's claim. Urban V withdrew in silence, and the papal suzerainty over England was never again revived.

The spirit of resistance to the papacy was expressed in the teaching of Wyclif, who began his career as an ardent supporter of the English Church against the pope. When he passed into the region of doctrine Pope Gregory XI issued

bulls ordering his trial; but Wyclif was not personally condemned. The great schism in the papacy led to an increase in papal expenditure and papal exactions, especially under Boniface IX. But the spirit of England and the Statutes of Provisors and Præmunire were strong enough to offer determined resistance. In 1391 Boniface IX annulled the statutes by a bull, and proceeded to issue provisions which the English courts refused to recognize. Parliament at the same time asserted that they would not recognize the pope's power of excommunication if it were directed against any who were simply upholding the rights of the Crown. At the same time a more stringent statute against provisors was passed. The schism in the papacy greatly diminished the papal power, and led to many efforts to heal it. Ultimately, in the Council of Constance the rival popes were deposed or resigned, and in the vacancy of the papal office there was an opportunity for reforming abuses in the ecclesiastical system. The Emperor Sigismund was desirous of reform, and at first Henry V of England promised his aid. But the difficulties of harmonious working in the council were so great that Henry V deserted Sigismund, and joined those who thought that a new election to the papacy was a necessary prelude to reform. Henry Beaufort, Bishop of Winchester, the king's uncle, was called to Constance, to mediate between the contending parties. By his good offices arrangements were made for the election which ended in the choice of Martin V (1418), who showed his gratitude by raising Henry Beaufort to the dignity of cardinal. It shows the weakness of the government under Henry VI, that Beaufort was allowed to hold this dignity together with his bishopric. Up to this time English bishops had been compelled to resign their sees on accepting the cardinalate. Moreover, Beaufort was nominated papal legate against the Hussites. He raised troops in England, and led an expedition. Archbishop Chichele was weak and timid. Martin V ordered him to procure the repeal of the Statute of Præmunire, and when he pleaded his inability, suspended him from his office as legate. In 1428 Chichele was driven to beg the Commons to repeal the Statute of Præmunire; but weak as was the government, the Commons refused. Martin V humiliated the English episcopate, but gained nothing for himself.

The next relations of the papacy with England were purely political, arising from the pope's position in the politics of Italy. In 1489 Henry VII of England joined the league which was formed by Pope Alexander VI against the French, in consequence of Charles VIII's invasion of Italy. Similarly in 1512 Henry VIII joined the Holy League which Julius II formed against France. Julius II promised to transfer to him the title of "most Christian King," which had hitherto belonged to the French monarch. The transfer was not made, but a few years later Henry VIII was satisfied with the title of "Defender of the Faith," granted to him by Leo X in return for a treatise against Martin Luther. Henry VIII's great minister, Wolsey, became a cardinal, aspired to the papacy, and entertained projects for a reform of the Church. But Henry VIII's desire for a divorce from his wife, Katharine of Aragon, led to a collision with the papacy. Henry demanded that the pope should annul, or declare to be invalid from the first, the dispensation by virtue of which he had married his brother's widow. Clement VII temporized, and even endeavoured to procure Katharine's consent. He committed the cause to Wolsey and Campeggio as legates, and then revoked it to his own court. Henry VIII had gone too far to recede. Wolsey was declared liable to the penalties of Præmunire for having exercised the authority of legate. The clergy were by a legal quibble involved in the same penalty, and only escaped by admitting the royal supremacy. Henry VIII hoped to intimidate the pope; but Clement VII dared not give way. In 1533 the royal supremacy was established by act of parliament, and all direct relations with the court of Rome were suspended. In 1537 Pole was made legate north of the Alps, with a view to influence English affairs; but Henry VIII proclaimed him a traitor, and Pole was obliged to return from Flanders. Under Mary, in 1554, Pole was received as papal legate in England, and all acts of parliament against the pope's jurisdiction were repealed. Pope Paul IV was injudicious enough to urge upon Mary and Pole the impossible work of restoring the possessions of the Church. On Mary's death he showed such an implacable spirit towards Elizabeth that she felt that Anne Boleyn's daughter could not be reconciled to the Roman Church. In 1559 the royal supremacy was restored, and there was never again a question of its abolition. England drifted farther and farther from the papacy, and in 1571 Pius V excommunicated Elizabeth.

The marriage of Charles I to Henrietta Maria renewed to some degree diplomatic intercourse with the pope. Papal messengers were sent to England, and the queen had a representative at Rome. Charles I wished to confirm his claims to the allegiance of his Catholic subjects; and his proceedings were viewed by the Puritans with growing displeasure. The talk of union between the Church of England and the Church of Rome was one cause of popular discontent. Under Charles II and James II these relations were again renewed, with the result of accentuating more clearly the Protestantism of England by the Act of Settlement, 1701 (q.v.), which secured the Protestant succession. From this period relations with the papacy became regulated by the ordinary exigencies of diplomacy. During the Napoleonic war England took the part of Pius VII and restored to him the Papal States, of which he had been violently dispossessed. The last act of hostility towards the papacy was the Ecclesiastical Titles Act of

1851, which regarded as papal aggression the appointment of Roman Catholic bishops with territorial designations. [In 1914 British diplomatic relations with the papacy, which had officially lapsed since the days of Elizabeth, were resumed by the appointment of Sir Henry Howard at the Vatican.]

Dixon, "History of the English Church"; Perry, "History of the Church of England"; Milman, "Latin Christianity"; Creighton, "History of the Papacy during the Period of the Reformation," 1894; T. D. Ingram, "England and Rome," 1897.

[M. C.]

Paper Duties, Repeal of the, was proposed in 1860 by Gladstone, partly to remove a "tax on knowledge." It was opposed on financial and other grounds, but the money bill embodying it passed the Commons and then was rejected in the Lords. The House of Commons then passed resolutions reasserting its own exclusive claim to grant supplies or limit them, and deprecating the Lords' interference, for which, however, it admitted that precedents existed. Next year the repeal was again proposed and the whole of the budget was included in one bill, a course which, since the Lords cannot (under a Commons resolution of 1678) amend money bills, left them the alternative of accepting the repeal or rejecting the whole budget. They therefore gave way. This practice of inclusion, for which there were few precedents, has been regularly followed since. [Parliament.]

Papineau, Louis Joseph (1786–1871), was a leader of the French-Canadian party of Lower Canada, and one of the chief movers of the petitions to the home government setting forth the grievances of the National party. He was elected a member for the city of Montreal in 1811, and became Speaker of the assembly. On the outbreak of the riots in 1837 the government attempted to arrest him; but he fled to the United States, returning on the amnesty in 1847, and sitting in the Canadian parliament till his death in 1871.

Biographies by E. Circé-Côté, 1924, A. D. de Celles, 1905, and D. MacArthur, 1913.

Papua, or the Territory of the Commonwealth of Australia (q.v.), also called British New Guinea, is the south-eastern part of the island of New Guinea. The island was first sighted by de Menesis (1526) and de Saavedra (1528), while in 1606 Torres discovered the strait named after himself which separates it from Australia. The Portuguese and Dutch traded, but did not open up the island to Europeans. In spite of visits to the coast by Roda, Torres, Tasman, Dampier, Bougainville, Forrest, and Cook, it was not annexed until 1793 by two East India Company commanders. The Dutch, Germans, and English had partly colonized and divided the island into three by 1909. The German colony (the Territory of New Guinea) is now a mandated territory of the Commonwealth of Australia. Papua was annexed to Queensland in 1883, but the annexation was revoked by the British government, who, however, reannexed it in 1884, coming to an agreement with Germany. Papua was subsidized by the three eastern states of Australia until 1888, when it was made a Crown colony with a lieutenant-governor, executive and legislative councils, and a native regulation board to give advice. By the Papua Act of 1905 the Commonwealth of Australia accepted Papua on the terms of the permissive letters patent of 1902, and now administers the territory, which comprises also the islands of Trobriand, Woodlark, D'Entrecasteaux, and Louisiade groups. Native labour is largely skilled, and state regulation ensures a very fair economic justice.

J. H. P. Murray, "Review of the Australian Administration in Papua, 1907–20," 1920.

Paris, Matthew (*d.* c. 1259), was a Benedictine monk of the abbey of St. Albans. He was a man of great accomplishments, and is specially notable as an historian. He wrote a work called "Chronica Majora," which is a continuation of the "History" of Roger of Wendover from the year 1235. He also wrote "Historia Anglorum (Historia Minor)," which extends from 1067 to 1253, and the "Lives of the Abbots of St. Albans." He is supposed also to have written the early part of the abridgment of the "Historia Major" called "Flores Historiarum," and attributed to Matthew of Westminster. Matthew Paris is the greatest of our mediæval chroniclers, and his works are by far the most important authorities for the first half of the thirteenth century.

Editions of the "Chronica Majora" and "Historia Minor" are published in the Rolls Series; "Chronica Majora" were first printed in 1571. There is a translation of the "Historia Anglorum" in "Bohn's Antiquarian Library."

Paris, The Declaration of (1856), was an important declaration relating to international law put forward by the Congress of Paris after the close of the Crimean War. The powers represented agreed to three points of international law: (1) Privateering should be abolished, (2) The neutral flag covered even enemy goods, contraband of war excepted, (3) Blockades in order to be respected must be effective, that is, maintained by a force sufficient to prevent access to the enemy coast. The United States government agreed to the second and third of these points, but not to the first.

T. G. Bowles, "The Declaration of Paris," 1900.

Paris, Treaties of. Treaties involving this country have been concluded in Paris on the following important occasions:

(1) 1259, between Henry III of England and Louis IX of France. [Abbeville.]

(2) May 31, 1727, between Great Britain, France, Holland, and the Empire. This treaty, a preliminary to a general pacification, averted the danger of a European war which had been raised by the treaties of Vienna and Hanover.

(3) February 1763, between Great Britain,

France, and Spain. This treaty closed the Seven Years' War. Negotiations had been opened in 1761, but broken off by Pitt at the news of the third Family Compact (q.v.). By the treaty France ceded to Great Britain, Nova Scotia, Canada, Cape Breton Island, Grenada, St. Vincent, Dominica, Tobago, Senegal, and Minorca. Spain ceded to Great Britain fishing rights off Newfoundland, the right to cut log-wood in Honduras, and Florida (for which last she was secretly compensated by France with Louisiana). Great Britain ceded fishing rights off Newfoundland to France, together with San Pierre and Miquelon (which were not to be fortified), Belle Isle, Guadeloupe, Martinique, Goree, and certain towns in India held since 1749. British cessions to Spain consisted of Cuba and the Philippines.

(4) September 1783. [Versailles.]

(5) May 1814, between the powers comprising the Fourth Coalition and France. It consisted of seven separate treaties, signed by the individual powers after Napoleon's abdication and banishment to Elba. Its terms were moderate. France received the territorial frontiers of 1792, with strategical additions in part of Savoy and Lorraine. She received back all her colonies except Mauritius and the West Indian Islands. But Great Britain retained Malta, and France was restricted in India to commercial privileges only. No war-indemnity was imposed, nor was any order made for the restoration of art-treasures carried off by Napoleon.

(6) November 20, 1815, concluded the Napoleonic Wars after the Waterloo campaign, and was far more severe than the treaty of the previous year. It restricted France to the boundaries of 1790 (Prussia received part of Alsace, Sardinia part of Piedmont, the Netherlands certain regions in the north); imposed an indemnity of 700 million francs; banished Napoleon to St. Helena; ordered the restoration of art-treasures; and established an allied army of occupation (150,000 troops) for five years, to be maintained by France.

(7) March 30, 1856, between Great Britain, France, Turkey, and Sardinia on the one side, and Russia on the other, closed the Crimean War. The independence and integrity of the Ottoman Empire were guaranteed by the powers; toleration was decreed to the Christian subjects of the Porte; the Black Sea was neutralized, demilitarized, and declared open to all merchantmen but not to warships; Kars was restored to the Porte and the Crimea to Russia; the navigation of the Danube was to be free to all nations and controlled by an international commission; Bessarabia was ceded by Russia to Moldavia, and Moldavia and Wallachia were to remain under the suzerainty of the Porte, each with its own autonomous convention; and the liberties of Serbia were similarly guaranteed. By a separate treaty Great Britain, France, and Austria guaranteed Ottoman integrity; while a separate convention between the six powers and the Sultan declared the Bosporus and Dardanelles closed to warships as long as the Porte was at peace.

(8) March 3, 1857, between Great Britain and Persia, provided that Persia should renounce all claim or dominion over Herat and Afghanistan and refer future differences with the Afghan states to the friendly offices of the British government. This treaty also abolished the slave trade in the Persian Gulf.

Text of Treaty of 1856 in Oakes and Mowat, "Great European Treaties of the 19th Century," 1918.

[A. C. F. B.]

Parish is derived from the Greek *παροικία*, and means primarily the district assigned to a particular church. In early times the bishoprics were small and the spiritual care of each town or district was in the hands of the bishop, but with the spread of Christianity and the development of the importance of the episcopate it became usual to assign special districts within the diocese to the care of a single presbyter under the bishop's supervision. By the ninth or tenth century at latest this parochial system became universal, but it had been gradually growing up long before that time. In England the original missionaries were monks, who were organized together by their dependence on the bishop, but it soon became an evidence of piety for the lord of a district to build and endow a church on it, in return for which he seems to have acquired the right of nominating the minister, who gradually obtained the disposal of the tithe, which originally had been administered by the bishop. Archbishop Theodore of Tarsus gave an impetus to the development of the parochial system in England, by encouraging the increase of the number of resident priests both in the country and in the town, and Bæda urged strongly on Archbishop Ecgbert the importance of the work. Ultimately the whole of England, with insignificant exceptions, was divided into parishes, which were usually, though not necessarily, conterminous with the township or manor, though in many cases the township was too small to require a priest and church of its own, so that some parishes contained several townships, and sometimes the boundaries of parishes and townships even overlapped. Still, as a whole, the parish became little more than the township in its ecclesiastical aspect, and as the old English local system became obsolete, the parish encroached, so to say, upon the township. In modern times the parish suggests civil quite as much as ecclesiastical jurisdiction. The parish after the Reformation became for many purposes the unit of local government. The parish vestry, originally an ecclesiastical assembly of all the inhabitants, became a civil court that acquired some of the slender functions of the townshipmoot; the churchwardens and overseers, its officers, became in a sense civil as well as ecclesiastical officers. By the Local Government Act of 1894, however [Local Government Acts], the churchwardens were deprived of their civil functions. In rural

districts the civil duties of the vestry were transferred to the parish councils, while in the urban areas all but an insignificant residue passed to the urban councils. In 1921, by the Parochial Church Councils (Powers) Measure, ecclesiastical parish councils were established to which were transferred most of the powers relating to the affairs of the church which were formerly enjoyed by the vestry.

Besides civil parishes, as old parishes are called, the Church Building Act of 1818 permits the establishment of new ecclesiastical parishes or districts, which, independent in ecclesiastical matters, remain for civil purposes part of the mother parish.

Stephens and Hunt, "Ecclesiastical History of England"; W. S. Holdsworth, "History of English Law," 1922; O. J. Reichel, "Rise of the Parochial System in England," 1905; S. and B. Webb, "English Local Government"; Redlich and Hirst, "Local Government in England"; Halsbury, "Laws of England," Supplement, 1926.

Parisi, The, were an ancient Celtic tribe occupying roughly the south-eastern portion of the present county of York.

Parker, Sir Hyde (1739–1807), entered the navy at an early age, and was made a post-captain in 1763. He distinguished himself during the American War, and captured Savannah in 1779. He took part in the relief of Gibraltar in 1782, and in the operations before Toulon in 1794. In 1801 he was appointed to the chief command of the expedition to Copenhagen, with Nelson as his second. The actual command of the fleet which was in action at the battle of Copenhagen was taken by the latter.

Parker, Matthew (1504–75), Archbishop of Canterbury, was born at Norwich and educated at Cambridge, where he attained great celebrity as a scholar and a theologian. He became famous as a preacher, and was appointed chaplain to Henry VIII, and in 1552 dean of Lincoln, but, having distinguished himself by his zealous advocacy of the Reformation, narrowly escaped martyrdom during the Marian persecution. His sound judgment caused him to be singled out by Elizabeth for the primacy, which he accepted much against his will, being consecrated at Lambeth by Barlow, late Bishop of Bath and Wells; Hodgkins, suffragan Bishop of Bedford; Miles Coverdale, late Bishop of Exeter; and John Scory, late Bishop of Chichester (December 17, 1559). From this time the history of Archbishop Parker is that of the Church of England. On several occasions the archbishop found himself brought into collision with Elizabeth, especially on the subject of the marriage of the clergy, which he favoured. He took an important part in the translation of the Bishops' Bible (1563–8), and in his revision of the Thirty-nine Articles showed much good sense. Parker was the author of the famous "Advertisements of Queen Elizabeth" (1565), which formed a book of discipline for the clergy, and the enforcement of which has earned for their author the obloquy of the Puritanical party and the reproach of having been a persecutor. In 1575 the archbishop died, having during the whole tenure of his office followed the consistent policy of maintaining ecclesiastical affairs as they had been left by Edward VI. In theology he was Calvinistic, but in matters of ecclesiastical government he was altogether opposed both to the Catholics and the Puritans, and anxious, with due prudence and circumspection, to obtain uniformity in the English Church. Parker was a student of English antiquities and early history. He wrote a work, "De Antiquitate Britannicæ Ecclesiæ" (1572), and edited Matthew Paris in 1571.

Parker's "Works" have been published by the Parker Society, established 1840. Biography by W. M. Kennedy, 1908.

Parker, Samuel (1640–88), Bishop of Oxford, was the son of John Parker, a baron of the Exchequer. At the Restoration he forsook the Puritan party, to which he had belonged, and made himself conspicuous by his bitter attacks on Puritanism. He was consecrated Bishop of Oxford in 1686, and next year was forcibly intruded into the office of president of Magdalen College. He died shortly after this, leaving the reputation of a voluminous and acute writer, and a dishonest man. He left an historical work, "De Rebus sui Temporis," published in 1727.

Parkhurst, John (1512?–1575), Bishop of Norwich, the tutor of Bishop Jewel, was one of the most earnest of the reformers of Edward VI's reign, and was in consequence obliged to take refuge at Zürich during the Marian persecution. On the accession of Elizabeth he returned to England and became Bishop of Norwich (1560). Parkhurst was a supporter of the Nonconformists, and a vehement opponent of persecution.

Parkyns, Sir William (1649?–1696), was a lawyer and a Jacobite conspirator, chiefly notorious for his share in the Assassination Plot (q.v.). He had been one of the most violent opponents of the Exclusion Bill, and had supported James II to the last. After the Revolution, however, he swore allegiance to William. He did not take a very active share in the Assassination Plot (1696), owing to infirmity. His chief duty was to provide arms for the conspirators. Large quantities were seized at his house on the detection of the plot. He was tried and condemned to death (March 24). A committee of the Commons went to interrogate him at Newgate, but he refused to betray his accomplices.

Parliament. The fundamental notion that has always upheld the office and action of parliament in the constitution, and has been professedly the guiding principle of all dealings with it on the part of the Crown, is that it is the realm of England in little, embracing in its conception all the separate parts which united make the great English nation. Every capacity

every political virtue inherent in the whole nation, is inherent in it. The history of the institution, taken apart from its origin, is usually held to begin with November 27, 1295. On that day the first assembly whose full parliamentary character is uncontroverted met at Westminster; but the word *parliament*—which translates *colloquium*, means a *talking*, and came to us from Italy—had been already in frequent use; it was given, for instance, to the peculiarly constituted meetings that the Provisions of Oxford determined should be held three times a year. Its earliest recorded application to a national assembly is found under the year 1246, and even after 1295 mere councils were now and then called by the name. Parliament, in the words of Stubbs, is "the concentration of all the constituents of the shiremoots in a central assembly." They contained in their ultimate form the great folk, clerical and lay, the freeholders, and representatives of the townships and municipalities of the several shires. Parliament contains practically the same component parts of the nation, and the kinship of the humbler with the grander institution is seen in the use for centuries of the sheriffs and county courts (q.v.) in parliamentary elections. Through the sheriffs the whole electoral machinery was set in motion: at the county courts the elections of knights of the shire were made, and to them those of citizens and burgesses were reported. The county court, too, had long been the chief depository of the principle of representation; when the need arose its merit as a model for the great representative body could hardly be missed. But the historic parliament is something more than the express essence of all the county courts in the kingdom; it is an assembly that is an image of the people, not as an undivided whole, but as split up into separate interests. The clergy, the baronage, and the commons had all to be in it, united yet distinct, to make it a full parliament. Now the higher clergy and the baronage had always been in the national council; the lower clergy and the commons had only to be added, and the work would be done. The process of adding those took some time, and but for the strong motive that kept driving on the king to its accomplishment, might have taken much longer. Personal property or "movables" had become subject to taxation; the methods of getting the necessary consents, expressed or constructive, which the preparliamentary regime obliged the king to resort to, were complicated and tedious, and the need of a simple and swifter method was strongly felt. Accordingly we find several assemblies before Edward I's time which contained one or more of the parliamentary elements that were still wanting, but which still lacked something to make them perfect. In 1213 two such were summoned, one with chosen men of the towns in it, to St. Albans; the other, with chosen men of the shires in it, to Oxford. In 1254 the sheriffs were directed to see that their several shires returned two knights each to settle what aid they were willing to give the king. During the years that follow similar instances are found; but in none were citizens and burgesses combined with knights of the shire till the meeting in January 1265 of the renowned parliament called at the instance of Simon de Montfort. This contained 117 dignified churchmen, 23 lay nobles, two men summoned from each shire through the sheriff, and two men summoned from certain cities and boroughs, but not through the sheriff. This, however, was not primarily and essentially a constitutional assembly. It was merely a parliamentary assembly of the supporters of the existing government. Consequently it is impossible to see in it the first parliament of the modern type. During the next thirty years there was no lack of assemblies that got the name of parliaments, in which the commonalty is recorded to have been present. In 1275, at the "famous and solemn" assembly held at Westminster, both shires and boroughs were represented, the only missing constituents of the "Model Parliament" being the lesser clergy. Under 1282 we read of provincial parliaments, one at York and one at Northampton, both representative of the lower clergy and lay commons—who, however, sat apart from each other—but without the lay nobility. A general tax was their object, in which fact we have a proof of the close connexion between taxation and the birth of representative government. A parliamentary gathering at Acton Burnel in 1283 is a good example of those unfinished parliaments. It contained no clergy, and representatives of only twenty-one cities and boroughs; and its business was to see David of Wales tried for his life. Others, equally imperfect, succeed. At last the troubles that crowded in upon Edward I in 1295 persuaded him to throw himself upon his whole people. In October he issued writs for an assembly which should be a complete image of the nation. On November 27 this assembly met, and in it historians discern all the component parts and type of a finished parliament. It was composed of 97 bishops, abbots, and priors, 65 earls and barons, 39 judges and others, representatives of the lower clergy, summoned through their diocesans, and representatives of the counties, cities, and boroughs summoned through the sheriff. Every section of the population that had political rights was in it, in person or by proxy.

This fully developed parliament did not at once fall into the exercise of all the powers belonging to the body of which it was the expansion. One of them, indeed, the judicial, it has taken care never to assume. Taxation was at first the sole business that all its parts had in common, but time and circumstance soon brought rights and privileges. By slow degrees legislation and general political deliberations came to be classed among its powers. All its parts, however, did not advance towards these

with equal speed; those which have since far outstripped the others moved but timidly at first. For a time, also, the several parts held aloof from one another, and even when the pairing process began, the tendency was towards the combination of the barons and knights of the shire into one body, the citizens and burgesses into another, while the clergy made a third. But this did not go far; within little more than a generation the clerical and lay baronages had coalesced into the joint estate of the lords spiritual and temporal, and all the lay representatives into the estate of the commons; and within little more than fifty years the lower clergy, preferring to tax themselves in convocation, had fallen away altogether. From this time parliament grew steadily in importance, and in a few generations was firmly rooted in the constitution. It had become indispensable to the legal transaction of the greater affairs of state. During mediæval times it was, except at rare and brief intervals, convoked often and regularly, and not seldom to provincial towns; its influence was felt in every department of government; it occasionally curbed the king's will; its members had become privileged, and a system of rules—a whole code of laws, in fact—had grown up to guide its conduct and prescribe its procedure. From the time of Edward III it is undoubted that no tax could be levied, and (in secular matters at least) no law be made that had not originated in and been sanctioned by parliament. Throughout the Tudor period it kept all its powers unimpaired, though in exercising them it was moved by special causes to submit for a time to the dictation of the Crown. In Elizabeth's days it began to recover its independence, and under the early Stuarts it entered upon a course of action which developed into a struggle for supremacy in the state. This it pursued so doggedly that it measured its strength with the Crown and overthrew it, but only to be itself overthrown by one of its own soldiers. Restored with the monarchy, it again drifted into a less violent conflict with its former antagonist, and at the Revolution it secured its supremacy; and it has since become the one all-important political power.

The powers and exemptions, known as Privilege of Parliament, which both Houses enjoy in common, are of two kinds—those that belong to the Houses in their corporate capacity, and those that belong to individual members. Of the former the most vital are freedom of speech, liberty of access to the presence of the sovereign, that the sovereign should not notice anything said or done in parliament, save on the report of the House, and the power of committing for contempt. Of the latter class the most valuable is exemption of members from arrest when going to, attending, or returning from parliament, except on a charge of treason or felony, or a refusal to give surety of the peace. Once these privileges were far more extensive. But legislation has removed the area of their personal privilege to the one immunity given above.

A. F. Pollard, "Evolution of Parliament," 1920; Sir T. Erskine May, "The Law of Parliament," 1844 and 1917; Sir W. Anson, "Law and Custom of the Constitution"; O. L. Pike, "Constitutional History of the House of Lords," 1894; Sir C. P. Ilbert, "Parliament," 1911; C. Wittke, "History of English Parliamentary Privilege," 1921; A. Paul, "History of Reform," 1885; and authorities for article, COMMONS, THE HOUSE OF.

LIST OF ADMINISTRATIONS FROM 1702

Sidney Godolphin	1702
Robert Harley	September 1710
Viscount Townshend	September 1714
Lord Stanhope	April 1717
Robert Walpole	February 1721
Lord Carteret	February 1742
The Pelhams	November 1744
Earl of Bath	February 10, 1746
The Pelhams	February 12, 1746
Duke of Newcastle	April 1754
William Pitt	November 1756
Pitt's Coalition	June 1757
Duke of Newcastle	1760
Earl of Bute	May 1762
George Grenville	May 1763
Marquis of Rockingham	July 1765
Earl of Chatham	August 1766
Duke of Grafton	December 1767
Lord North	January 1770
Marquis of Rockingham	March 1782
Lord Shelburne	July 1782
Fox and North	April 1783
William Pitt	December 1783
Henry Addington	March 1801
William Pitt	May 1804
Lord Grenville	February 1806
Earl of Portland	March 1807
Spencer Perceval	October 1809
Earl of Liverpool	June 1812
George Canning	April 1827
Viscount Goderich	September 1827
Duke of Wellington	January 1828
Earl Grey	November 1830
Viscount Melbourne	July 1834
Sir R. Peel	December 1834
Viscount Melbourne	April 1835
Sir Robert Peel	September 1841
Earl Russell	July 1846
Earl of Derby	February 1852
Earl of Aberdeen	December 1852
Earl Russell	February 1855
Earl of Derby	February 1858
Viscount Palmerston	June 1859
Derby and Disraeli	June 1866
W. E. Gladstone	December 1868
Earl of Beaconsfield	February 1874
W. E. Gladstone	April 1880
Marquis of Salisbury	July 1885
W. E. Gladstone	February 1886
Marquis of Salisbury	August 1886
W. E. Gladstone and Earl of Rosebery	August 1892
Marquis of Salisbury	June 1895
A. J. Balfour	July 1902
Sir H. Campbell-Bannerman	January 1906
H. H. Asquith	April 1908
Asquith Coalition	May 1915
Lloyd George Coalition	December 1916
A. Bonar Law and Stanley Baldwin	October 1922
J. Ramsay MacDonald	January 1924
Stanley Baldwin	November 1924

C. C. Bigham, "Prime Ministers of England, 1721 1921," 1922 and 1924.

Parliament Act, THE (1911), which deprived the House of Lords of its veto on legislation, was passed as the result of a heated struggle between Lords and Commons. The Lords had always acted as a brake on the legislation of the Commons, but in the years preceding 1910 several bills important in the

eyes of the Liberal government had been vetoed by the Lords, among them one for lowering the number of superfluous public-houses (1908). The climax came when the budget of 1909 met the same fate. The Liberals went to the country, enraged at what seemed an attack on the Commons' initiative in taxation, and were returned in 1910 with a majority of two and the support of the Labour Party and the Irish Nationalists. The Conservatives urged a referendum on the question, to which (early in the new reign) the Liberals replied by a bill abolishing the Lords' veto. This bill was thrown out by the Lords. A second general election was accordingly held, and the Liberals returned again with a majority of one, and the same Labour and Irish Nationalist support. Mr. Asquith resolved, and King George V agreed, to create new peers if necessary to pass the bill (as had been threatened at the time of the first Reform Bill in 1832). Under this threat the Lords passed the Parliament Bill by a majority of 17 (August 18, 1911). The Commons became the sovereign power in the State. The question of reforming the House of Lords and giving it a more representative character was shelved.

Under the Parliament Act money bills passed by the Commons were to become law if sent up to the Lords at least a month before the end of a session and not passed by them within a month; public bills (other than money bills) were to become law if passed by the Commons in three successive sessions and sent up to the Lords at least one month before the close of each session, the words of enactment being modified in every such case to meet the circumstances; and five years was substituted for seven years (see Septennial Act, 1715) as the maximum duration of a parliament. [Lords, House of.]

C. Grant Robertson, "Select Statutes, Cases and Documents," 4th edition, 1923, pp. 350–3.
[A. C. F. B.]

Parnell, Charles Stewart (1846–91), was born at Avondale, co. Wicklow, and educated at Magdalene College, Cambridge. He took no interest in the Fenian movement of 1865–7, and did not begin to study Irish politics seriously until 1874, but he was profoundly moved by the "Manchester Murders" of 1869. Elected member of parliament for Meath (April 19, 1875) after failing at Dublin, he entered upon a policy of parliamentary obstruction which on one occasion (July 31, 1877) kept the House sitting continuously for 26 hours. By April 1880 he was accepted as the leader of the Irish Home Rule Party in succession to Isaac Butt (q.v.), having succeeded in 1878 in uniting all the Irish parties hostile to English rule (including the Fenians under Davitt and Devoy) in favour of constitutional methods of agitation, and having become president of the Land League, aiming at reducing rack rents and at transferring ownership of land to the occupiers. The Land League was suppressed in November 1880 on account of violence, to avoid which Parnell had instituted a policy of boycotting hostile landlords; and in October 1881, after an abortive prosecution in the spring, Parnell was imprisoned in Kilmainham Jail under the Crimes Act of 1881. Subsequently released by the "Kilmainham Treaty" (q.v.), he became president of the National League in 1882. But the conciliatory policy of the government was checked by the Phœnix Park murders (q.v.), and in 1885, in view of the renewal of the Crimes Act, Parnell definitely broke with the Liberals and negotiated with Lord Carnarvon [Herbert]. On Gladstone's introduction of the first Home Rule Bill on April 8, 1886, however, Parnell again supported the government. The next three years were occupied by the investigation of the Pigott forgeries [Parnell Commission], which had sought to implicate Parnell in the Phœnix Park murders (the first letter appeared in *The Times* on April 18, 1887, and the inquiry concluded on November 22, 1889, after Richard Pigott had committed suicide in Spain). This scare was followed in 1890 by the O'Shea divorce case, in which Parnell, who had first met Katharine O'Shea in 1880, was cited as co-respondent. He subsequently married Mrs. O'Shea, but the majority of his party, led by its Nonconformist members, abandoned him and elected Justin MacCarthy leader in his place. He died a broken man on October 6, 1891.

Biographies by R. Barry O'Brien, 1899; T. P. O'Connor, 1891; Katharine O'Shea, 1914; J. H. Parnell, 1916; St. John Ervine, 1925; W. O'Brien, 1926; and Sir A. Robbins, 1926. [A. C. F. B.]

Parnell, Henry Brooke, Lord Congleton (1776–1842), was the second son of Sir John Parnell, chancellor of the exchequer in Ireland. His elder brother being born a cripple without the use of speech, the estates were settled upon Henry by a special act of parliament, 1789. He entered parliament in 1802 as member for Portarlington. He devoted himself, especially during his parliamentary career, to the questions of the corn law reform and Catholic relief, and soon became prominent as a champion in the opposition. He also published several pamphlets of some weight on these questions. He was chairman of the finance committee in the session of 1828. His motion, in 1830, with regard to the civil list, on which the ministry was outvoted, produced the downfall of the Wellington administration (November 15). He afterwards sat for Queen's County for twenty-seven years, and subsequently represented Dundee, being created a peer August 20, 1841. He died by his own hand, June 1842.

Parnell Commission, The. On April 18, 1887, *The Times* published in facsimile a letter purporting to have been written by Charles Stewart Parnell in 1882 in extenuation of the Phœnix Park murders. [Ireland.] An attempt to obtain an inquiry broke down in

the House of Commons, and the subject was only revived in July 1888 by an action for libel against *The Times* brought by F. H. O'Donnell, a Nationalist M.P., in which the defendants pleaded justification and published other similar letters. A special commission of three judges was then appointed to inquire into the charges made against sixty-four Irish members of parliament and Michael Davitt. Features of the case were the evidences of Irish outrages; the testimony of the spy, Major le Caron; the breakdown in cross-examination of Richard Pigott, a Nationalist journalist who confessed he had supplied the alleged letters to *The Times*, and his flight and suicide at Madrid; Parnell's evidence and the retirement of his counsel from the case after the judges refused to order the production of the books of a Unionist society alleged to have subsidized Pigott. The commission reported on February 13, 1890, acquitting Parnell of complicity with or sympathy for the Phœnix Park murders, and the defendants generally of organizing outrages, but declaring them guilty of counselling intimidation and of extenuating agrarian crime.

Parr, William, Marquis of Northampton and Earl of Essex (1513–71), the brother of Queen Catherine Parr, was named one of the councillors appointed under the will of Henry VIII in 1547, to assist the executors in the government during the minority of Edward VI. During the rebellion in Norfolk, in 1549, he was for part of the time in command of the royal troops, but owing to his incapacity was superseded by Dudley. On the accession of Mary he was sent to the Tower for the support which he had accorded to Northumberland, but was subsequently pardoned. In 1554 Northampton was implicated in Wyatt's rebellion, and was again imprisoned, but was shortly afterwards released, and in 1558 became one of Elizabeth's councillors.

Parry, Dr. William (*d.* 1585), was a Welshman employed by Burghley to reside abroad and act as a spy on the English exiles. On his return home in 1580 he had frequent interviews with the queen, disclosing various designs on her life. In 1584, having violently opposed in parliament the act against the Jesuits, he was expelled from the House, and imprisoned for a short time, but released by the queen's orders. He was shortly afterwards denounced as having formed a scheme to assassinate the queen, and was executed for treason at Tyburn (March 1585). Doubt still exists, however, as to his guilt.

Parsons, Robert (1546–1610), "a subtle and lying Jesuit," was born in Somerset, and educated at Oxford, where he became a fellow of Balliol. Being compelled to quit England on a charge of embezzling the college money, Parsons went to Rome, and joined the Jesuits. In June 1580 he visited England in company with Edmund Campion (q.v.). A very severe statute against those who harboured or concealed Jesuits was passed by parliament (January 1581). So active was the search after the two missionaries that Parsons was compelled to return to the continent. He then went to Scotland for the purpose of undermining the English influence there; and in 1582 met the Duke of Guise at Paris, where he arranged the plan associating Mary and James in the government of Scotland, and went to Spain to procure assistance from Philip II. His schemes were, however, frustrated by the prompt measures of Elizabeth's ministers, and by the Raid of Ruthven (q.v.). In 1594 he published, under the name of Doleman, his famous "Conference about the Next Succession to the Crown of England," dedicated to Essex, in which he set forth the claims of the Infanta. He died in Rome.

Parsons' Memoirs, ed. J. H. Pollen, 1905.

Partition Treaties, The (1698 and 1700), were an attempt to settle from outside the complex question of the Spanish Succession on the death of the king, Charles II. *The first treaty* (October 11, 1698) proposed to confer the greater part of the Spanish dominions on the least powerful of the candidates, the Electoral Prince of Bavaria. The first overtures were made by Louis XIV, and in consequence Marshal Tallard was sent to London in April, and the first rough form of the division was broached. In August, Louis, still hoping to secure the whole of the Spanish dominions for one of his grandsons, was inclined to break off the negotiations, but was dissuaded by Tallard. The departure of William III for Holland, where it was feared that he might form a union with the emperor, the Elector of Bavaria, and the chief Protestant princes against France, caused Louis to wish for a definite settlement. By the Treaty of Loo, as it is sometimes called, signed by the representatives of England, France, and Holland, France consented to resign all claims on Spain, the Indies, and the Netherlands in favour of Charles the electoral prince. The dauphin was to have the province of Guipuscoa, with Naples, Sicily, and some small Italian islands, which were part of the Spanish monarchy. Milan and Luxemburg were allotted to the Archduke Charles. As the electoral prince was still a child, it was agreed that his father, who was then viceroy of the Spanish Netherlands, should be regent of Spain during the minority. Unfortunately the electoral prince died of small-pox (February 1699), and no arrangement had been made to meet the contingency of his dying before succeeding to the throne. *The second treaty* (February 21 and March 15, 1700) was another attempt to settle the succession, consequent on the death of the Electoral Prince of Bavaria. This time the Archduke Charles of Austria was to be king of the greater part of the Spanish dominions (Spain, the Indies, and the Netherlands). France was to receive Guipuscoa, in the north of Spain,

and the two Sicilies, together with Milan, which was to be exchanged for the Duchy of Lorraine. It was evident that Louis was insincere. Soon the Spanish minister, Portocarrero, and the French diplomatist, Harcourt, induced the dying King of Spain to make a new will declaring the Duke of Anjou, a son of the dauphin, heir to the whole of his dominions. The treaty was unpopular in England. In November the King of Spain died, and Louis, with complete disregard of treaties, accepted the Spanish inheritance for his grandson. The Tory House of Commons proceeded to impeach Portland, Oxford, Somers, and Montagu for their share in the treaties; but this resentment proved abortive, although in March 1701 both treaties were severely censured. The immediate result of the duplicity of Louis XIV was the formation of the Grand Alliance and the outbreak of the War of the Spanish Succession.

Passaro, The Battle of Cape (August 11, 1718), resulted in the destruction of the Spanish fleet. Admiral Byng encountered the Spanish admiral, Castañeta, off Cape Passaro. The first shot was fired by some detached Spanish ships, and a general engagement ensued. Castañeta continued to cheer on his men, though wounded in both legs.

W. L. Clowes, "Royal Navy," vol. iii, 1898.

Patay, The Battle of (June 18, 1429), was fought after the raising of the siege of Orleans. The English army retired on Meung and Beaugency, but the latter town was captured by the French (June 17), and a pitched battle was fought next day at Patay, between Orleans and Brétigny, in which the English were defeated with heavy loss.

Patent Rolls, The, contain accounts of all grants of offices, honours, and pensions, and particulars of individual and corporate privileges. The term patent was given to these rolls because they were delivered open, with the great seal affixed, and were supposed to be of a public nature and addressed to all the king's subjects. A Calendar to some of the Patent Rolls has been printed by the Record Commission.

Paterson, William (1658 ?–1719), the founder of the Bank of England, was born in Dumfriesshire, and spent his early life in travelling in the West Indies. From Amsterdam he came to London after the Revolution of 1688, and in 1691 proposed the foundation of the Bank of England. His proposal was not immediately adopted, but he became acquainted with Montagu, who helped his scheme to achievement in 1694. Paterson became a director of the bank at a salary of £2,000, though he retired within a year and revived a former project outlined by him for planting a colony in Panama [Darien Company]. After the failure of this scheme he returned to London, where William III frequently sought his advice on financial matters. [Banking.]

A. Andréades, "History of the Bank of England," 1909.

Patrick, St. The career of the "Apostle of Ireland" is wrapped in obscurity. He was born about 387 or 389; according to some authorities at Kilpatrick, near Dumbarton in Scotland, according to others in Glamorgan. In his sixteenth year he was carried off by Irish marauders and sold as a slave. After six years he made his escape to Gaul, where he found a refuge in the monasteries of Lerins and Auxerre, coming under the influence of the great Bishop Germanus. After the failure of Palladius, Patrick was entrusted by Celestine I with the task of completing the evangelization of the Irish people, and was accordingly consecrated bishop. He landed in Wicklow, probably early in 433, and met with immediate success. He converted Loigaire, the *ard ri* of Tara, and, with his support, extended his activities throughout the north and west of Ireland. In the south his function seems to have been that of an organizer rather than of an innovator. His own foundation of Armagh he seems to have made the seat of the supreme ecclesiastical authority in Ireland. The date of his death has been variously given as 461 and 493. St. Patrick was not the first to carry Christianity to the Irish people. His importance in the history of the Church in Ireland consists in the fact that he organized the Christian communities already in existence, and planted the faith in such districts as remained unconverted. He established a connexion between Ireland and Rome, and thereby brought the Celtic peoples under the influence of Latin civilization.

J. B. Bury, "Life of St. Patrick," 1905; F. R. M. Hitchcock, "St. Patrick," 1916.

Paulet, Sir Amias (1536 ?–1588), after being for some time the English ambassador at Paris, was created governor of Jersey, and in January 1585, owing to his stern Puritanism, was chosen to guard Mary, Queen of Scots, at Tutbury. At the close of the year he removed her to Chartley. He was insensible alike to Mary's charms and to her endeavours to win him over to her side. He was subsequently a commissioner at Mary's trial, and was present at her execution.

Paulet, Sir William, Marquis of Winchester (1485 ?–1572), Lord St. John (1539), Earl of Wiltshire (1556), and Marquis of Winchester (1551), "the crafty fox with a fair countenance," was treasurer of the household to Henry VIII, and one of the judges at the trial of Anne Boleyn. By the will of the king he was appointed one of the council of regency, and became president of the council. As a firm supporter of the Protector Somerset, Paulet succeeded Wriothesley as lord keeper (March 7, 1547), but only held the office till October, when, owing to his incompetence as a judge, he was succeeded by Lord Chancellor Rich.

On Somerset's fall he joined the party of the Earl of Warwick and actually presided as lord high steward at the duke's trial in the year 1551, pronouncing sentence of death upon his benefactor. For some time he remained a supporter of Warwick, but his leaning towards the Catholic religion, together with the instinct of self-interest, gradually enlisted his sympathies on the side of the Princess Mary, though after her accession he continued in opposition to Gardiner and the persecuting party. At the age of eighty-four Lord Winchester obtained the position of lord high treasurer to Queen Elizabeth, an office which he held until his death.

Paulinus was one of the missionaries who came to reinforce Augustine in 601. In 625 he was sent to Northumbria as the chaplain of Ethelburga, the Kentish bride of King Edwin. Through his instrumentality Edwin was brought to Christianity in 626, and the Christian religion was accepted in Northumbria. He established his head-quarters at York, in accordance with the plan originally propounded by Pope Gregory to St. Augustine. The death of Edwin in 633, and the ravages of Penda of Mercia, compelled Paulinus to quit the kingdom and seek refuge in Canterbury. The see of Rochester being vacant, he was appointed to it, and held it until his death in 644. It is a moot point whether he should be considered the first Archbishop of York. He received the pall from Pope Honorius in 634, but it was not again conferred upon an occupant of the northern see until the middle of the eighth century.

T. Hodgkin, "Political History of England," vol. i.

Peace Preservation Act, The (Ireland), was introduced on March 17, 1870, by Mr. Chichester Fortescue, in order to prevent outrages in Mayo, chiefly directed against cattle. By this act the use of firearms without a licence was forbidden, under heavy penalties, in any proclaimed district. The grand jury was also empowered to levy a cess on districts where outrages had been committed, to compensate the victims. Domiciliary visits were authorized, and persons loitering about at night might be seized by the police. In 1875 Sir Michael Hicks Beach asked for a continuance of this act, making it, however, less stringent. The Irish members in vain opposed it. The act was allowed to expire by Gladstone's government in 1880. [Meeting, Right of Public.]

Peada, King of Mercia 655–6, was the son and successor of Penda. He was only allowed by Oswy of Northumbria, his father-in-law, to hold the southern portion of Mercia. His reign is important as seeing the introduction of Christianity into Mercia. He was murdered in 656, whereupon Oswy annexed the entire realm.

Peasants' Revolt, The, of 1381. This outbreak, the only spontaneous popular rising on a grand scale that our history presents, was as brief as it was fierce and general. It has several singular and one or two inexplicable features; many and varied causes contributed to it; many and varied interests engaged in it; a seemingly sudden and isolated outburst kindled into flame a dozen of shires with an approach to simultaneousness possible only to concert and organization; and after blazing furiously and in apparently irresistible might for a week or two, it sank into extinction as suddenly as it had risen.

[But if unity can be discerned in its organization, the causes of the rising were numerous and disconnected. The match was lit by the second Poll-tax, voted by parliament in November 1380. The incidence of the previous year's tax had been graduated according to the ability of the individual to bear the burden; now very little distinction was made between rich and poor, and the system of assessment was tightened up. The refusal of some of the people in South Essex to increase their contributions led to an inquiry and a riot at Brentwood, and the rebellion began. Disturbance followed the Poll-taxes only because the counties of the south-east of England were ripe for it. Political discontent already existed because the government had been unsuccessful in the war with France. Personal security was threatened not only by the highway robbers returned from service in the wars or fugitive from the land, but the coast towns were threatened by the privateers of the enemy. Finally the Poll-taxes, which an unpopular group of state officials were compelled to seek from parliament as an expedient to meet the war deficit, increased popular dissatisfaction with the government.

But it is to economic rather than political quarrels that attention must chiefly be drawn. Where the Black Death (1348–9) (q.v.) had caused depopulation of the countryside, it produced tension in the relationship between the manorial lord and his labourers. On some manors the commutation of labour services for money rents had already proceeded far. The lord was therefore dependent to some extent upon hired labour, of which there was for some years a scarcity on account of the fall in population. The free peasant was at an advantage. He could either seek an opportunity of passing as a small-holder into a depopulated area, where the scant supply of labour forced the local lord to offer good terms to incoming tenants (an added inducement to flight, too, for villein tenants on manors where conditions were less favourable), or he could demand an increase of from 30 to 50 per cent. as a day labourer. As soon as the passing of the plague permitted administrative action the government attempted vigorous measures on behalf of the landlords against this new economic freedom of the wage-earning labourer [Labourers, Statutes of], striving to keep a check equally on rising prices and wages. Its success was not by any means complete, but the reactionary

character of this legislation and the harshness of its execution exasperated the population in some of the country districts where the revolt was later to break out. So, too, in the towns the artisans offered resistance to the activities of the justices of labourers. Confederacies were formed to keep wages at the new level. The tenant in villenage, again, was apt to suffer inconvenience from the new conditions, where labour services as yet remained. While the death of members of his family diminished the supply of labour under his direction, the labour dues remained as before, and he felt the burden. For if, as is often stated, the population was reduced by one-half, the amount of work per man was actually doubled. Commutation was therefore desired by the tenant, but his wishes were often resisted by the lord, who could now get more value from service dues.

Both in town and country the labouring class had on the whole benefited from the economic disturbances, and with greater economic freedom and prosperity came the desire for an improvement in social status. There were revolts of villeins against the authority of the manorial courts, and conspiracies to claim freedom from serfdom. The fact that " the burden of services was heaviest in some half-dozen of the counties where the Peasants' Revolt was most violent is suggestive, and should be considered in connexion with contemporary peasant complaints about degrading labour " (H. L. Gray). According to M. Petit-Dutaillis, even the poorer clergy had their wages problem which disposed them to sympathize with the violent feelings of the working people and to assist in the erection of that widespread social philosophy of the dignity of labour which was summed up in the popular lines :

> When Adam dalf and Eve span
> Who was then a gentleman?

The revolt broke out in 1381 " because England was full of inflammable material and at the mercy of a spark." Wandering preachers like John Ball prepared this material. When the fire flamed out the action of the rebels turned to the rectification of local grievances, and this provides us with some notion of the various forms which these grievances assumed.

The people of Essex who rose first formed the core of the revolt. The clash of the insurgents with the justices at Brentwood led to the working up of excitement in London. A few days later the insurrection in Kent began. Here there was no villenage, but the evidence suggests that labour troubles were at the root of the discontent, together with resistance to the new taxation. The apocryphal story of the origination of the rebellion in Wat Tyler's revenge for an insult offered to his daughter by a tax collector thus points to one of the causes of disturbance. The Kentish rebels set prisoners at liberty, besieging Rochester Castle in order to free one who was alleged to be a serf. They proceeded to Canterbury, finding on the way a daring leader in Wat Tyler, who, says Froissart, had served at one time as a soldier in France. By June 13 half the countryside of south-east England was ablaze (for map showing the area of the revolt see Trevelyan, p. 254), and on this date Wat Tyler led his host into London, then entirely defenceless. The instinct of destruction was powerful in these men, and vented itself on everything connected with what they most hated. They wrecked John of Gaunt's palace of the Savoy and the house of the Hospitallers at Clerkenwell, destroyed Temple Bar, killed every lawyer they could find, and burnt every legal record they could lay their hands on. Then they occupied Tower Hill. The Flemings in London, who were peculiarly obnoxious to the industrial classes as foreign competitors, were slaughtered wherever they failed to escape from the mob. On the same day the men of Essex, who had first risen at Fobbing, and murdered the chief justice and jurors, appeared at Mile End, while the men of Hertfordshire took up their position at Highbury. These were chiefly rustics, indignant at present and prospective treatment. Yet their conduct was comparatively free from violence. They demanded (1) the abolition of villenage, (2) a general pardon, (3) liberty to buy and sell untolled in all fairs and markets, and (4) the fixing of the rent of their lands at fourpence an acre. Next day Richard left the Tower, met them at Mile End, listened to the tale of their grievances, promised them all they asked, and persuaded them to go home. During his absence the Kentish men burst into the Tower, flooded its rooms, insulted the king's mother, dragged out Simon of Sudbury, primate and chancellor, Sir Robert Hales, and Legge, the farmer of the poll-tax, and had their heads struck off on Tower Hill. The ensuing night Richard passed at the Wardrobe ; and next morning (June 15) he encountered the rebels in Smithfield. There, while parleying with the king and wrangling with Sir Robert Newton, Tyler was suddenly smitten down by Walworth, the mayor, and slain by the king's followers. Richard's coolness and tact disarmed the rebels of the fury that rose within them at this deed ; he put himself at their head, led them to Clerkenwell, and by granting the required liberating charter on the spot, induced them to march away home. Meantime most of the other southern and midland counties were in arms, the nobility and clergy retiring into their fortified houses and leaving the open country to the mercy of the rebels ; and murderous deeds were done in many places. But the insurgents of Norfolk, Cambridge, and Huntingdon met a redoubtable antagonist in Henry Spencer, Bishop of Norwich, who sallied forth, and striking fiercely at their roving bands, broke them in pieces one by one, capturing, trying, and sending to the gallows their most active leaders, notably the formidable John Litster (q.v.), whom men called King of the Commons. Before these decisive measures and the news of the doings in London the insurrection

quickly subsided. Then the work of vengeance began. The charters were revoked—indeed, the king had exceeded his prerogative in granting them—[and legal commissions passed the weeks which followed in harrying the most guilty areas, with such an excess of zeal that in some quarters rebellion broke out afresh. In September the terror slackened, and parliament, which met in November, recommended an amnesty. This was partially conceded.] Though the worst excesses of the revolt had been perpetrated by the political insurgents, these were gratified with a change of administration, while parliament refused the really aggrieved rustics the redress they had sought. [The old grievances remained, and from time to time afterwards outbreaks would recur which showed that rural society was still unsettled. This turbulent spirit "increased the influence of revolutionary ideas, and the spread of the Lollard heresy was greatly helped through the envy excited by the wealth of the clergy." For a time those whose privileges had been attacked were careful to employ every means to secure themselves against further violence, but the process of commutation went on quietly, without being noticeably affected by the revolt.] [See COMMUTATION; BLACK DEATH; LABOURERS OF STATUTES.]

G. M. Trevelyan, "England in the Age of Wycliffe"; Sir C. Oman, "The Great Revolt of 1381"; C. Petit-Dutaillis, "Studies Supplementary to Stubbs"; G. Brodnitz, "Englische Wirtschaftsgeschichte," Bd. I; J. J. Jusserand, "L'Epopée Mystique de W. Langland"; Knighton's "Chronicle."

[J. R.] [A. V. J.]

Peckham (or PECHAM), JOHN, Archbishop of Canterbury 1279–92, was provincial of the English Franciscans and a noted scholar, and on the resignation of Kilwardby was appointed to the archbishopric, on the nomination of Pope Nicholas III. As a friar, at a time when the friars had not lost their missionary spirit, Peckham looked upon himself as the agent of the pope in England, and had little sympathy with the national feelings. The greater part of his pontificate was occupied in disputes with the king, with the Archbishop of York, or with the monks of Canterbury. He was zealous in the correction of abuses in the Church, insisting with greater energy than discretion upon his visitatorial rights, and making a special effort to check pluralities. He was keenly interested in the condition of the Welsh Church, and was responsible for its reform and reorganization after the Edwardian conquest. Throughout his pontificate he lost no opportunity of advancing the interests of the Mendicant orders, and especially of his own order.

Pecock, REGINALD, said to have been born in Wales (c. 1395), was elected in 1417 fellow of Oriel College, ordained priest four years later, appointed in 1431 master of Whittington College in London, and became in 1444 Bishop of St. Asaph, and doctor of divinity. In 1450, on the murder of Bishop Moleyns, he was translated to the see of Chichester. Pecock distinguished himself by the originality of the views he expressed. His great work, the "Repressor of Overmuch Blaming of the Clergy" (published c. 1455), was directed against the errors of the Lollards, and vindicated the usages of the Church. For this and other works upholding reason and Scripture against tradition he was attacked in the council held at Westminster in 1457, cited before the Archbishop of Canterbury, his works examined by twenty-four doctors, and he himself finally condemned as a heretic. Under this pressure he abjured the heretical positions charged against him, and made a public recantation at Paul's Cross (December 4, 1457). He was forced to resign his bishopric, and though he appealed to Rome and procured bulls ordering that it should be restored to him, he was unable to recover it. He spent the rest of his life in compulsory seclusion in the Abbey of Thorney, in Cambridgeshire.

"The Repressor," edited by Churchill Babington (Rolls Series); Gairdner, "Studies in English History."

Pecquigny, THE TREATY OF (1475), was made between Edward IV and Louis XI of France. The English invaded France in 1475, Edward IV having made an alliance with Charles of Burgundy; but directly the English set foot in France, Louis offered to treat for peace, and eventually the treaty of Pecquigny was made on these terms: 1. Edward to return to England on the payment of 75,000 crowns. 2. A truce to be kept for seven years. 3. The kings of England and France to assist each other against foreign enemies or rebellious subjects. 4. Prince Charles, son of Louis XI, to marry the Princess Elizabeth, daughter of Edward IV. 5. The King of France to pay annually to the King of England the sum of 50,000 crowns.

Peel, ARTHUR WELLESLEY, 1ST VISCOUNT (1829–1912), youngest son of the great Sir Robert Peel, entered parliament as a Liberal in 1865, and after holding some minor offices in the government, was elected Speaker in 1884, presiding over the deliberations of the House with brilliant success, until in 1895 he resigned and was elevated to the House of Lords, with a life pension of £4,000 a year.

Peel, SIR ROBERT (February 5, 1788–July 2, 1850), was the son of Sir Robert Peel, a wealthy Lancashire cotton manufacturer. Educated at Harrow and Christ Church, Oxford, Peel, after a very brilliant university career, entered parliament for Cashel in 1809, as a supporter of Spencer Perceval. In 1810 he was under-secretary for war; from 1812 to 1818 chief secretary for Ireland under Lord Liverpool. In 1817 he was returned as member for Oxford University, and in 1819 he was chosen chairman of the committee on the currency, in which capacity he was mainly instrumental in bringing about the return to cash payments. From

1822 to 1827 Peel was home secretary; but on the accession of Canning (April 1827) he retired, being unable to agree with that minister on the subject of Catholic emancipation. In January 1828 he returned under the Duke of Wellington; and in March 1829, having become convinced of the necessity of granting the demands of the Catholics, he moved the Catholic Relief Bill in the Commons. (The bill became law in April.) In May 1830 Peel succeeded to the baronetcy, and, having been rejected in 1829 by the University of Oxford and become member for Westbury, was now elected for Tamworth. During the discussion on the Reform Bill, Peel, who resigned with his colleagues (November 1830), strenuously opposed the measure. In 1834 he was recalled to office to form the brief Conservative ministry of William IV. On May 5, 1839, on the resignation of the Melbourne ministry, he was sent for by the queen; but his request for the removal of certain of her majesty's ladies of the bedchamber who were connected with Whig leaders being refused, he declined to form a ministry, and the Whigs returned to office. In August 1841 they resigned, and Peel became prime minister, holding office till June 1846. His regime was marked by some important financial changes, including the Bank Charter Act of 1844. But it was specially marked by the repeal of the Corn Laws (q.v.), and the removal of protectionist restrictions on trade. Sir Robert, with the bulk of his followers, was altogether opposed to the removal of the corn duties, and vigorously resisted the Anti-Corn Law agitators. But he at length became convinced of the justice of their cause, and, to the intense disgust of many of his followers, himself brought in the bill for the repeal of the duties on corn. Thereupon a large portion of the Conservatives abandoned him, and the Liberals gave him little support, and in June 1846 he resigned. During the remaining years of his life he gave a general support to the home and commercial policy of the Whig ministers, though he opposed their foreign policy. He died from the effects of a fall from his horse while riding along Constitution Hill. Peel's policy, especially in the matter of the Catholic claims and the Corn Laws, exposed him to much misconstruction in his lifetime. But his honesty, his zeal for the welfare of the country, his moral courage and independence of character, have been amply acknowledged by the succeeding generations; and whatever exception might be taken to his general statesmanship, no one has doubted that his talents as an administrator and a financier were of the highest possible order.

Peel's Speeches (4 vols.), 1853. Biographies by W. C. Taylor, 1846; T. Doubleday, 1856; Justin McCarthy, 1891; J. R. Thursfield, 1891; Lord Rosebery, 1899; etc. [S. L.]

Peelites was the name given to those Conservatives who, after the repeal of the Corn Laws (1846), formed a third intermediate party in parliament. Liberal-Conservatives, they refused a junction with either political extreme. Even after the death of Peel in 1850, the presence of Sir James Graham, Gladstone, the Duke of Newcastle, Sidney Herbert, and Cardwell among the Peelites made them especially formidable. On the accession of the Earl of Aberdeen in 1852 the isolation of the Peelites ceased, Aberdeen's ministry being formed by a coalition of Peelites and Whigs. The Peelites finally became absorbed into the Liberal party under Gladstone.

Peep-o'-Day Boys, The, was the name assumed by many of the Ulster Presbyterians between 1780 and 1795, who banded themselves together to resist the Catholic "Defenders" (q.v.). On the institution of the Orange lodges in 1795 many of the Peep-o'-Day Boys passed into them. The Peep-o'-Day Boys bore a large share in the "Battle of the Diamond" (q.v.—September 21, 1795).

W. E. H. Lecky, "Ireland in the Eighteenth Century," ed. 1900.

Peerage. It was doubtless from France that England first learned to narrow the political application of the word *peers*—which in literary and general usage still collectively designates all persons that are equals in rank or belong to the same class—to members of the specially privileged order, the hereditary nobility. The German companions in arms, who had conquered Gaul and divided the land among them, were at an early period called peers, that is, fellow-warriors pledged to mutual support. Its limitation in England to the hereditary counsellors of the sovereign, whose capacity to fill such an office originated at one time in the tenure of certain fiefs, at another in the direct receipt of a personal writ of summons to parliament, at a third in a formal patent of peerage, and, in its feminine form, to the wives of such hereditary counsellors, and in certain contingencies their female descendants, as well as created peeresses, may perhaps have been encouraged by the perfect equality of privilege that held the varying ranks of the order on the same level in the political system. In that system kings, princes, dukes, marquises, earls, viscounts and barons have all been equals, whatever social precedences may have distinguished them. The latest created baron had a voice and vote in parliament as potent as a King of Scotland's or a Prince of Wales's. But though all peers were once lords of parliament, there never has been a time when all lords of parliament were peers. The lords spiritual are not considered as peers; they are not regarded as having the right, when accused of treason or felony, to be tried by the peers; and they do not sit in judgment on a peer arraigned on a capital charge. The word came into regular use in the fourteenth century; it is found in the sentence passed on the Despensers in 1321. The status and composition of the peerage were then becoming gradually defined, and its place in the constitution settled. The English peerage was, how-

ever, no caste, such as was the French nobility, but merely a small knot of citizens whose distinguishing feature was that they had inherited the capacity, or been invited, or been commissioned by the king, to fill a responsible office in the State, that of perpetual adviser of the Crown, had a few cherished privileges conceded to them in consequence, and on dying passed on their duties and privileges to their heirs. For in time tenure lost its ennobling virtue, in time the writ of summons was discontinued as a mode of creating peers, and the more deliberate proceeding of bestowing the dignities that admitted to the peerage by a formal patent was exclusively used, and enabled the Crown, when it seemed advisable, to limit the right of inheritance, which hitherto had descended to heirs general, to heirs male. In mediæval days, when the dignity devolved upon an heiress, though she could not herself take the official seat in parliament and in council, she yet could give her husband, if not a right to the dignity, at least a presumptive claim to a writ of summons. Thus the King-maker was for a time Earl of Warwick, merely because he had married the sister and heiress of Henry de Beauchamp. And the state of suspended animation for a peerage that is known as *abeyance* arose when a peer left his honours at his death to co-heiresses, whose posterity had no power of assuming them till the stock of all but one of the daughters had been exhausted.

The special privileges of the peerage descend from an early period; but it was the quarrel of Edward III with Archbishop Stratford in 1341 that first made the most valuable of them matters of record. In the course of that dispute the lords reported that "on no account should peers . . . be brought to trial, lose their possessions, be arrested, imprisoned, outlawed or forfeited, or be bound to answer or to judge, except in full parliament and before their peers." And in 1442 it was settled by statute that peeresses had the same rights, when placed in the same position. But the value of the right was for centuries greatly impaired by its practical restriction to the times when parliament was sitting; during the recess the lord steward, who was appointed by the Crown, formed the court at his discretion, by choosing whomsoever he pleased from the body of peers, generally to the number of twenty-three only. This hardship was removed by the Treason Bill of 1696, which made it obligatory to summon to the court of the lord steward "all the peers who have a right to sit and vote in parliament." It is only on charge of treason, misprision, and felony that peers are entitled to the privilege; for minor offences they are tried by the ordinary courts. The other rights of a peer—freedom from arrest, admission on demand to the presence of the sovereign, liberty to kill venison in a royal forest, a claim to higher damages for slander, etc.—are now of little or no account. There are to-day many Scottish and Irish peers who are not lords of parliament; but they enjoy all the other distinctions of the order. The two most striking features in the later history of the peerage are the amazing increase in its numbers and the unreserved admission to its ranks of men of distinction in every honourable employment—soldiers, lawyers, diplomatists, bankers, tradesmen, manufacturers. In this way the order has grown from 59 landed proprietors in 1603 to a body of many hundreds of representatives of almost every form of social and personal distinction, literature not excepted. [Barons.]

Lords' Report on the Dignity of a Peer; "The Complete English Peerage" (1910, etc.; in progress); O. L. Pike, "Constitutional History of the House of Lords"; J. H. Round, "Peerage and Pedigree"; A. F. Pollard, "Evolution of the English Parliament," 1920. [J. R.]

Peerage Bill, The (1719), was introduced by Stanhope and Sunderland to restrict the power of the sovereign to create peers. It passed the Lords in March and again in November, but in the Commons Walpole got it rejected by 269 votes to 177 on the second reading (December 18). Had the bill passed into law it would have placed a limit on the number of peers in the House of Lords, since it declared that as soon as six new peers had been created the maximum number was to be reached. Its rejection thus averted a profound change in the constitution.

Pelagius was born in Britain, towards the end of the fourth century, and his original name appears to have been Morgan, of which Pelagius is a Græcized form. He left his native land very early, and lived most of his life in Gaul and Rome, where he became notorious for his heretical teaching on the subject of original sin and free-will. Pelagianism took root in Britain, and it was to combat this heresy that Germanus and Lupus came over from Gaul in 429. It would seem to have died out in Britain in consequence of the English conquest. St. Augustine of Hippo was the centre of the resistance to Pelagianism in the Church as a whole.

Pelham, Henry (1695?–1754), was the younger son of Thomas, 1st Baron Pelham. He took an active part in the suppression of the rebellion in 1715; and first sat for Seaford in 1718. He became a lord of the treasury (1721), secretary of state for war (1724), and paymaster of the forces (1730). He was a zealous supporter of Walpole, and faithfully upheld the measures of that minister against the attacks of the opposition. Walpole's resignation in 1742 was followed by Wilmington's short ministry. On his death the candidates for the premiership were Pelham and Pulteney. With extreme reluctance the former was induced to assume the management of the Commons as first lord of the treasury. He was supported by the brilliant Carteret, who had been Pulteney's friend. The Pelhams succeeded to the difficulties of the Austrian Succession question, and were obliged to obey the dictates

of their party, who were determined on hostilities with France. Carteret, finding his policy thwarted, retired in 1744. Pelham, who, unlike Walpole, dreaded opposition, now persuaded Chesterfield and Pitt to support the ministry, and placed several Tories in subordinate positions. Finding themselves superseded by Carteret in the king's councils, the Pelhams determined to bring the matter to a crisis by demanding the admission of Chesterfield and Pitt to office. On the king's refusal they resigned; but as Carteret failed to form a ministry, they were placed again in power. Meanwhile the Jacobite rebellion of 1745 had the effect of bringing the Pelhams back to Walpole's peace policy, and the war was concluded by the Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle (October 1748) (q.v.). There had now ceased to be any opposition in parliament. In 1749 Pelham introduced his successful financial bill, whereby the interest of the national debt was decreased from 5 and 4 to 3 per cent. The reform of the calendar and Lord Hardwicke's Marriage Act (1753) are the remaining points of interest in his administration. In 1754 he died, and George declared, "Now I shall have no more peace." Like Walpole, Pelham was thoroughly successful in questions of finance, and almost uniformly successful in dealing with them. A timid, desponding, and somewhat fretful man, with little energy of character or intellect, he possessed, at least, to a high degree, good sense, industry, knowledge of business, and parliamentary experience.

Coxe, "Life of Pelham," 1829.

Pelham-Holles, Thomas, Duke of Newcastle (1693–1768), succeeded to the property of his uncle, John, Duke of Newcastle, in 1711. He attached himself to the Whigs. On the accession of George I he became lord-lieutenant of Middlesex, and was created Duke of Newcastle in 1715. In that year he displayed great zeal in suppressing the Jacobite rebellion. He was made lord chamberlain, and sworn of the privy council. He followed Sunderland and Stanhope when the schism took place in the Whig ministry, but on their deaths in 1720 he joined Townshend and Walpole. In 1724, on the dismissal of Carteret, he became secretary of state. For many years he continued to be a follower of Walpole. At length, in 1737, seeing that Walpole was deprived of the friendship of Queen Caroline, and that the king was opposed to his peace policy, Newcastle began to intrigue against him. The king was encouraged in his wish for war; angry dispatches were sent to the English ambassador in Spain. Walpole's appointment of Lord Hervey as lord privy seal further alienated him. In 1742 his intrigues were successful; Walpole resigned. Wilmington was made premier, and on his death (1743) Newcastle's brother, Henry Pelham, became leader of the ministry. All opposition in parliament had ceased, but the Pelhams were jealous of Carteret. They brought matters to a crisis by demanding the admission of Pitt and Chesterfield to the cabinet. The king refused, and they resigned. Carteret was commissioned to form a ministry, but he failed, and the Pelhams returned to power. In 1747 Newcastle succeeded in getting rid of Chesterfield. Contrary to the wish of Henry Pelham, he still promoted the war. Chesterfield, finding his peace policy disregarded, resigned. Shortly afterwards Newcastle concluded the Peace of Aix-la-Chapelle (1748) (q.v.). In 1751 an estrangement took place between the two brothers. On the death of Pelham, Newcastle succeeded to the treasury. He was at a loss for a leader in the Commons. Sir Thomas Robinson, a weak man, was appointed to lead the House. Pitt and Fox contrived to torment him, but Fox making terms with Newcastle, he contrived to get through the year. It was evident that war was at hand. Newcastle was quite incapable. He gave contradictory orders to the English admirals, and on the failure of Admiral Byng the popular outcry against him was so great that he was compelled to resign (1756). He immediately began to intrigue for office. On the failure of Pitt's administration, a complicated series of negotiations ensued. During eleven weeks there was no parliament. For a brief period Lord Waldegrave attempted to form a ministry. At length Pitt and Newcastle came to terms, and that strong government so gloriously known as Pitt's ministry was formed. "Mr. Pitt," said Horace Walpole, "does everything; the duke gives everything." On the death of George II, Newcastle sent abject messages to Bute, offering to serve not only with him but under him. But patronage and the management of elections were taken out of his hands. In 1761 he deserted Pitt, and spoke against the Spanish War. But his position was untenable, and in 1762 he resigned. In 1763 he was dismissed from his lord-lieutenancy for censuring the terms of the peace. In 1765 he received the privy seal in Rockingham's administration. In 1768 he died, intriguing to the last.

Pembroke, Earls of. [Tudor; Herbert; Clare; Marshal.]

Penal Code, The, in Ireland, was first felt under James I. In 1603 a royal proclamation was issued ordering all Roman Catholic priests to leave the country under pain of death, and announcing that the penal clauses of the Act of Uniformity (q.v.) would be put in force. Parliament, however, remonstrated, and in 1613 a promise was given that the laws would not be enforced. A period of some toleration followed, which was cut short by the Cromwellian conquest. Under the Protectorate the Catholic gentry and priests were shipped off wholesale to Barbados as slaves; no Catholic was allowed to carry arms, to live in garrison towns, or to go a mile from his residence without a passport. In spite of the second Act of Uniformity, the Irish enjoyed a considerable amount of toleration under Charles II and

James II, but their sufferings began again after the broken Treaty of Limerick (q.v.). After the English parliament had in 1693 excluded Catholics from the Irish parliament by imposing the oath of allegiance and abjuration and a declaration against transubstantiation upon members, the latter body set to work upon the legislation known as the Irish penal code. (1) The first of the penal statutes, passed in 1695, provided that no Catholic should keep a school under penalty of £20 or three months' imprisonment; and that parents should not send their children abroad for education under penalty of outlawry and confiscation, the case to be tried without a jury. (2) The Disarming Act (q.v.—1695) commanded all papists to deliver up their arms under penalty of a heavy fine for the first offence, and imprisonment for life and forfeiture for the second. (3) In 1697 all Roman Catholic ecclesiastics who were in correspondence with Rome were expelled the kingdom, and forbidden to return under pain of death; new priests were forbidden to enter Ireland, and in the following reign the existing clergy were placed under a strict system of registration (1704). (4) The Intermarriage Act provided that a Protestant woman marrying a Catholic should be dead in the eye of the law, and a Protestant man who married a Catholic should be regarded as a papist. (5) Catholics were disqualified in 1698 from practising as solicitors, and further measures were passed in the reigns of Anne and George II to prevent evasions of the act. The legislation of Anne's reign was terribly severe, and was deliberately framed with the object of depriving the native Irish of what little property they still possessed:— (1) The Act for the Suppression of Papacy (1704) provided that any person who perverted a Protestant should be guilty of præmunire; that Catholic parents should be compelled to maintain and educate their Protestant children; that no Catholic could be guardian or trustee; that the eldest son of a Catholic, by turning Protestant, converted his father's interest in his estates into a mere life-tenancy; and that lands of Catholics were to descend in gavelkind unless the eldest son declared himself a Protestant. Again, no Catholic could buy land or take leases for more than thirty-one years; nor inherit land without taking the oaths, the estate passing at once, until his apostasy or death, to the next Protestant heir; no Catholics were to be allowed to settle in Limerick or Galway; no person was to hold office, civil or military, without taking the oaths and subscribing the declaration of transubstantiation. (2) By the act of 1709 an informer who could prove that a lease or sale had been secretly made in favour of papists was to have the property; and the previous legislation compelling Catholic fathers to support their Protestant children, suppressing papist schoolmasters and regulars, and commanding parish priests to be registered, were enforced with additional rigour. Lastly, in 1727 an act was passed by which every Roman Catholic was deprived of his vote, both at parliamentary and municipal elections. The only effect of this terrible code was the destruction of the Catholic gentry in Ireland; many of the best families emigrated, and a few apostatized. The other measures were either evaded or not put into execution. The persecution of the "Irish enemy" began to abate towards the end of Walpole's administration; and to Lord North belongs the credit of the first substantial Roman Catholic Relief Bill, by which, on taking the oath of allegiance, they were allowed to hold leases of 999 years (1778). In 1782 the penal code was further relaxed, the provisions against the purchase, inheritance, and disposition of land, residence in Limerick and Galway, instruction by popish schoolmasters, and the guardianship of children, being repealed. Additional measures for the freedom of the Roman Catholics were passed in 1792, when the restrictions on the legal profession were removed and the odious Intermarriage Act was repealed; and in 1793, when £40 freeholders were allowed to vote in parliamentary and municipal elections, to enter Dublin University, and to fill, with a few exceptions, civil and military offices. These were stepping-stones to the great Roman Catholic Emancipation Act of 1829, by which the last relics of the Penal Code were swept away.

P. F. Moran, "The Catholics of Ireland under the Penal Laws of the 18th Century," 1899; R. H. Murray, "Revolutionary Ireland and its Settlement," 1911.

Penda, King of Mercia 626–55, succeeded to the Mercian throne at the mature age of fifty. Under him Mercia first assumed a position of equality with the other kingdoms. The various Anglian tribes of Middle England were by him finally consolidated, and the foundations of the ascendancy of Mercia were firmly laid. He was the opponent of Christianity and of Northumbria, against which he even formed an alliance with the Welsh. In 633 he defeated and slew Edwin of Northumbria at Heathfield, and ravaged the whole country of the Northumbrians; in 642 he again defeated the Northumbrians at Maserfield, and slew their king, Oswald. He repeatedly defeated the East Angles, and slew three of their kings, finally compelling Ethelhere of East Anglia to become his vassal. He drove Cenwealh of Wessex out of his kingdom (645), and for a time made himself master of almost the whole of England, as well as of the Britons of Wales. But in 655 he was himself defeated and slain at Winwaed by Oswy of Northumbria, and the power of Mercia suffered a temporary eclipse. [Mercia.]

T. Hodgkin, "Political History of England," vol. i.

Peninsular War, The (1808–14), was, so far as Great Britain was concerned, the most important episode in the wars with France, which lasted, with little intermission, from 1793 to 1815. In July 1808 an alliance

was signed between Great Britain and Spain, and two British divisions were at once dispatched to Portugal, under Wellesley and Moore. From August 1 to 5 Wellesley was engaged in disembarking the troops in Figuera Bay, and on the 8th he moved towards Lisbon. On the 17th Laborde opposed him at Roliça, and was defeated; and Junot met with the same fate at Vimeiro four days later. Wellesley was, however, prevented from following up the advantage he had gained by a rapid pursuit; and on the 30th the Convention of Cintra (q.v.) was signed, by which the French were allowed to quit Portugal unmolested with all their stores, guns, and ammunition. Much as this convention was condemned at home, it secured, by the occupation of Portugal, a firm basis of operations. In November Napoleon himself took command in Spain; and after severe struggles with the Spaniards, the French, on December 4, entered Madrid, and installed Joseph for the second time on the throne of Spain. Meanwhile Sir John Moore, who, on the other generals being recalled after the Convention of Cintra, had succeeded to the command in Lisbon, had arranged to form a junction at Salamanca with Sir David Baird, who was bringing up reinforcements from Corunna, but owing to lack of transport, and the stupidity of the native authorities, neither general could move at an adequate pace; and it was not till November 13 that Moore arrived with his vanguard at the place appointed. In spite of the fact that all his precautions in the rear had been overthrown by the treachery of the Spaniards, he determined to press on to the assistance of the Spanish armies. On December 9 he first learnt that Madrid was in the possession of the French, and that one French army had been dispatched to Lisbon by way of Talavera, thus cutting off his retreat to Portugal, while Soult was on his march against Moore's army. He at once marched against Soult, and checked him in a brilliant skirmish at Sahagun; but Napoleon was drawing his armies round to enclose him; and there was nothing left but to retreat. This movement was begun on the 24th, and the several divisions concentrated at Astorga on the 31st. The next day Napoleon had to leave the army, and Soult was left to pursue a force which under extreme difficulties had forgotten all discipline. Nevertheless Moore managed to bring them safely to Corunna, where he halted to collect the stragglers. On January 15, 1809, he gave Soult battle, defeated him, though killed himself in the moment of victory; and the army was embarked without further molestation and sailed for England. In April Wellesley took command in Portugal, where the French were almost supreme. He at once advanced against Soult, and drove him back from Lisbon in a series of skirmishes. He followed up his partial successes by an advance up the valley of the Tagus, and on July 28 defeated Victor and Joseph in a hard-fought battle at Talavera. He, however, retreated soon afterwards into winter quarters on the Mondego. In the spring of 1810 Masséna opened a brilliant campaign, the object of which was the conquest of Portugal. After many successes he was met by Lord Wellington (for a peerage had been bestowed upon Wellesley after Talavera), at Busaco on September 27, defeated, and driven back. Wellington took advantage of the victory to retreat to the lines of Torres Vedras, which he had constructed as a defence for Lisbon. In March (1811), having received reinforcements, Wellington issued from his lines, and by a series of masterly movements forced Masséna to retreat to Salamanca. On April 9 he began to blockade Almeida, and in the beginning of May, at Fuentes d'Onoro, again defeated Masséna, who had advanced to its relief. During the battle the governor of Almeida had taken advantage of the carelessness of the investing force to destroy the fortress and escape. In the meanwhile Graham had broken out from Cadiz, where he had been invested all the winter, and on March 5 defeated Victor at Barrosa. Beresford had on March 15 been detached by Wellington to recapture Badajoz, which had been lost to the French by the treachery of its commander. Early in May he had made all the dispositions necessary for the siege; but the operations had soon to be abandoned on account of Soult's approach with a strong relieving force. Beresford gave him battle on the ridge of Albuera on May 16, and after a terrible struggle, in which victory was long doubtful, entirely defeated the French army. Wellington, coming up soon after the battle, at once ordered Badajoz to be reinvested. An assault, however, on Badajoz on June 9 was repulsed with great loss; and the siege was finally abandoned on the approach of Soult and Marmont, who had united their forces. Wellington retired behind the Guadiana, but took up so bold a position that he imposed on the two marshals, who, thinking him much stronger than he really was, in their turn withdrew, Soult to Seville, Marmont to the Tagus valley, where he quartered his army around Almaraz. Wellington at once advanced, but was foiled in an attempt to surprise Ciudad Rodrigo, which, however, was now completely blockaded. Late in September Marmont marched with an overwhelming force to its relief; and after checking him in a vigorous combat at El Bodon Wellington ordered a general retreat. On the 27th he again repulsed an attack of the French, and withdrew to a position so strong that Marmont did not venture to attack it, and from want of supplies withdrew again to the Tagus valley. In October Hill successfully drove the French from Caceres, and opened up the whole district for a foraging ground for the allies. For two months Estremadura was completely in Hill's power, till in January 1812 he was recalled to Portugal by a threatened advance of Marmont. Meanwhile in the east of Spain the French had been very successful, and Valencia and Catalonia had been reduced.

On January 1 (1812) Wellington with all things ready crossed the Agueda, and on the 8th broke ground in front of Ciudad Rodrigo. The siege was hurried on in order to forestall Marmont's arrival. On the 19th the place was assaulted and carried after a terrible struggle. When Marmont in his advance learned of the fall of Ciudad Rodrigo, he hastily retired to Salamanca, which he fortified. Wellington lost no time in marching to the south, and preparing for the siege of Badajoz. The works were begun on March 17, and here again had to be conducted with all speed from the fear of Soult's relieving force. On April 7 the place was captured by one of the most determined and sanguinary assaults on record. On May 19 Hill surprised and destroyed the bridge of Almaraz, which formed the only communication across the Tagus between Marmont and Soult, and Wellington followed up this success by laying siege to the forts of Salamanca. In ten days they were reduced, and on July 22 Wellington utterly defeated the French in the great battle of Salamanca. For eight days he followed up the pursuit to Valladolid. Thence, leaving Clinton to watch the movements of the French in the direction of Burgos, he continued his march to Madrid, which he entered in triumph on August 12. Here he was again prevented by the illiberality and bad management of the home government from carrying the war any farther into Spain, although either Soult or Suchet might have been crushed. He accordingly turned towards the north, where Clausel had rallied the fragments of the Salamanca army. Clausel retreated before Wellington with much skill; and the latter halted before Burgos, resolved to take it before proceeding farther north. He was, however, very badly supplied with siege tools, and even ammunition ran short; and the siege, which was begun on September 19, was finally abandoned, after a month had been spent in unsuccessful attempts to storm the place. The retreat was conducted under great difficulties, aggravated by the utter disregard for discipline to which the men gave way. After several skirmishes Wellington's army found itself secure at Ciudad Rodrigo. Wellington then disposed it in winter quarters, and made strenuous preparations for renewing the campaign in the following year. The earliest movements of 1813 were, however, made by Murray against Suchet in the east, and resulted in the defeat of the latter near Castella. It was not till May that Wellington began his forward movement, but then all his plans were so matured that the position of the French behind the Douro was turned, and they were in full retreat, without a battle having been fought. A union had also been effected by the same operations with the Spaniards in Galicia. Burgos was destroyed by the French in their retreat; and without taking any advantage of the natural difficulties of the country, Joseph abandoned every position, until he had crossed the Ebro and taken up a strong position at Vitoria. It was, however, of no avail, for on June 21 Wellington carried the position, and inflicted on Joseph the most crushing defeat suffered by any army throughout the war. Graham was at once dispatched to lay siege to San Sebastian; but in a few weeks the works had to be suspended on account of the arrival of Soult, who had been sent to supersede Joseph and was reorganizing the northern army. In a series of fierce combats fought among the passes of the Pyrenees, Soult's efforts to break the line of the allies were utterly baffled; he retired, and Wellington ordered the siege of San Sebastian to be resumed. On August 31 it was stormed. Soult made one more effort to succour it, but he was worsted in the combats of Vera and San Marcial, and had to retire again. Wellington, by the fall of San Sebastian, was free to devote his whole attention to Soult. By a series of skilful movements he forced the passage of Bidassoa early in October. A month later he attacked Soult in a strong position, which he had been fortifying for three months, on the Nivelle. Each redoubt was successively carried, and the English troops crossed the river. A month later he crossed the Nive, in the face of Soult's opposing force. The next day Soult issued from Bayonne, thinking that he could cut off the left wing of the allies. The attack was met by a stubborn resistance, till Wellington sent up reinforcements and compelled the French to withdraw in haste. But Soult directed a new attack against the right, which had been thus weakened. Wellington had, however, anticipated the attack, and, after "one of the most desperate battles of the whole war," succeeded on December 13 in completely baffling the French on all points. The country was, however, so flooded that no further movement was possible; and the allies went into winter quarters along the left bank of the Adour, the French being disposed along the opposite bank. In February 1814 Wellington determined to advance into France; but to do this it was necessary to drive Soult from Bayonne. It was only possible to cross the Adour below Bayonne, as it was weakly guarded there on account of its natural difficulties. His plan, therefore, was to draw Soult away by an advance of his centre and right, while Sir John Hope with the left effected the passage of the river. Accordingly Hill, with 20,000 men, moved off on February 12 towards the east. The French outposts were everywhere driven in, and Soult was hopelessly mystified as to Wellington's real design. He accordingly made his dispositions so as to be able to concentrate on Orthez. Wellington continued to drive in the enemy from all their outposts, and on the 26th Beresford crossed the Gave de Pau, and false attacks were directed against Orthez. On the following day the British attacked Soult's position at Orthez. For a long time the battle was doubtful; indeed, at one time the French seemed to be on the point of repulsing the attack and winning the day; but Wellington, quickly

changing his mode of attack to suit the altered circumstances, won a complete victory, which would have resulted in the entire destruction of Soult's army had the pursuit been energetically executed. Meanwhile Hope had grappled with stupendous difficulties; had crossed the Adour, and in the face of the enemy had, by the indefatigable energy of soldiers and sailors combined, contrived a bridge which should resist alike the force of the tide and the attacks of the foe. The investment of Bayonne was now complete; and Wellington, crossing the Adour, dispatched Beresford with 12,000 men to Bordeaux, while he himself prepared to follow Soult, who was retiring towards Toulouse. In three skirmishes the allies encountered the French outposts, and drove them in; but Wellington was moving cautiously, and it was not till March 26 that the two armies were in sight of one another. Soult was resolved to hold Toulouse, in order to keep his communications open with the other armies, and Wellington was equally resolved to isolate him. Accordingly he attacked him on April 10; and at length, after a most terrible struggle, in which the allies lost more men than in almost any other battle in the whole war, the chief positions were carried. But even then Soult did not at once give up the place, and was ready to receive an attack the next day. Wellington, however, designed a new plan of operations, and Soult, afraid of being surrounded, carried off most of his troops to Villefranche. The movement was a most masterly conception, and its execution did not fall short of the skill with which it was planned. But its results were never known, because news had already arrived of the Convention of Paris and the abdication of Napoleon. Thus ended the War of the Peninsula.

W. F. P. Napier, "Peninsular War," 1838; R. Southey, "Peninsular War," 1828; Sir C. Oman, "Peninsular War," 1902–20; J. W. Fortescue, "History of the British Army," vols. vi–ix, 1910–20, and "Wellington," 1925. [W. R. S.]

Penn, William (1644–1718), son of Admiral Sir William Penn, and founder of Pennsylvania, was educated at Christ Church, Oxford and at Saumur. He became a Quaker in 1667, and was in 1668–9 imprisoned in the Tower for eight months, and in 1671 for six months in Newgate, for propagating Quaker doctrines. On March 14, 1681, he received from the king, in satisfaction for debts due to his father, the land lying between Maryland and New York, and founded the colony called after him, Pennsylvania. From the summer of 1682 to that of 1684 he was engaged in laying the foundations of the colony and establishing good relations with the Indians. On his return to England he obtained great influence with James II, approved and supported the Declaration of Indulgence, and endeavoured to secure for the policy of the king the support of William of Orange. In 1690 and 1691 he was accused of treasonable correspondence with the exiled king, but in neither case was the charge proved. Nevertheless he was deprived of his government of Pennsylvania in 1692, until it was restored to him two years later. In 1699 he made a second visit to America, whence he returned in 1701. His relations to the colony involved him in many debts, and disputes arose. In 1712 Penn was struck by apoplexy, as he was preparing to sell to the Crown his rights as proprietor, and, though he lived till 1718, was incapable for the rest of his life of doing any business.

"Works," published 1728; biographies by W. Hepworth Dixon, 1851; T. Clarkson, 1813; Granville Penn, 1833; S. G. Fisher, 1900. Macaulay's charges are refuted in Paget's "Puzzles and Paradoxes."

Pennsylvania. [American Colonies.]

Penry (or Ap Henry), John (1559–93), a Welsh preacher, became one of the most zealous followers of Robert Browne and a determined opponent of Episcopacy. He was supposed to have originated the attacks on the bishops published under the name of Martin Marprelate (q.v.), but it was found impossible to trace the work to him. He was subsequently brought to trial on a charge of sedition, and though the evidence was incomplete, was found guilty and hanged at St. Thomas-a-Watering (May 29, 1593).

Waddington, "Life of Penry," 1854; C. Burrage, "John Penry," 1913; and biographies by E. H. Evans, 1893 (in Welsh), and W. Pierce, 1923.

Penselwood was the scene of a battle fought between Edmund Ironside and Canute in 1016, which resulted in the victory of the former. Penselwood is on the borders of Dorset and Somerset, not far from Gillingham. Engagements were also fought there between Cœnwalea of Wessex and the West Welsh in 658; and between the Danish raiders and the local fyrd in 1001.

Pension Bill, The (1730), was introduced by Samuel Sandys as a weapon of attack against Sir Robert Walpole. By an act of 1707 all persons holding pensions from the Crown during pleasure were made incapable of sitting in the House of Commons, and this act had been extended in 1714 to those who held them for any term of years. "But the difficulty was to ascertain the fact, the government refusing information." Accordingly Sandys proposed a bill (February 16, 1730) by which every member of the Commons was to swear an oath that he did not hold any such pension, and that if he accepted one, he would disclose it to the House within fourteen days. Walpole allowed this measure to pass the Commons by a small majority, and threw the responsibility of its rejection in the Lords on Townshend as leader in that House.

Pensions, Ministry of, is a department of state set up by statute in December 1916 to deal with pensions arising out of services in the Great War. The minister of pensions holds the powers hitherto vested in the admiralty, war

office, and the Chelsea commissioners to grant pensions.

Pensions, Old Age, were created by statute in 1908 and came into force in 1909. With certain exceptions, persons of 70 years of age and upwards, whose incomes did not exceed £31 10s., were made eligible for a pension. The amount of the pension was calculated according to the recipient's means; the maximum being 5s. and the minimum 1s. per week. The Old Age Pensions Act was amended in 1911, 1919, and 1924. The amount is now 10*s.* per week where the income does not exceed £26 5s.; between which sum and £49 17s. 6d. the pension is calculated on a sliding scale.

Pensions, The Question of, is intimately connected with that of the alienation of royal demesne, which was so frequently made a subject of complaint by the reformers of the Middle Ages. It was not until the accession of Queen Anne that steps were taken to prevent the sovereign from charging the hereditary revenues with pensions and annuities which were considered to be binding on his successors, when it was provided that no portion of the hereditary revenues should be alienated by the Crown beyond the life of the king. Pensions, however, were still granted on the hereditary revenues of Scotland and Ireland, and on the 4½ per cent. duties, for the lives of the grantees. When George III surrendered the hereditary revenues in exchange for a fixed civil list amounting first to £800,000, and afterwards to £900,000, the civil list became the fund from which pensions were paid. There were no limits to pensions, except the civil list itself, and debts frequently accumulated in consequence; moreover, they dangerously increased the influence of the Crown. Burke proposed in consequence (1780) that the pension list should be reduced to £60,000, but his bill did not become law. However, the Civil List Act of the Rockingham administration, which was passed in 1782, was built on the same lines. The pension list was to be gradually reduced to £95,000, and no pension to any one person was to exceed £1,200. In order to prevent the practice of granting secret pensions during pleasure, it was directed that all future pensions were to be paid at the exchequer, and they were to be granted only in cases of distress or desert. The pension lists on the Irish and Scottish revenues, and on the 4½ per cent. duties, still remained, however, and were sources of much political corruption. (1) In 1793 the Irish pensions had reached the sum of £124,000, the gross annual revenue being £275,102. After several attempts had been made to remedy the abuse, a bill was introduced into the Irish House of Commons, by which the hereditary revenues were surrendered in exchange for a civil list of £145,000, and a pension list of £124,000, which was eventually to be reduced to £80,000. No grants in any one year were to exceed £1,200, but pensions held during the pleasure of the Crown were exempted from the provisions of the act. The contemplated reduction was effected by 1814; and on the accession of George IV the Irish pension list was further reduced to £50,000, no grants exceeding £1,200 to be made until the list was so reduced. (2) The Scottish hereditary revenues remained exempt from parliamentary control until 1810, when the pensions charged on them amounted to £39,379. It was then provided that the amount of the pensions should be reduced to £25,000, and no more than £800 should be granted in one year until the reduction had been effected. (3) In 1830 the 4½ per cent. duties were surrendered by William IV for life, the pension charged upon them continuing payable. At the same time the three pension lists of England, Scotland, and Ireland were consolidated, and arrangements made for their reduction from £145,750 to a future maximum sum of £75,000 on the expiration of existing interests. Lastly, on the accession of Victoria, the right of the Crown to grant pensions was restricted to £1,200 a year; these pensions to be granted in strict conformity with the resolutions of the House of Commons of 1834, which limited them to "such persons only as have just claims on the royal beneficence, or who, by their personal services to the Crown, by the performance of their duties to the public, or by their useful discoveries in science and attainments in literature and the arts, have merited the gracious consideration of the sovereign, and the gratitude of their country." In 1887 a select committee of the House of Commons, appointed on the motion of Charles Bradlaugh, reported against the granting of perpetual pensions in the future, and recommended the commutation of existing ones. A motion in this sense was passed in 1888, and since then many pensions have been commuted.

See Burke, "Works," ed. E. J. Payne, 1904; "Report on the Civil List," December 1837.

[L. C. S.]

Pepys, Charles Christopher, 1st Earl of Cottenham (1781–1851), the second son of Sir William Pepys, was called to the bar 1804. He was appointed solicitor-general to Queen Adelaide in 1830, and solicitor-general to the king in 1834. In 1831 he was returned to parliament for Higham Ferrers. In 1834 he became master of the rolls, and in 1835 one of the commissioners of the great seal, the Whigs not being prepared with a chancellor in whom they could confide. In 1836 he became lord chancellor, and continued in this office till 1841. In 1846, on the return of the Whigs to power, Lord Cottenham again became chancellor; but his health was bad, and in 1850 he received an earldom, and the great seal was put in commission.

J. B. Atlay, "Victorian Chancellors," vol. i, 1906.

Pepys, Samuel (1633–1703), the diarist, was educated at St. Paul's School and Magdalene College, Cambridge. He became clerk of the acts to the navy in 1660, and secretary to the

navy in 1673. During the reigns of Charles II and James II the administration of naval affairs was largely in his hands, and he introduced some important reforms. He was imprisoned in the Tower on suspicion of being concerned in the Popish Plot (q.v.) in May 1679, but liberated the following February. He became president of the Royal Society in 1684. He wrote "Memoirs of the Royal Navy" (1690), and left in his manuscripts the famous "Diary," written in shorthand, which was deciphered and first published by Lord Braybrooke in 1825. The work is almost unequalled for its naïve candour, and its gossiping pages give a singularly piquant sketch of the court and society of Charles II's reign.

J. R. Tanner, "Samuel Pepys and the Royal Navy," 1920, "Samuel Pepys' Naval Minutes," 1926, "Private Correspondence of Samuel Pepys," 1926, and "Mr. Pepys," 1925.

Perceval, Spencer (1762–1812), was the second son of John, 2nd Earl of Egmont, and was educated at Harrow and Trinity College, Cambridge. In 1786 he was called to the bar, and ten years later took silk. At the same time he entered parliament for Northampton, and was soon noticed by Pitt as a promising member. In supporting the Treason and Sedition Bills he rendered good service to the government. Addington appointed him solicitor-general, and in 1802 attorney-general, in which capacity he had to conduct the prosecution of Colonel Despard for treason and of Peltier for a libel on Bonaparte, and in spite of the brilliant defence of Sir James Mackintosh, he secured a verdict of guilty. He held the office until Pitt's death in 1806. In March 1807 he became chancellor of the exchequer, and on the death of the Duke of Portland in 1809 he was named first lord of the treasury. At that time the war in the Peninsula was being carried on: Napoleon had as yet received no check on the continent; Great Britain was spending millions in encouraging the nations of Europe to offer an effectual resistance to him. Foreign politics were thus all-engrossing, and scarcely any attention was paid to the reforms at home which were so badly needed. For three years his ministry laboured, and then on May 11, 1812, he was shot by one Bellingham, in the lobby of the House of Commons. Nothing could have happened so opportunely for Perceval's reputation as his murder, which raised him to the position of a martyr. From having been really a minister of moderate abilities, by his death he suddenly became in public estimation a political genius, a first-rate financier, and a powerful orator. We can now look back more calmly and see in him a man of shrewd sense, imperturbable temper, narrow views, and restless ambition, which, to his credit, never led him astray from the path of integrity.

Biographies by Spencer Walpole, 1874; and Philip Treherne, 1909.

Percy, Sir Henry (1364–1403), who from his impetuosity and daring was surnamed "Hotspur," was the son of Henry Percy, 1st Earl of Northumberland. When quite young he was associated with his father in the charge of the Scottish Marches, and in 1386 he was sent to defend Calais, and made many daring excursions into Picardy. He is said to have killed the Earl of Douglas in the famous battle of Otterburn (q.v.—1388), where he was himself taken prisoner. On his release he fought in France, and was for some years governor of Bordeaux. He joined Henry of Lancaster on his landing in England in 1399, and received substantial rewards from him subsequently. In 1402 Hotspur participated in the brilliant victory of Homildon Hill (q.v.) over the Scots. Becoming discontented, however, with the king, Percy joined in 1403 with his prisoner the Earl of Douglas, and with Owen Glendower, but was defeated and slain in the battle of Shrewsbury (q.v.). He married Elizabeth Mortimer, eldest daughter of Edward, Earl of March.

J. H. Wylie, "England Under Henry IV," 1884.

Percy, Henry, 1st Earl of Northumberland (*d.* 1408), served in France in the wars of Edward III's reign. He was made warden of the Scottish Marches, and in 1378 captured Berwick. He was frequently employed by Richard II, whose absolutist policy he supported, but his espousal of the cause of Henry of Lancaster in 1398 caused the king to sentence him to banishment. On Henry's landing in 1399 Northumberland was one of the first to join him, and when Henry became king he received large grants of land. In 1402 he and his son defeated the Scots at Homildon Hill (q.v.), but about this time they grew discontented with the king, either offended at Henry's negligence in ransoming their kinsman, Edmund Mortimer, or at the king's claim to deal with the prisoners taken at Homildon, or from having suspicions of his intentions towards them. At all events in 1403 Hotspur joined Glendower, and was defeated at Shrewsbury, while his father, who was marching to his aid, was compelled to submit. He was very soon forgiven by the king, but in 1405 Northumberland joined in a fresh conspiracy against Henry, proposing to partition England with Mortimer and Glendower, and on the plot being betrayed fled to Scotland. In 1408 he again took up arms, and met the royal troops at Bramham Moor, in Yorkshire, where his force was dispersed and himself slain.

J. H. Wylie, "England Under Henry IV," 1884.

Percy, Henry, 8th Earl of Northumberland (1532 ?–1585), brother of Thomas, 7th earl, whom he succeeded (1572), was in 1559 sent to Scotland on a mission to the Congregation; and in the following year took part in the siege of Leith. In 1569, on the rising in the north, and the disaffection of his brother, the earl, he took no part in the insurrection, though he is said to have been implicated in the subsequent plot of Ridolfi. In 1583 he was arrested and

sent to the Tower on a charge of complicity in the conspiracy of Francis Throckmorton (q.v.), who had implicated him in his confession. On June 21, 1585, he was found shot through the head in his bed. The earl was said at the time to have committed suicide, and this view was held by Froude. The evidence, however, is not conclusive.

Percy, Henry, 9th Earl of Northumberland (1564–1632), son of Henry, 8th earl, distinguished himself in the Low Countries under the Earl of Leicester. He warmly espoused the interests of James VI during the last days of Queen Elizabeth, and was by him sworn of the privy council. He was subsequently charged with complicity in the Gunpowder Plot (q.v.), and although the accusation could not be proved, was deprived of his offices, fined £30,000, and imprisoned for fifteen years. In the Tower he gathered about him men of learning, and employed his time in the study of mathematics. On his release in 1620 he retired to Bath and Petworth.

Percy, Thomas, Earl of Worcester (*d.* 1403), was the younger brother of Henry Percy, 1st Earl of Northumberland, and served with distinction in the French wars. He afterwards became steward of the household to Richard II, who created him Earl of Worcester (1397). He joined Henry of Lancaster in 1399, but in 1403 took part in his brother's rebellion against him. He fought in the battle of Shrewsbury, where he was taken prisoner, and beheaded two days after.

Percy, Thomas, 7th Earl of Northumberland (1528–72), was the nephew of Henry Algernon, 6th earl, and elder son of Sir Thomas Percy, who was attainted in the reign of Henry VIII. As one of the leaders of the Catholic party in England, the earl was regarded with suspicion from the very commencement of Elizabeth's reign, and his implication in the Catholic intrigues of 1562 with Philip II did not improve his position at court. A few years later Northumberland warmly espoused the cause of the Queen of Scots; and entered into a conspiracy with the Earl of Westmorland, Leonard Dacre, and others, for her release from Tutbury Castle, where she was in confinement. In October 1569 the queen summoned the rebel lords to appear in London, but they refused to obey her commands, and rose in arms. The energetic measures of the queen's ministers compelled the rebel earls to withdraw across the border without having gained more than some very temporary successes; and Northumberland—who, it is said, would have sought pardon from Elizabeth had it not been for the brave spirit of his wife—was then given up to Moray by Hector Graham of Harlaw, and imprisoned in Lochleven Castle, with William Douglas as his jailer (January 1570). After a captivity of two years and a half, his wife attempted to ransom him, and convey him to Flanders; but Elizabeth, fearing that his liberty might prove prejudicial to her interests, prevailed upon Douglas and the Earl of Morton to give him up to the English governor at Berwick (Lord Hunsdon) for £2,000. In spite of strenuous efforts made by Lord Hunsdon to obtain his pardon, he was beheaded at York (August 22, 1572) without a trial, as an attainted traitor.

C. Menmuir, "The Rising of the North," 1907.

Perrers, Alice, was one of the ladies of the household of Philippa, queen of Edward III. After his wife's death she acquired complete influence over the king, and interfered in the affairs of state, supporting the policy of John of Gaunt. In the Good Parliament (1376) (q.v.) most serious charges were brought against her. She had interfered with the administration of justice and her rapacity and extravagance were equally unbounded. She was compelled to take an oath never to return to the king's presence; and an ordinance forbidding women to practise in the law courts was made the pretext for a sentence against her of banishment and forfeiture. On the death of the Black Prince, however, the proceedings of the Good Parliament were reversed, and Alice Perrers resumed her influence over the king. She was present at his death-bed, but fled from it after robbing him of his finger rings. She appears to have died in 1400.

Perrot, Sir John (1527–92), was reputed to be the son of Henry VIII. He was imprisoned by Mary for his religious opinions, but under Elizabeth rose for a time to high favour. In 1570 he was appointed president of Munster, where he suppressed a widespread rebellion, and in 1584 was made lord deputy of Ireland. His policy, though calculated to benefit the country, gave such offence to the clergy that they contrived, by means of forged documents, to obtain his recall, which was followed by his trial for high treason in 1592. He was found guilty, though probably on very insufficient evidence, of using language derogatory to the queen, and of giving secret encouragement to Spain; and died in the Tower of a broken heart, September 1592.

Persian War, The (1856). At the end of 1855 a series of studied insults obliged Mr. Murray, the British minister at the Persian court, to withdraw his mission from Teheran, and break off communication with the Persian government. Attempts were made to patch the matter up, but the news of the siege and capture of Herat, in spite of treaty obligations, was followed by a declaration of war by Great Britain (November 1, 1856). An army of 6,000 men, under the command of Sir James Outram, was at once dispatched to the Persian Gulf. The British attacked Rushan, a fort near Bushire, and the place was carried after an obstinate defence. The next day Bushire was attacked and similarly captured. On January 27, 1857, Sir James Outram arrived

and took command. Being joined by part of Havelock's division, he advanced on Burrasgoon, where the Persians were encamped, found it deserted, and returned after destroying all the stores found there. On his return he was much annoyed by the Persian cavalry, but eventually succeeded in attacking and driving off the pursuing force. A short lull in hostilities then occurred, but on March 26 the strong fortress of Mohamrah on the Karoon river was attacked by sea and land. The garrison was commanded by Prince Khan Mirza. No real attempt was made at a defence; the guns of the fort and town were quickly silenced by the fleet, and the prince abandoned the place and retreated to Ahwaz, 100 miles up the Karoon, where he had large magazines and supplies. Sir James Outram immediately organized an expedition under Commander Rennie to ascend the river and destroy this place. The steamer advanced on the 29th, and on April 1 found the enemy, about 7,000 strong, posted at Ahwaz. The troops landed and advanced against the town. There was, however, no struggle. The Persians, cowed by their disasters, fled at once, and again allowed their camp to be taken possession of with all the stores it contained. On the 4th the expedition returned to Mohamrah, and thus the operations closed. Meanwhile, the preliminaries of a peace had been adjusted at Paris (March 4). The Shah agreed to renounce all pretensions to Herat, to withdraw his troops from Afghanistan, to guarantee protection to British commerce, and to suppress slavery in the Persian Gulf.

Outram, "Persian Expedition"; Sir Percy Sykes, "History of Persia," 2 vols., 1921.

Perth, which in Roman times was called Victoria, was made a royal burgh by William the Lion in 1210. It was taken by Bruce from the English (1311), and in 1332 was fortified by Edward Baliol, who was for a time besieged there by the Earl of March. In 1339 it was retaken by Robert the Stewart from Sir Thomas Ughtred, Edward III's lieutenant. In 1559 it was occupied by the queen regent and a French bodyguard; in September 1644 it was taken by Montrose after the battle of Tippermuir, and in May 1689 by Claverhouse. In 1715 it was occupied by Lord Mar, and in 1745 was also in the hands of the rebels for some time. James I was murdered (1437) in the monastery of Black Friars in Perth, by Walter, Earl of Atholl.

Peterborough, Charles Mordaunt, 3rd Earl of (1658–1735). [Mordaunt.]

Peterloo Meeting, The (August 16, 1819), was the most celebrated of the meetings in which the national desire for parliamentary reform found expression. Manchester decided to follow the example of Birmingham, and made large preparations for a grand meeting on August 16, 1819, under the lead of a noted reformer, "Orator" Hunt (q.v.). The county executive made extensive military arrangements to prevent any rioting or disturbance. On the day fixed, between 70,000 and 80,000 people marched into St. Peter's Fields, then on the outskirts of Manchester, while the magistrates were watching the proceedings from a neighbouring house. As soon as Hunt rose to address the assembled crowd, the chief constable was sent to arrest him—a hopeless impossibility in the face of an enthusiastic mob. The yeomanry were then sent to charge the crowd; but they became scattered, lost their order, and were beginning to experience some rough treatment at the hands of the crowd, when the magistrates gave the Hussars orders to charge. Nothing could have been more effectual; "the charge swept the mingled mass of human beings before it; people, yeomen, and constables, in their confused attempts to escape, ran over one another." The meeting was broken up; and the field was left strewn with the victims of the impetuous charge, which has given to the meeting the name of the Peterloo Massacre. Hunt was arrested and imprisoned for two years and a half.

Spencer Walpole, "History of England from 1815," 1879; F. A. Bruton, "Three Accounts of Peterloo," 1921.

Peters (or Peter), Hugh (1598–1660), was a native of Treffry in Cornwall, and was educated at Cambridge. He became in 1633 minister of an Independent congregation at Rotterdam. In 1635 he emigrated to Massachusetts, and succeeded Roger Williams as pastor at Salem. He returned to England in 1641. "I was sent over to his majesty," he said on his trial, "that we might have a little help in point of excise and customs, and encouragements in learning." He remained in England, and became an active preacher and army chaplain. He became one of the commissioners for the amendment of the laws (1652). He was also appointed one of the Triers (1654). At the Restoration he was excepted from the Act of Indemnity, tried as a regicide and condemned to death. He was charged with plotting the king's death with Cromwell, and with exciting the soldiers against him by his preaching before and during the trial. He was also accused by rumour of being himself the executioner of Charles I, but this was not brought forward on his trial. He was executed on October 16, 1660.

Biographies by G. H. Colomb, 1899; T. G. Crippen, 1912; E. B. Peters, 1902.

Peter's Pence (Rom-feoh, or Romescot) was a tax of a penny on each hearth, which is said to have been first imposed by Ini, and sent to the pope to provide for the support of the English school at Rome. But for this there is little evidence. The payment of the tribute probably began under Offa, who in this way gained papal sanction for the establishment of a new archbishopric at Lichfield. From the beginning of the tenth century, Rom-feoh was exacted from the whole country, and sent

annually to Rome. In the confusion of Stigand's primacy, and of the first years of Norman rule, it seems to have fallen into arrears; but William I promised about 1076 that it should be paid regularly. It succumbed to the general tendency, and became fixed at a comparatively small amount. In 1213 Innocent III complained that the bishops retained 1,000 marks out of it, and only sent 300. In 1306 Clement V exacted a penny from each household instead of £201 9s., which had for a long time been the customary payment. The threat of withholding Peter's Pence became a useful instrument in the king's hands; thus in 1366, and for some time after, it was not paid, in order to induce the pope to acquiesce in the Statute of Præmunire (q.v.). Peter's Pence is to be clearly distinguished from the annual tribute of 1,000 marks promised by John.

Stubbs, "Constitutional History."

[W. J. A.]

Petitioners (1679) was the name given to those members of the opposition, or "Country" party, who in this year presented petitions to Charles II asking him to summon a parliament in January 1680. Their opponents presented counter-petitions, expressing abhorrence of the attempt to encroach on the royal prerogative, and were hence called Abhorrers (q.v.).

Petition of Right (1628). When the third parliament of Charles I met, the Parliamentary leaders resolved to begin by vindicating the violated rights of the subjects rather than renewing the attack on Buckingham. After a general discussion the Commons proceeded to pass resolutions against arbitrary imprisonment, unparliamentary taxation, and other grievances. Wentworth suggested that they should proceed by a bill which should define what the law should be in the future, but though his idea was adopted by the Commons, the king's openly expressed opposition obliged them to drop it (April 28). Coke now proposed that they should ask the Lords to join with them in a Petition of Right (May 6), and after about three weeks' debate the Upper House passed the petition (May 28). The petition demanded four things:—(1) That no freeman should be obliged to give any gift, loan, benevolence, or tax, without common consent by act of parliament. (2) That no freeman should be imprisoned contrary to the laws of the land. (3) That soldiers and sailors should not be billeted in private houses. (4) That commissions to punish soldiers and sailors by martial law should be revoked, and no more issued. Charles, with the consent of the council, answered evasively, "The king willeth that right be done according to the laws and customs of the realm, and that the statutes be put in due execution." Dissatisfied with this reply, the Commons prepared a remonstrance against the advisers by whose counsel the king had acted. The king interrupted them by a message forbidding them to meddle with affairs of state. The House boldly took up again the charges against Buckingham. Before this determination, and before the ambiguous attitude of the House of Lords, the king yielded and assented to the petition according to the usual form (June 7). But the king's final surrender did not secure the agreement of king and Commons. A new quarrel soon arose on the question whether the petition rendered illegal the levy of tunnage and poundage (q.v.) without a parliamentary grant. Nevertheless the king's acceptance marked the beginning of a great era in English history.

S. R. Gardiner, "History of England, 1603–1642"; Hallam, "Constitutional History"; F. H. Relf, "Petition of Right," 1917. [C. H. F.]

Petitions. [Parliament; Crown.]

Petty, William, 1st Marquis of Lansdowne (1737–1805), better known as Lord Shelburne, was sprung on his father's side from the Fitzmaurices, earls of Kerry, one of the oldest houses of Ireland; while, by female descent, he inherited the name and fortune of Sir William Petty. Entering the army at an early age, he distinguished himself at the battle of Minden, and on the accession of George III was appointed an aide-de-camp to the king. The next year, after representing the family borough of High Wycombe for a few weeks, he was called to the House of Lords by the death of his father, the Earl of Shelburne. In his new sphere Shelburne at once attached himself to Lord Bute, and supported the peace negotiations of 1762. In the following year he was appointed a privy councillor and president of the board of trade. But in a very few months he deserted the government and joined the opposition under Pitt. No place was found for him in the Rockingham ministry, but on its fall and Lord Chatham's succession to office he was made secretary of state. In 1768 the Duke of Grafton yielded to "the king's daily instigations to remove Lord Shelburne." During the long period of Lord North's administration he continued to act firmly with the opposition, alike on the subject of Wilkes and the Middlesex election, and on the policy adopted towards the American colonies. On the resignation of Lord North he rejected the urgent request of the king that he would form a cabinet, and refused to take the place which was due to the Marquis of Rockingham. When that nobleman did become prime minister, Shelburne was appointed home secretary, Fox being foreign secretary; and between these two, on Rockingham's death, ensued a disastrous quarrel, which split up the Whigs, and resulted in the coalition of Fox and North. Lord Shelburne succeeded as prime minister (July 1782), but with only half of the Whigs behind him he very soon had to yield to the imposing strength of the coalition (February 1783). In 1784 he was created Marquis of Lansdowne, and for a time retired from active life. On the outbreak of the French Revolution

he joined the opposition; but he never regained his former eminent position. Lord Albemarle says of him that "his insight into character was shrewd and generally accurate; his eloquence was graceful and persuasive; his knowledge of business, especially that which related to foreign affairs, was extensive."

Lord E. Fitzmaurice, "Life of Shelburne," 1875–6 and 1912; C. W. Alvord, "Lord Shelburne and the Founding of British-American Goodwill," 1926.

Philip II, King of Spain (1527–98), though nominally sovereign of England, had only a brief and transient connexion with this country. He was affianced to Queen Mary in 1554, and celebrated his marriage with her in July of that year. Disgusted, however, with his wife, the country, and the parliamentary constitution, he left England in September 1555, never to return. In 1556 his father, Charles V, abdicated the crown of Spain in his favour.

Biography by M. A. S. Hume, 1897.

Philiphaugh, The Battle of (September 13, 1645), was fought at a place two miles west of Selkirk, when Montrose's Highland army was surprised by David Leslie with 4,000 horse. Montrose himself escaped with a small portion of his force. The rest were cut to pieces.

P. Hume Brown, "History of Scotland," 1911.

Philippa, Queen (*b.* c. 1314, *d.* 1369), wife of Edward III, daughter of William, Count of Holland and Hainault, was married to Edward in 1328. She accompanied her husband to Flanders in 1338–40, and was with him during the siege of Calais in 1347, when she begged the lives of the burgesses condemned to death by Edward. She is said by the Flemish chroniclers to have supervised in person the defences of England against the Scots in 1346, and to have been present with the army at Neville's Cross; but the story is of doubtful authenticity. She remained devoted to her own people, and was the patroness of Froissart, who spent five years in her service; she enjoyed also great popularity in England, and was, says Froissart, "beloved of God and all men."

Phipps, Sir Constantine (1656–1723), defended Sacheverell (q.v.) in 1710, and was lord chancellor of Ireland from 1711 to 1714. He was an active Jacobite, and in 1713, by his efforts, won the Dublin elections for his party.

Pickering (or Puckering), Sir John (1544–96), after having distinguished himself as a parliamentary lawyer, was elected Speaker of the House of Commons in 1584, and again in 1586. He was active in promoting the execution of Mary, Queen of Scots, and subsequently prosecuted Secretary Davison for the dispatch of the warrant for her death. He was counsel for the Crown on the occasion of the prosecutions of Philip Howard, Earl of Arundel, and Sir John Perrot for treason; and in April 1592 he received the great seal with the title of lord keeper as the reward of his services to the queen, succeeding Sir Christopher Hatton. He maintained in his new position his reputation as a sound lawyer.

Picton, General Sir Thomas (1758–1815), entered the army in 1771. In 1794 he was ordered to the West Indies; and on the capture of St. Lucia, two years later, Sir Ralph Abercromby recommended him for the lieutenant-colonelcy of the 56th Foot, and soon afterwards appointed him governor of the island of Trinidad. In this capacity he allowed torture to be applied according to the Spanish law. Legal proceedings were instituted, and in 1805 he was found guilty by a jury in the Court of King's Bench. A new trial was, however, granted and the verdict was reversed in 1808. In 1809 he commanded a brigade in the Walcheren expedition, and was appointed governor of Flushing. Before he had recovered from a malarious fever, which he had contracted on this expedition, he was ordered to Portugal to command the 3rd Division, nicknamed the Fighting Division. At Badajoz he rendered most signal service. He was soon afterwards invalided, but resumed his command in time to share in the battle of Vitoria, where his division bore the brunt of the fighting. He was engaged in nearly all the battles of the Pyrenees and in the south of France. On the news of the escape of Napoleon from Elba, at Wellington's express desire Picton accepted a command in the Netherlands. At Quatre Bras he was with a very inferior force opposed to Ney, and for three hours sustained, unaided, a most obstinate contest. In this battle he received a wound, of which he told no one, lest he should be prevented from taking part in the greater battle, which he knew must soon take place. Accordingly he was present at Waterloo in command of the 5th Division, against which Napoleon launched one of his earliest and, as the Duke of Wellington testified, "one of his most serious attacks." As he was in the act of leading a charge he was struck by a musket-ball on the temple, and killed instantaneously. The story that the Duke of Wellington was on bad terms with Picton has been totally denied by the duke himself, who appreciated his qualities and solicited his services both in the Peninsula and in Flanders.

"Memoirs of Picton," 1836; Sir C. Oman, "Peninsular War," 1902–20.

Picts, The (i.e., Picti, or painted people), were the nation who in early times inhabited the north-eastern and northern parts of the modern Scotland. Their ethnology has been one of the most controverted points even in Celtic antiquities. But no one now believes that they were of Teutonic origin, and the general consensus seems to be that they were Celts of the Goidelic rather than of the Brythonic type. It has, however, been shown that not only some of their place-names, but also some of their customs, can hardly be of Aryan origin,

and that consequently they were largely of "Ivernian" or pre-Aryan descent. But the term Picts, which is obviously of Roman origin, does not seem to be indicative of race, but to have been simply used to denote a group of people of various origin dwelling together, who ultimately became members of the same political organization. To the classical writers the term Pict simply meant the whole aggregate of the tribes dwelling to the north of the Roman walls, who at an earlier age were known as the Caledonii and Meatæ. They never were subjugated by the Romans, and even when the Scots had occupied the western coast of Scotland they still held the region north of the Forth, and east of Drumalban, though at a later date Scandinavian conquests deprived them of the extreme north of the island. The range of mountains called the Mounth divided the northern from the southern Picts. There was also a third Pictish territory in Galloway, whose inhabitants, shut off by Brythonic tribes from their northern brethren, were called the Niduari Picts, and, curiously enough, retained the name long after it had become extinct north of the Forth. [CUMBRIA; GALLOWAY.] When they first became prominent in history as the devastators of the abandoned province, the Picts were mostly heathens. The Picts of Galloway had become at least partially converted to Christianity by the preaching of Ninian at the end of the fourth century. At the end of the sixth century the teaching of Columba established among the Picts the authority of the monastic and tribal church of Iona, and created intimate relations between the immigrant Scots and the race they had driven over Drumalban. About the same time a united Pictish monarchy seems to have grown up, with a peculiar rule of succession in the female line that was certainly pre-Aryan. Before long, however, the Picts were compelled to acknowledge fully the supremacy of the great Northumbrian monarchs of the seventh century. But the rash enterprise of Egfrid led to the Pictish victory of Dunnichen (Nechtansmere)—(q.v.), which again secured their freedom (685). In the next century the teaching of the missionary St. Bonifacius induced Nectan, King of the Picts, to expel the Columban clergy, and introduce the Roman usages (717). The result was constant war with the Scots, which, along with the Danish inroads, now become constant, reduced the Pictish kingdom to much misery. The history of the period after Bæda's invaluable work ends is very obscure. The Pictish law of succession especially exposed the state to the danger of foreign kings. At last, in 844, Kenneth MacAlpin, "the first of the Scots," established a new dynasty in the land of the Picts, which produced the political union of Picts and Scots. After the end of the ninth century there are no more kings of the Picts—or of Scone, as, after its capital, the state was sometimes called—but of Alban. The whole of Scotland north of the Forth and Clyde was thus, except for the Norse jarldoms on coasts and islands, united, at least nominally, into a single state.

KINGS OF THE PICTS

Brude, son of Mailcon	*d.* 584
Gartnaidh, son of Domelch	*d.* 599
Nectan, grandson of Uerd	*d.* 612
Cinioch, son of Luchtren	*d.* 631
Gartnaid, son of Wid	*d.* 635
Brude " "	*d.* 641
Talorgan " "	*d.* 653
Talorgan, son of Eanfred	*d.* 657
Gartnaid, son of Domnall	*d.* 663
Drust " "	*d.* 672
Brude, son of Bile	*d.* 693
Taran, son of Entefidich	*d.* 697
Brude, son of Derili	*d.* 706
Nectan " "	*ab* 724
Drust " "	*ex.* 726
Alpin, son of Eochaidh	*d.* 728
Nectan, son of Derili	*ret. & d.* 729 (31 ?)
Angus, son of Fergus	*d.* 761
Brude " "	*d.* 763
Ciniod, son of Wredech	*d.* 775
Alpin, son of Wroid	*d.* 780
Talorgan, son of Angus	*d.* 782
Drest, son of Talorgan	*d.* 785
Conall, son of Taidg	*d.* 789 (90 ?)
Constantin, son of Fergus	*d.* 820
Angus " "	*d.* 832
Drust, son of Constantin / Talorgan, son of Wthoil	*d.* 836
Eoganan (Uven), son of Angus	*d.* 839
Wrad, son of Bargoit	*d.* 842
Brude " "	*d.* 843
Kenneth MacAlpin	*d.* 859

Skene, "Celtic Scotland," gives a full and critical account of the Picts, based on the original authorities, edited in his "Chronicles of the Picts and Scots." Rhŷs's "Celtic Britain," 1906, gives a good summary of the history, and throws much light on the ethnology of the Picts. See also P. Hume Brown, "History of Scotland," 1911; A. B. Scott, "The Pictish Nation," 1918; Earl of Southesk, "Origin of Pictish Symbolism," 1893.

Pilgrimage of Grace was the name given to the insurrection in Yorkshire and Lincolnshire in 1536, caused chiefly by the ecclesiastical and other reforms of Henry VIII and Cromwell; in particular by the suppression of the smaller monasteries. It was headed by a young Lincolnshire gentleman, named Robert Aske (q.v.), and joined by most of the gentlemen and nobility of Yorkshire. The rebels mustered in great force and advanced towards York, which they occupied. Joined by the Archbishop of York, Lord Darcy, and the Percys, the rebels, 30,000 strong, moved southwards. At Doncaster they were met by the royal commissioners, the Earl of Shrewsbury and the Duke of Norfolk. A conference was held, and the rebels were induced by the terms offered to disband. But, finding that their demands were not really to be complied with, an insurrection broke out anew under Sir Francis Bigod. This was suppressed with great severity. Martial law was established in the north. Aske, Darcy, and twenty other leaders were seized (March 1537) and executed (June), and the movement was stamped out.

M. R. and H. Dodds, "Pilgrimage of Grace," 1915.

Pindari War, THE (1817–18). The Pindaris were a body of freebooters, established in the Vindhya Hills, recruited from all nations and religions, and finding employment some-

times with the armies of native princes, sometimes in predatory excursions of their own. Their expeditions were of the most destructive character; all mounted and lightly armed they crossed the country in marches of from forty to fifty miles a day, fell upon the doomed district, carried off everything movable in it, and burnt the houses and crops. In 1815 the Pindaris crossed the Nerbudda, and ravaged the British possessions in the Deccan. Lord Hastings determined to end this, and prepared large armies in all the presidencies. The matter was complicated by the extensive conspiracy organized by Baji Rao (q.v.) and Appa Sahib (q.v.), and the treachery of Dowlat Rao Sindhia. The vigorous measures of Lord Hastings, however, broke up the conspiracy, and the Pindaris were beaten again and again (1817). Chitu Singh, their chief, however, with the remnant of his followers, to the number of 20,000, assembled in arms. The British forces were concentrated for a great attack; the Pindaris, seeing the hopelessness of resistance, fled; Chitu, deprived of his followers, sought refuge in the forests of Malwa, where he was devoured by a tiger; and the Pindaris submitted (1818).

Pinkie Cleuch, The Battle of (September 10, 1547), was fought during the Protector Somerset's campaign. The two forces were drawn up on each side of the Esk, the English under Somerset and Warwick, the Scots under the Earl of Huntly. The Scots crossed the river and at first gained the advantage, but were scattered by a great charge of the English.

P. Hume Brown, "History of Scotland," 1911.

Pipe Rolls, The, or Great Rolls of the Exchequer, are preserved in the Record Office and are almost perfect from 2 Henry II to the present date. They relate to all matters connected with the revenue of the Crown, Crown lands, etc., and are of great value for historical and genealogical purposes. A Pipe Roll Society, for the publication of these documents, was formed in 1883, and, having published the rolls for Henry II's reign, has begun work on those for Richard I.

Pipewell, The Council of (1189), was held by Richard I, immediately after his coronation, to raise money and make other preparations for his crusade. Pipewell Abbey is in Northamptonshire, in the neighbourhood of Rockingham.

Pitcairn Island, so named from the midshipman who first observed it (1767), is famous as the scene of a notable social experiment. In April 1789 the crew of H.M.S. *Bounty* mutinied, owing to the harsh conduct of their commander, Captain Bligh (q.v.). After many adventures a party of the mutineers reached Pitcairn Island in the Pacific Ocean, where, together with some Polynesian women, they formed a settlement, remarkable for the orderly and exemplary conduct of its inhabitants. Their descendants inhabit the island to this day. The settlement was visited in 1839 by Captain Elliot, who gave such a favourable report of the state of the islanders that assistance was sent out to them by the government. In 1898 the island was placed within the jurisdiction of the high commissioner for the Western Pacific. In religion the islanders are Seventh Day Adventists.

Sir J. Barrow, "Mutiny of the *Bounty*," 1831 and 1914.

Pitt, William, 1st Earl of Chatham (November 15, 1708–May 11, 1778), was the grandson of a former governor of Madras, who had returned to England to buy estates and rotten boroughs, one of which, Old Sarum, he represented in parliament. His son Robert succeeded him, and sat in turn for the two boroughs of Old Sarum and Okehampton. Of Robert Pitt's two sons, William was the younger. He was educated at Eton and at Trinity College, Oxford, but he left Oxford, without taking a degree, to travel on the continent on account of the gout, to which he was throughout his life a victim. He came back from his tour to find his father dead and himself but slenderly provided for. As a profession he chose the army, and obtained a cornetcy in the Blues; but his family interest in 1735 procured for him the seat of Old Sarum. In April 1736 the Prince of Wales married Augusta, Princess of Saxe-Gotha; and it was on the address which was presented to the king on this occasion that Pitt took the opportunity of delivering his first speech, which made a deep impression on the House. This impression was soon justified, as he became so troublesome to the government that Sir Robert Walpole dismissed him from the army. The Prince of Wales, however, recompensed him by making him his groom of the bedchamber, from which position he could in security declaim against the peace policy of the ministry. In 1742 Walpole resigned; and it was for some time doubtful who would succeed him. Pitt seems to have made overtures to Walpole, which the retiring minister rejected. From the new government that was formed under Carteret, Pitt was omitted. He vented his disappointment in the fiercest invectives against Walpole, and in advocating the most violent measures for his prosecution. All his violence failed to injure Sir Robert, now the Earl of Orford, who retired into private life, and left Pitt free to transfer his attacks to Carteret, who now held the reins. The chief object of his indignation was the prevailing method of subsidizing with British money petty German states, for the benefit of the family estates of the House of Brunswick. The old Duchess of Marlborough died in October 1744, and left Pitt a legacy of £10,000 in consideration of the noble defence he had made for the support of the laws of England, and to prevent the ruin of his country. But Pitt's ambition did not lie in the direction of money;

and on the elevation of Carteret to the House of Lords he saw a chance of advancement. To take advantage, however, of the chance, it was necessary for him to conciliate the king; and he accordingly resigned his office in the household of the Prince of Wales, and by the exertions of the Pelhams, against the king's wishes, he was appointed early in 1746 to the post of paymaster of the forces. The government continued in security until the death of Henry Pelham, in 1754, threw it into confusion. It devolved on the Duke of Newcastle to form a ministry. His great difficulty was as to the leadership of the House of Commons; and the rival claims of Pitt and Fox to that office were settled by a compromise in the person of Sir Thomas Robinson, an inoffensive mediocrity. Fox was appointed secretary-at-war, and Pitt retired to the lucrative pay office; but before a year was over they had combined to render their leader so ridiculous that Newcastle was compelled to make a change. Pitt was intractable on the subject of subsidies; and the duke turned to Fox, who became secretary of state, with the entire lead of the House of Commons and the management of the funds for corruption. On the resignation of Newcastle, in November 1756, the Duke of Devonshire succeeded him as first lord of the treasury, with Pitt as first secretary of state and virtual prime minister. The ministry was odious to the king, who said that he was not a king while he was "in the hands of these scoundrels"; and in April 1757 Pitt and Lord Temple were dismissed from their offices. But the contumely which Pitt had experienced from the court only served to raise him in the estimation of the country at large. The freedom of the City was granted to him; all the great towns of England followed the example set by the Corporation of London; and "for some weeks," says Walpole, "it rained gold boxes." During his short term of office Pitt found time and courage to pass several important measures, including his bold scheme of pacifying the discontented Highlanders by embodying them in the regular army. Newcastle having failed to form a ministry, an agreement was at length arrived at between the duke and Pitt, through the mediation of Lord Chesterfield. The king, however, refused to receive Pitt as a minister, and persuaded Lord Waldegrave to accept with great reluctance the premiership. But without Pitt it was impossible for any ministry to work; and Lord Waldegrave's broke up almost before it was formed. The king was obliged to yield to necessity. Newcastle took the treasury; Pitt became first secretary of state, with the lead of the Lower House; and Fox was silenced by the gains of the pay office. Pitt had told the Duke of Devonshire that he was sure he could save the country, and that no one else could. And he lost no time in setting about the task. His early plans, however, were not attended with success. An expedition against Rochefort failed through the bad management of the land forces. In Germany, Cumberland was compelled to sign the humiliating Convention of Kloster-Zeven (q.v.). In India, the conspicuous success of Clive in some measure compensated for these misfortunes. The war was vigorously carried on throughout 1758 in every part of the globe where Frenchmen could be found; still the year was marked by no great victories on either side. But in 1759 Pitt's energy, and his tact in choosing men, were everywhere rewarded by the successes by land and sea which marked that year of victory. These victories gave Pitt a position of extraordinary influence. He was known as the "Great Commoner"; and the Houses of Parliament no less than the people at large were hushed into awe and reverence by the success of his measures. But the death of George II on October 25, 1760, changed the face of affairs; and it was clear that the new king's partiality for Lord Bute would be more powerful than the nation's love of Pitt. In March 1761 parliament was dissolved; and with it the ministry began to break up. Bute was made second secretary of state in the place of Lord Holderness. But Pitt was determined, if possible, to save the country from a degrading peace; and he held on until finding his brother-in-law, Lord Temple, alone supported him in the council in his desire for war with France and Spain, he resigned on October 5, 1761. He had scorned all promotion and all gains for himself, but accepted a peerage for his wife, who was created Baroness Chatham. In November 1762 peace was made with France; and Bute could no longer stand before the open opposition of Pitt and the fury of the nation, and in April 1763 he resigned. A new ministry was formed out of the followers of the Duke of Bedford and those of Grenville, whose tenure of office was signalized by the prosecution of Wilkes, and the still more fatal attempt to tax the American colonies. Pitt meanwhile opposed all his eloquence to the doctrine of the legality of general warrants, and pointed out the mischief of Grenville's scheme for colonial taxation. His health became very bad, and he retired into the country and took no part in the debates on the Regency Bill. This bill, however, was the ruin of the Bedford ministry; and the king resolved to be rid of Grenville's bullying arrogance. Overtures were twice made to Pitt through the Duke of Cumberland; but they failed. He retired to his estate in Somersetshire, as if bent on finally withdrawing from public life; and the Rockingham ministry was formed. In January 1766 Pitt came up to London, and by his able assistance enabled the ministry to carry the repeal of the Stamp Act. The government was, however, too weak to stand; and in July Pitt at length consented to break with Temple, and to form a ministry without him. But he was suffering both mentally and physically: he could not stand the strain of the House of Commons; he accepted the privy seal, and was created Earl of Chatham.

It was felt throughout the country that he had been gained over to the court; and the popularity which had been so lavishly bestowed on him as the "Great Commoner" failed to follow him to the Upper House. His policy was as energetic and comprehensive as ever; but his mind was unhinged, and at last gave way so far as to incapacitate him for all public business. He was taken to Hayes, and remained there in gloomy seclusion for two years. In October 1768 he resigned the privy seal, and the ministry came to an end. Soon after his resignation Chatham's mental malady passed away before an attack of the gout sharper than usual. In July 1769 he once more appeared at court, after a reconciliation had been effected with the Grenvilles, and in the following January he again took his place among the Lords. He had lost none of his old power, and his first speech, inveighing against the policy pursued by the government towards America and in relation to the Middlesex election, was the signal for the resignation of Lord Camden and the Marquis of Granby. The Duke of Grafton himself, wearied by the continual onslaughts made upon him, and finding it impossible any longer to prop up his falling ministry, sent in his resignation on January 29. Lord North proceeded to form a ministry after the king's own heart, which would be content to carry out the king's wishes. Wilkes and America continued to be the chief topics; North adhered to the policy of his predecessors in both questions, and Chatham continued to wage war against him. He warmly advocated the repeal of the Test Acts, for which a bill was introduced. During the greater part of 1773 he employed himself in the study of India, and became strongly convinced of the "necessity of a reformation of Indian iniquities." But as the clouds every month thickened in America they dispelled all other thoughts, and caused him more and more to dread the application of coercion to the colonists. The Boston Port Bill heightened his alarm; and in May 1774 he appeared in parliament "to stand for England and America." In January 1775 he moved an address to the king, praying him to adopt a conciliatory policy towards America by removing the forces from Boston, and he followed up this motion by presenting to parliament a plan for the prevention of civil war. The object of his conduct was, as he himself briefly expressed it, "to secure to the colonies property and liberty, and to ensure to the mother country a due acknowledgment on the part of the colonies of their subordination to the supreme legislative authority and superintending power of the parliament of Great Britain." As long as there was any hope of the attainment of these two ends, Chatham was as warm an advocate as anyone for granting liberty to the colonies; but when the news of the capitulation of Burgoyne came in December 1777, followed almost immediately by the announcement of the alliance of America and France, it became clear that the Americans would be content with nothing short of entire independence; and Chatham was as firm in his opposition to this concession as he had been zealous in favour of granting them liberty and justice. At this point Chatham broke away from his long agreement with Rockingham's party, and carried Shelburne with him. On April 7, 1778, he made his last speech in parliament; and the effort was too much for him. He was carried to Hayes, and there died on May 11. A monument was raised to him in Westminster Abbey at the expense of the nation. Lord Chatham was essentially a war minister. It has been said of him that whenever a cannon in Europe was fired he required to know the reason. The epitaph on his monument in Westminster Abbey says, truly enough, that during his administration Great Britain was exalted "to a height of prosperity and glory unknown to any former age."

F. Thackeray, "History of William Pitt, Earl of Chatham," 2 vols. 1827; "Chatham Correspondence," 4 vols., 1833–40; Almon, "Anecdotes and Speeches of Chatham," 1792. Biographies by Walford Green, 1901, F. Harrison, 1905, Basil Williams, 1913; D. A. Winstanley, "Chatham and the Whig Opposition," 1912; E. A. Edwards (ed.), "Love Letters of Chatham," 1926. [W. R. S.]

Pitt, William (1759–1806), the second son of William Pitt, 1st Earl of Chatham, and Lady Hester Grenville, was born May 28, 1759, and very early gave signs of his future greatness in his marvellous precocity. In 1773 he went up to Pembroke Hall, Cambridge, where his industry led him to devour mathematics and classics. He left Cambridge soon after his father's death, and, being called to the bar in 1780, went the Western Circuit. But in the autumn of that year a general election took place, and Pitt was returned to parliament for Appleby. In the following February he made his first speech in favour of Burke's plan for economical reform. His power was recognized at once; Fox proclaimed him one of the first men in parliament. He continued to gain influence and admiration by every speech he made. Early in December news came of Cornwallis's surrender in America, and Pitt seized the opportunity to attack the government. The ministry resigned, and was succeeded by Rockingham's cabinet. Pitt was offered the vice-treasurership of Ireland; but he knew his own value, and declined the offer, which would not have given him a seat in the cabinet. He nevertheless supported the government till Rockingham's death. Then followed Lord Shelburne's brief tenure of office, succeeded by the Fox-North coalition. When that came to an end in December 1783 the king invited Pitt to form a government. Never had a prime minister a more difficult task before him. In December the majority against him was almost two to one; but such was Pitt's resolution and tact that by March 5, 1784, it had dwindled, after sixteen divisions, to a bare majority of one. The country at large

was vehement in its support of the government, and the City of London presented Pitt with its freedom. Pitt now dissolved the parliament, and government candidates were everywhere returned. Pitt at twenty-four "domineered absolutely over the cabinet, and was the favourite at once of the sovereign, the parliament, and the nation." Already in 1782 he had demanded an inquiry into the system of parliamentary representation. When, however, he was in power with a large majority at his back he was prevented by the king's strenuous opposition from again introducing the subject, and the French Revolution soon had the effect of driving the mere notion of reform of any kind out of men's minds. He nevertheless did make an effort in that direction when, in 1785, he introduced a bill "to amend the representation of the people of England in parliament." During his first eight years of power, Pitt enjoyed a time of tranquillity and peace, when there were no wars being carried on by England, at any rate at a nearer distance than India, and the country and parliament alike were anxious to see carried out some of the numerous reforms which had been so often talked about. The first of these measures which Pitt approached was the vexed question of Indian government, which had proved the death of the coalition ministry. Pitt's India Bill (1784) was quite successful, and was followed by his scheme for the reduction of the National Debt. In 1786 began the measures for the impeachment of Warren Hastings (q.v.). Pitt took no active part in, though he gave his support to, the prosecution. In 1788 the king fell ill, and Pitt, supporting the constitutional view of the regency question against Fox, who warmly took up the cause of the Prince of Wales, attached himself more firmly than ever to George III. In the same year he advocated with all his eloquence a bill for the abolition of the slave trade. When the French Revolution broke out Pitt appeared in a new light. For the remaining years of his life he was chiefly engaged in leading the European opposition to France. His war administration, however, was far from fortunate, and his military enterprises were ill-planned and unsuccessful. But at home he still held his own in the confidence of his countrymen. He saw the immediate necessity for the union of Ireland with Great Britain; but the king's narrow-minded obstinacy prevented him combining Union with Catholic Emancipation, which alone, he said, would make the Union effectual. But Pitt was not the man to be balked in his endeavours to fulfil a promise; and, as he could not have his own way in the matter, he resigned, in 1801, the post which he had held so triumphantly for seventeen years. With him went all the abler members of his administration. "All that was left to the king was to call up the rear ranks of the old ministry to form the front rank of a new ministry." Addington became prime minister, and for a time seemed to succeed, chiefly by the help of Pitt, who supported him, and by the conclusion of a peace with France in the Treaty of Amiens (1802). But the real incapacity of Addington, combined with the restless ambition of Bonaparte, at length compelled Pitt to assume a different attitude towards the ministry. Parliament and the nation at large looked to Pitt as the only man who could save the country in the event of the war which it was seen must soon be continued with France. Addington felt the pressure on all sides, but tried to come to terms with Pitt which would still leave him in the possession of a large share of power. In May 1803 Pitt emerged from the retirement in which he had been living, and made a great speech, defending the declaration of war. In April 1804 Addington resigned. Pitt was commanded to form a ministry. He desired a broad government, which should include all the highest talent in the kingdom—Fox, Grenville, Windham, and others. But the king's obstinacy once more defeated an excellent scheme. Pitt yielded, and formed a Tory administration. Most strenuous efforts were made both at home and by the development of foreign combinations, to avert the threatening danger; and the glorious victory of Trafalgar in October 1805 crushed the French navy. But the close of Pitt's career is melancholy. The opposition, which had refrained from any factious resistance to the war policy of the government, in April 1805 proposed a vote of censure on Lord Melville for mismanagement of the navy while treasurer under Pitt's former administration. Pitt stood by his old friend; but the Speaker's casting vote decided a division against the accused. Pitt regarded the adverse vote as almost a vote of censure on himself, and was quite crushed. In the following July parliament was prorogued; but the war was carried on with Napoleon's usual activity. In September Pitt had the satisfaction of negotiating with Russia and Austria a general coalition against Napoleon, who in reply made every preparation for invading England. Circumstances, however, prevented him from carrying out that scheme, and he turned his attention to the continent. The capitulation of the Austrian army at Ulm on October 20 was the first result of this change of plan. The news proved a death-blow to Pitt, which even the news of Trafalgar four days later could not avert. The next day, at the lord mayor's dinner, he spoke the last words he was ever to utter in public. In December he retired to Bath to rest; but the news of Austerlitz (December 2) completed the breakdown of his health. He was just able to travel to London in January for the opening of parliament on the 21st; but when he arrived at Putney he was too ill to attend, and two days later, on January 23, 1806, he died. Pitt has been justly called the man of parliamentary government. No man ever, from his earliest appearance in the House of Commons to his latest days, exercised so absolute a sway over that assembly. By his incorruptible

integrity, conspicuously displayed during nineteen years, he did more than any one man to crush out the corruption in high places which had prevailed during the first eighty years of the eighteenth century.

Pitt's Speeches, 4 vols., 1806; biography by Lord Rosebery, 1891; J. Holland Rose, "William Pitt and National Revival," 1911, "William Pitt and the Great War," 1911, and "Short Life of William Pitt," 1925. [W. R. S.]

Place, Francis (1771–1854), was one of the greatest of English Radicals. His father kept a private debtors' prison in London. Francis was apprenticed at fourteen to a leather-breeches maker and eventually became a journeyman. His great organizing ability first showed itself in the management of a three-months' strike among the journeymen of his trade. The strike failed and a time of direst povertyf ollowed for Place, who was boycotted by the masters. His passion for education showed itself in his omnivorous reading during this period of unemployment and semi-starvation. He also organized clubs and friendly societies in various trades in 1794–5. In 1794 he became an active member of the London Corresponding Society, but left in the next year over the question of tactics. He then built up a business of his own, and in 1799 opened a shop at 16 Charing Cross, which was so successful that he retired from trade in 1817. He took an active share in Westminster politics, and in 1807 and 1810 successfully organized the campaign of the Radical Sir William Burdett. He came into contact with Spence, Owen, and other leading Radicals, and became intimate with James Mill and Bentham. He took a keen interest in elementary education and helped to organize Lancastrian schools in London. His greatest work was to secure the repeal of the Combination Acts of 1799–1800. He did this in 1824 through the instrumentality of Joseph Hume (q.v.), who became his lieutenant and the exponent of all his schemes in parliament. By this time he was the chief source of Radical opinion and organization in London and built up a great collection of facts and statistics (now in the British Museum) on social problems, on which the Radicals drew for speeches and propaganda. In 1830–2 he helped to organize the agitation for reform in London, chiefly through the National Political Union; and in the "days of May" he devised the scheme of a run on the banks to force the hand of Wellington. After the Reform Act he took part in numerous movements, and in 1838 helped to draw up the "People's Charter"; but he did not share actively in the Chartist movement itself. Domestic and financial troubles and ill-health gradually weakened his connexion with organized politics, and he died almost forgotten.

Biography by Graham Wallas, 1898 and 1918. [C. H. D.]

Place Bills. The First (1692) was a measure congenial to the Tory reformers of William III's reign. Its object was summarily to exclude all placemen from the House of Commons. "Nobody thought of drawing a line between the few functionaries who ought to be allowed to sit in the House of Commons and the crowd of functionaries who ought to be shut out. A member who was to be chosen after 1693 was not to accept any place whatever." The bill was violently opposed in the Upper House, Marlborough making a great speech in its support. When the question was put, 42 were in its favour and 44 against it. Proxies were called, however, and the bill was lost by three votes. Next year the bill was introduced again, and again easily passed the Commons. It provided that no member of the House of Commons elected after January 1, 1694, should accept any place of profit under the Crown, on pain of forfeiting his seat, and of being incapable of sitting again in the same parliament. The Lords added the wise amendment, "unless he be afterwards chosen to serve in the same parliament." The Commons agreed to this amendment. William, who appears to have misunderstood the nature of the bill, refused his assent. The angry Commons first passed an address, affirming that those who had advised the king on this occasion were public enemies; and then, on the motion of Harley, appointed a committee to draw up a representation to the king. William, however, in his reply, yielded nothing. "Thus ended, more happily than William had a right to expect, one of the most dangerous contests in which he ever engaged with his parliament." In 1694 the bill was introduced again into the Commons. It was thrice read, but on the third reading was rejected by 33 votes. The result of the bill would have been to cause parliament and the administration to stand against each other as two distinct bodies.

The Second (1743) was originally proposed by Samuel Sandys, but subsequently opposed by him on the ground that George II was antagonistic to the measure. Derided though it was at the time, it had considerable effect; excluding a great number of inferior officers from the House of Commons, which has never since contained so revolting a list of court-deputies as it did in the age of Walpole.

The Third took the form of a resolution that certain officers of the household should be disqualified from sitting in the House of Commons. This resolution passed the Commons on April 10, 1780, by a majority of two, four days after Dunning's famous motion regarding the influence of the Crown.

Plague, The Great (1665), was the most severe of a series of bubonic epidemics which had begun with the Black Death (1347) (q.v.) and recurred at intervals throughout the Lancastrian and Tudor periods. The sweating sickness (q.v.) of 1506, 1517, 1528, and 1551, and the epidemics of 1625 and 1647 (in the last of which over 30,000 lives had been lost) were unusually

severe. The Great Plague began in April 1665 and lasted until the very end of the year, reaching its height (with over a thousand deaths daily) in the middle of September. The population of London at the time was under half a million: and of the poor people who remained after the court and the wealthier classes had fled to Oxford and elsewhere, over 100,000 perished. The official Mortality Bills, which place the death-roll at under 70,000, are quite untrustworthy. The symptoms exhibited by the sufferers varied: some were taken by a chill, others contracted a fever, others again fell into a stupor and died without waking; but all betrayed the sinister plague-spots. Medical science was utterly at a loss to cope with the outbreak, and could rise no higher than bleeding, hot blankets, and ineffectual drugs. The severity of the visitation was increased by the squalid and overcrowded conditions of the poorer parishes, where open sewers were common and drinking-streams ran frequently through graveyards; by the fact that cases of plague were hushed up on account of the family's fear of social ostracism; by the unscrupulous tactics of the elderly female "searchers"; by the absence of any nurses save volunteers driven by fear of starvation to undertake paid nursing; by the neglect of the authorities to form isolation camps outside the city; by the ignorance of doctors and surgeons; and by the infection spread by those who fled from stricken houses before the premises were shut up with the remaining inhabitants—whole and plague-stricken alike—inside. In the summer the epidemic was carried from London (in a bundle of infected clothing) to Eyam in Derbyshire.

W. G. Bell, "The Great Plague in London in 1665," 1924; and Defoe's "Journal of the Plague Year," 1722 and 1927. [A. C. F. B.]

Plantagenet, the name by which the ouse of Anjou is generally known, is derived from *planta genista*, the broom-plant, a sprig of which was usually worn on his cap by Geoffrey of Anjou, father of Henry II. It is doubtful whether this custom of his is to be taken to indicate his love of field-sports, or as a sign that he was not ashamed of the humble origin of the house of Anjou, which had for its founder a woodman of Rennes. [Angevins.]

Plassey, The Battle of (June 23, 1757), was fought by Clive against the troops of Suraj-ud-Dowlah (q.v.) in the campaign undertaken to avenge the massacre of the Black Hole of Calcutta (q.v.). Clive, having concluded his arrangements with Mir Jafar (q.v.), addressed a letter to Suraj-ud-Dowlah, recapitulating the grievances which the British had to complain of, and stating that he was coming to Murshidabad to arrange them. He set out from Chandernagore on June 13 with an army of 800 Europeans, 2,000 natives, and ten pieces of cannon. Mir Jafar, however, proved faithless, and on the 19th the rains set in with great violence. Clive saw that he had advanced too far to recede, and that there would be more danger in retiring than proceeding. Accordingly he called a council of war on the question, and it was almost unanimously decided not to risk an action. In spite of this, however, on June 22 the British force crossed the Hugli, and at midnight encamped in a grove of mango-trees at Plassey. In the morning the nawab's troops, headed by a body of fifty Frenchmen, were in motion, and the assault began with a furious cannonade. The British escaped the shots by sitting down under cover of a high bank. About noon a slight shower damaged the enemy's powder. They were compelled to withdraw their artillery, and Clive advanced vigorously to the attack of their lines. In spite of the gallantry of the French, Clive was able to storm the camp, rout the whole army, and pursue them for about six miles. The enemy, it is supposed, lost about 500 men; the British only 36. The nawab, influenced by the conspirators, had been the first to fly, and, mounted on a camel and followed by about 2,000 horse, bore to his capital the news of his disgrace.

Biographies of Clive.

Platen, Madame de, was a sister of Charlotte, Countess of Darlington [Kilmansegge], the mistress of George I. We find the sisters supporting Carteret against Walpole and Townshend, who relied on the influence of the Duchess of Kendal. She received a bribe of £10,000 to facilitate the passing of the South Sea Bill. In 1723 a marriage was arranged between her daughter and the Count of St. Florentin, but the countess required as a condition that a dukedom should be granted to the bridegroom. This Carteret, as secretary for the Southern Department, exerted himself to obtain from the Duke of Orleans. Horace Walpole was thereupon sent by his brother to Paris to counteract the intrigue. Madame de Platen was ultimately consoled by a portion of £10,000 from George, but the interference of Walpole caused Carteret to retire to the lord-lieutenancy of Ireland.

Playhouse Bill, The (1737), was brought forward by Sir Robert Walpole in order to check the indecency of the stage. His Playhouse Act was an amendment to the Vagrant Act of Queen Anne's reign. It declared, says Lord Stanhope, that any actor without a legal settlement, or a licence from the lord chamberlain, should be deemed a rogue and a vagabond. To the lord chamberlain it gave legal power instead of customary privilege; authorizing him to prohibit the representation of any drama at his discretion, and compelling all authors to send copies of their plays fourteen days before they were acted, under forfeiture of £50, and of the licence of the house. Moreover it restrained the number of playhouses by enjoining that no person should have authority to act except within the liberties of Westminster, and where the king should reside. The bill was carried in

spite of the vigorous opposition of Lord Chesterfield; and its effect in subjecting all plays acted to the previous examination of the lord chamberlain and the officials appointed by him has never been undone.

Pleas, The Court of Common, or Common Bench, began at the opening of the thirteenth century to separate off from the main body of the curia regis (q.v.). The 17th article of Magna Carta provided that "common pleas shall not follow the court, but be held in some fixed place." In the early part of the reign of Henry III it was already distinguished as having cognizance of the private suits of subjects, and as keeping its own records in the form of the "de Banco" Rolls. The Court of Common Pleas was ordinarily held at Westminster. In the reign of Edward I the barons of the Exchequer were forbidden to interfere in its jurisdiction, and from the beginning of that reign commences a regular series of chief justices of Common Pleas. A full bench consisted of the chief justice and of four (after 31 & 32 Vict. of five) puisne judges. This court had a concurrent jurisdiction with the Queen's Bench and Exchequer in personal actions and ejectment. It had an exclusive jurisdiction in real actions. Under the Parliamentary Elections Act of 1868, and under the Railway and Canal Act of 1853, it also received appeals from the revising barristers' courts. Appeals from this court formerly lay to the King's Bench, but were transferred by 21 Geo. IV and 1 Will. IV to the judges of the King's Bench and the barons of the Exchequer sitting in the Exchequer Chamber. The exclusive jurisdiction of the court was maintained by the Judicature Act of 1873, for the Common Pleas Division, but in virtue of s. 31 it has since been merged by order of council in the general jurisdiction of the High Court of Justice.

W. S. Holdsworth, "History of English Law," 1923.

[W. H.]

Plunket, William Conyngham, 1st Baron (1764–1854), the son of a Presbyterian minister, was educated at Trinity College, Dublin, and in 1787 was called to the Irish bar. In 1807 he became member of parliament for Midhurst; in 1812 for Dublin University. He was one of the most brilliant speakers in an age of orators. He was not a Whig, but a follower of Lord Grenville. In 1821, after Grattan's death, he became the chief promoter of Catholic emancipation (q.v.) in parliament. He had before been solicitor-general, and in 1822 became attorney-general, for Ireland. In this capacity he proceeded *ex officio* against the promoters of the "Bottle Plot" (q.v.), and his conduct was criticized in parliament, but he was able to vindicate it successfully. In 1827 Canning tried to get him made lord chancellor of Ireland, but the king refused. He was, however, made lord chief justice of the Irish Court of Common Pleas, and a peer. In 1830 he became lord chancellor of Ireland, and held the office for eleven years.

Biography by his grandson, 1867.

Poitiers, The Battle of (September 19, 1356), was the second of Edward the Black Prince's great victories over the French. In 1355 the truce which had been concluded for eight years came to an end. The Black Prince crossed to Bordeaux, and at the head of a great army, composed largely of mercenaries, marched up the Garonne, plundering the country as he went. After penetrating as far as Narbonne he made his way back to Bordeaux, where he kept Christmas. In the following year he directed his attention to the north, and in August marched towards the Loire; but near Poitiers he found his way barred by a large force under King John of France. The prince's army is said not to have exceeded 7,000; but it was strongly posted behind ditches, hedges, and vineyards, of which the last were lined with archers. His offers to treat were rejected, and the French horse pressed on to the attack up a lane or cart-track which pierced the protecting hedge on the English right. But they fell back in confusion before the arrows of the English. The main body of the French army fought, however, on foot, and advanced in four "battles" to the encounter. The first and second battles were repulsed by the English after a hard struggle, and their defeat resulted in the flight from the field of the third, led by the Duke of Orleans. The last of the four, which was commanded by the king himself, put up a strong resistance, but the tide was finally turned in the English favour by Edward's expedient of sending a detachment under the Captal de Buch to attack the French rear. The raid was complete. Large numbers of the French were killed, and among the crowd of prisoners was King John himself.

Sir C. W. C. Oman, "History of the Art of War," 1924; H. Belloc, "Poitiers," 1913.

Pole, Arthur (1531–70 ?), eldest son of Sir Geoffrey Pole, attempted in 1562 to form a conspiracy in conjunction with his brother, Edmund Pole, and with the aid of the Duke of Guise, against Elizabeth, offering in case of his success to sink his own claims to the throne in favour of Mary, Queen of Scots. The plot was discovered before it came to anything, and Pole was sent to the Tower, and condemned though not executed. He died in the Tower. His claims to the throne, by which he hoped to win over a large number of adherents, were derived from George, Duke of Clarence, brother of Edward IV.

Pole, Edmund de la, Earl of Suffolk (1472 ?–1513), was the son of John de la Pole, 2nd Duke of Suffolk, by Elizabeth, eldest sister of Edward IV. For consenting to take service under Henry VII he was created Earl of Suffolk, and allowed to redeem a portion of the estates of his father. A few years later he was guilty of homicide, and resenting the notion of being

tried for the crime as a deadly insult, he fled to Flanders, and entered into active relations with the Dowager Duchess of Burgundy. Henry, however, persuaded him to return, but in the following year he again fled to Flanders, this time with a view to restoring his broken fortunes by some private enterprise. On the shipwreck of the Archduke Philip in January 1506, Henry did not hesitate to insist upon his surrender as a main article of the treaty he then extorted from Philip. He was at once committed to the Tower, from which he did not emerge again till the day of his execution in 1513. It is supposed that his execution at this date was chiefly due to Henry VIII's anger at his brother, Richard de la Pole, entering the service of France.

Pole, John de la, Earl of Lincoln (*d.* 1487), was the son of John de la Pole, 2nd Duke of Suffolk by Elizabeth, sister of Edward IV. On the strength of the attainder of the Duke of Clarence and the stigma of illegitimacy cast upon Edward IV's children, the Earl of Lincoln had cherished hopes of an eventual succession to the crown of England, and was recognized by Richard III as his lawful successor. The accession, therefore, of Henry VII to the throne, after the victory of Bosworth, was especially distasteful to him, and, though ostensibly reconciled to the new monarch, he eagerly associated himself with his more active opponents. The imposture of Simnel appeared so peculiarly adapted to further his ambitious projects that he lost no time in giving it a personal and most energetic support, crossing over himself to Flanders for the purpose of collecting troops and funds. In Ireland, whither he went from Flanders, the Earl of Lincoln met with so enthusiastic a reception that he was encouraged to transport his forces with all speed to England. But he was greeted with indifference when he appeared at Fouldsey, in Lancashire. He pushed rapidly southwards in the direction of Newark, with a mixed force of Irish and English, a regiment of "Almains," 2,000 strong, commanded by Martin Schwarz (q.v.), an officer of considerable reputation. The king's forces advanced against him, and a bloody and obstinate battle was fought at Stoke (q.v.), near Newark (June 16, 1487), which resulted in the complete defeat of de la Pole's forces, and his own death.

Pole, Michael de la, Earl of Suffolk (*d.* 1389), was the son of William de la Pole, a Hull merchant, who had risen to be a baron of the Exchequer. He early succeeded in ingratiating himself with Richard II, and in 1383 was appointed chancellor. He was extremely unpopular with the barons, and the misgovernment of the kingdom was in great measure attributed to him. He was created Earl of Suffolk in 1385, and this still further increased his unpopularity, so that in 1386 the king was obliged to remove him from the chancellorship, and the Commons drew up articles of impeachment against him. The charges preferred were for the most part frivolous, but his condemnation was determined on, and he was sentenced to imprisonment till he should ransom himself according to the king's pleasure. After the dissolution of parliament an attempt was made by the king and his friends to annul their decisions, but the barons were too powerful for them, and finding resistance of no avail, de la Pole fled in 1387 to France, where he died two years later. In the meantime, in the "Merciless Parliament" (q.v.) of 1388, he had, at the instigation of Thomas of Gloucester and the lords appellant, been condemned and sentenced to forfeiture.

Pole, Reginald, Cardinal (1500–58), was the son of Sir Richard Pole, by Margaret, daughter of George, Duke of Clarence, brother of Edward IV. Though educated for the Church and destined for the highest ecclesiastical preferments, he gave up all his prospects rather than acquiesce in the divorce of Queen Katharine and the separation of England from the papacy. He retired to Italy, and was made a cardinal by Paul III. He was the intimate associate of Contarini and the early reformers of Catholicism; had an important share in the business of the Curia, and, it is said, narrowly missed the papal chair. He took a leading part in the Council of Trent, though that assembly condemned his doctrine of justification. He never lost sight of England; wrote a book against Henry; constantly stirred up the Catholic powers against him, and was the leading representative of English Catholicism in Europe. At last the reaction under Mary restored him to England as papal legate and Archbishop of Canterbury (March 1556). He was the queen's leading adviser in ecclesiastical affairs, though he is said to have been averse to some of the more brutal aspects of her persecutions. Towards the end of his life he was involved in a quarrel with Paul IV, who deprived him of his legatine position.

T. Phillips, "Life of Pole," with Ridley's "Animadversions," 1764, etc.; biographies by D. Baxter, 1901; M. Haile, 1910; K. B. Macfarlane, 1924; Gasquet, "Cardinal Pole and His Early Friends," 1927.

Pole, William de la, 4th Earl and 1st Duke of Suffolk (1396–1450), grandson of Michael de la Pole, served with distinction in the French wars, and took part in the battle of Verneuil and the siege of Orleans. He was one of the ambassadors at the Congress of Arras in 1435, and was the chief promoter of the marriage of Henry VI with Margaret of Anjou, for arranging which he received a marquisate in 1445, and four years later he was made a duke. From 1445 he was practically chief minister, and was strongly inclined towards a peace policy, which brought great odium upon him, while the terms of the marriage treaty which he had negotiated were greatly in favour of France, Anjou and Maine being ceded to King René, the father of Margaret. Suffolk's great rival was Humphrey, Duke of Gloucester, whom he accused to the king of treachery. Gloucester was arrested in February 1447, and

his suspicious death shortly afterwards was popularly attributed to Suffolk. Suffolk's administration was extremely unfortunate; disaster followed disaster abroad, while at home taxation was heavy, and misery and desolation prevailed. The popular anger against Suffolk culminated in 1450. The Commons brought grave charges against him. He was accused of gross mismanagement and treachery in France, of wishing to marry his son to Margaret Beaufort, thereby securing the crown for his descendants, and of appropriating and misusing the royal revenue. Suffolk, while denying the charges, placed himself at the king's disposal, who, without declaring his guilt or innocence, banished him from the realm for five years. It would seem that Suffolk assented to this rather than inculpate the king and the council by awaiting his trial at the hands of the Lords. On his way to the continent he was seized by the crew of a ship which was lying in wait for him off Dover, and barbarously put to death by them as a traitor. He married Alice, daughter and heiress of Thomas Chaucer, and probably a granddaughter of the poet.

J. Gairdner, Introduction to "Paston Letters," 1904.

Police System, The, developed slowly in England, though on the continent the Emperor Charles V is reputed to have been the first ruler to institute police. The chief antecedents of the modern police system are to be found in the Statute of Watch and Ward (1285), and statutes passed in 1585, 1737, and 1777, all of which dealt with London alone. The crying need for a regular police force continued, however, until the foundation of the Metropolitan Police in 1829 by Sir Robert Peel, then home secretary. The scheme had to live down much opposition, and was widely denounced as an instrument of despotism. But by 1835 it had proved its worth. In that year the Municipal Corporations Act established Borough Constabularies. County Police were instituted in 1839–40, and made compulsory by the Police Act of 1856. Stipendiary magistrates and the Metropolitan Police Courts were regulated by statute in 1839, 1840, and 1858.

W. L. M. Lee, "History of Police in England," 1901.
[A. C. F. B.]

Polish Question (1831–2). At the outbreak of the Polish rebellion Great Britain warmly sympathized with the rebels. At the same time Palmerston, occupied with the Belgian question, steadily refused to assist the Poles except by suggestions to Russia. But that power knew he would not interfere by arms, and his remonstrances were treated with derision. He made another attempt to obtain mercy for the Poles after the fall of Warsaw, but Nesselrode briefly informed him that the only obligation incumbent on Russia by the Treaty of Vienna was the duty of maintaining the union, and that the constitution was a grace of the emperor, which had been forfeited by rebellion. In 1831, however, the woes of Poland attracted the attention of the House of Commons. But these attacks produced no result. The feeling in favour of the Poles grew as the news of the Russian cruelties was brought home, and in July 1833 Cullar Fergusson moved an address to the Crown in favour of the Poles. Palmerston, however, opposed this, urging that the British government could not do more than it had done, unless it declared war, and that the latter course would be hardly advisable. However, the most violent language was applied to Russia and her emperor in parliament, and the feeling against them became so strong that later in the session the ministry was compelled to give way and grant a sum of £10,000 for the relief of the Polish exiles.

—— (1863). The Polish question arose again when news of the Polish insurrection of 1863, and its sanguinary suppression, excited great indignation in Great Britain and France. France was ready for intervention if Great Britain would join. Earl Russell went to the extent of drawing up, in concert with France and Austria, a note on the subject, urging on the Russian government six points as the outline of a pacification of Poland. These were —a complete amnesty, a national representation, a distinct national administration of Poles for the kingdom of Poland, full liberty of conscience, with the repeal of all the restrictions imposed on Catholic worship, the recognition of the Polish language as official, and the establishment of a regular system of recruiting. Lord Palmerston, however, refused to hear of anything like armed intervention. When Russia learnt that the note was a mere unsupported suggestion, she treated it coolly and contemptuously. The question, however, was brought up in the House of Commons by P. Hennessy. The result was a hot debate, in which Disraeli, Palmerston, Walpole, Stansfeld, Lord Robert Cecil, and others, vied with each other in expressing detestation of these barbarities. A great meeting was held on the subject at the Guildhall, at which similar indignant speeches were delivered. Nothing, however, was done by the government beyond the dispatch of the note.

T. Filipowicz (ed.), "Confidential Correspondence of the British Government respecting the Insurrection in Poland," 1914.

Ponsonby, John William, 4th Earl of Bessborough (1781–1847), better known as Lord Duncannon, entered parliament for Knaresborough in 1805. He was an active member of the Whig party for many years, and had a considerable share in drafting the Reform Bill. In 1831 he was made chief commissioner of woods and forests, and in 1834 he received the seals of the home office, and in 1835 the privy seal. In 1846 the Earl of Bessborough was appointed lord-lieutenant of Ireland by Lord John Russell. His accession was very popular, as he was a resident Irish landlord, and had always displayed a patriotic and liberal interest in Irish affairs. His viceroyalty ex-

tended over the period of the great famine, and his efforts were earnestly directed to the alleviation of that calamity. He died in May 1847, during his tenure of office.

Pontage was a duty imposed upon all freemen for the making and repairing of bridges, and is the same as the "brig-bot" of Anglo-Saxon times. In a charter of Edward I to certain foreign merchants we find them exempted from "pontage."

Poor, Roger le (or, Roger Pauper), was the son of Roger, Bishop of Salisbury. By his father's influence he was made chancellor by King Stephen in 1135, but in 1139 he was, together with many other ministers, arrested by the king. He was carried to Devizes, where his cousin Nigel, Bishop of Ely, was holding out against the royal troops, and the threat that, unless he surrendered, his cousin should be put to death before his eyes had the intended effect. After remaining in captivity for some time Roger was released on condition of quitting the kingdom, to which he never returned.

Poor Law, The (Ireland). There was no legal provision for the Irish poor previous to the year 1828, though some two and a half millions were annually spent in charity. In 1838 the English system was introduced, and though the Irish were, and are, especially unwilling to enter a poor-house, it on the whole succeeded. During the famine, indeed, the poorer unions were very soon bankrupt, and parliament was more than once called on to relieve them. At last, in 1849, the Rate in Aid Bill was passed, by which, to relieve the poor districts of Connaught, a general rate all over Ireland was resorted to, government lending £100,000 for the relief of immediate distress, on this security.

Poor Laws is the name which has been given to the legislation providing for the relief and maintenance of the destitute. In mediæval England the care of the helpless poor was undertaken generally by the lords of manors, the parochial clergy, the monasteries, and religious gilds, and in the case of poor craftsmen by the trade gilds. After the Black Death in 1349 (q.v.) the surviving labourers refused to work except at higher wages. By an ordinance of the same year (the first of the many "Statutes of Labourers") an attempt was made to force all able-bodied men to work, and almsgiving to "sturdy" or "valiant" beggars was forbidden. In the act of 1388, confirming the Statute of Labourers, appears the first germ of a law of settlement. The labourer was thereby forbidden to leave his place of service, or to wander about the country without a passport; impotent beggars were to remain where they were at the passing of the act, or if not there provided for, to seek a maintenance within their hundreds, or in the places where they were born. In the acts of 1495 and 1504 it was further provided that beggars should be "sent to the place where they were born, or have dwelt, or are best known, to support themselves by begging within the hundred."

In the sixteenth century the break-up of the system of the manor and craft-gild, the dissolution of the monasteries and religious gilds, and the increase of prices owing to debasement of the coinage, made the question of pauperism much more pressing than it had ever been before, and some systematic attempt to provide relief was necessary to prevent social anarchy. [It is interesting to observe how closely parliament in its legislation followed successful experiments in municipal poor relief, e.g., in Norwich and London.] In 1536 it was enacted that while the "lusty" poor might be "daily kept on continual labour," the poor who were not able to work should be provided for. For this purpose the congregation of each parish was to be exhorted to charitable offerings, and a book was to be kept by the clergy showing how the money was spent. In 1551 collectors of alms at church on Sunday were to be appointed, and persons refusing to subscribe were to be expostulated with by the bishop. By a later act the bishop was empowered to send them before the justices, who, if persuasion failed, could impose upon them the payment of a definite amount. It was not, however, till the passage of the legislation of 1597–1601 that a general compulsory rating was substituted for semi-voluntary contribution. [The act of 1601, which was a re-enactment with certain not very important alterations of an act of 1597, was the foundation of the English Poor Law]. It ordered the nomination by the justices of two or three overseers in each parish, who were empowered to raise the amount necessary for the relief of the poor by taxing every inhabitant. The act drew a clear distinction between able-bodied poor unwilling to labour, or unable to find employment, who were to be set to work, and impotent poor unable to work, who were to be relieved. Persons able but refusing to labour were to be committed to prison. [There followed a period of nearly half a century of parental government, which has become famous for the zeal exercised by the council in supervising the poor-law activities of the local magistrates.]

[The old Tudor laws of settlement, which provided for the return of new arrivals in a parish to their old homes, if they were rogues or were not self-supporting, seems to have lapsed after the passage of the statutes of 1597 and 1601, which omitted to renew them in the general codification.] A much more severe law of settlement began with an act of 1662. This authorized the justices, upon complaint of the overseers, made within forty days of a person's coming to a strange parish, to order him to be removed to his own place of settlement, unless he could give securities to the parish against becoming chargeable to it. The natural result of this act was to keep the poor to their own parishes, and to prevent labour going where it

was needed. [" For more than a hundred and thirty years the nine-tenths of the entire population who were manual-working wage-earners, or independent handicraftsmen, remained subject to this intolerable law " (Webb).] In 1685 it was enacted that insomuch as " poor people at their first coming do commonly conceal themselves," the forty days should count from their giving notice of their residence to the overseers. In 1691 various other ways of obtaining settlement were established, such as payment of taxes for a year, or a year's hiring, or the serving of an annual office. Still more important was another provision of the same act. In order to prevent misuse of the powers of overseers, it was ordered that a register should be kept of paupers and of the amounts received by them, that a new list should be made out yearly, and that no one else should receive relief, except by authority of one justice, or by order of the bench of justices at quarter sessions. This latter clause was speedily interpreted as empowering justices to order relief to applicants at their own discretion. An attempt was in vain made to meet the misuse of this power by an act of 1723, which enacted that the applicant must prove that he had already applied to the parish officers, who must show cause why he was not relieved. But the evil result of allowing justices to act independently in the matter of relief were not very apparent till the end of the eighteenth century, and, on the whole, the Poor Law worked well down to 1760.

In 1697 a workhouse had been built in Bristol under a special act, and there " the workhouse test " was first adopted, i.e., willingness to enter the house was alone taken as a test of destitution. The plan proved so successful that it was imitated in some other towns, and by the act of 1723 parishes were empowered, singly or in unions, to provide workhouses, with the proviso that persons refusing to enter such houses should be refused relief. This act resulted in a great diminution of expenditure when adopted, yet it seems to have been carried out in comparatively few parishes.

The industrial revolution which began in the second half of the eighteenth century, and the increase of enclosures, led to a rapid extension of pauperism, which was still further encouraged by a slipshod philanthropy. By Gilbert's Act of 1782 parishes were empowered to form unions or incorporations with adjacent parishes ; these incorporations were permitted to build workhouses. The justices were to appoint guardians (paid officials, like modern relieving-officers) to administer relief. The act of 1723 was practically repealed in the case of incorporations by the provision that none but the impotent were to be sent to the workhouse, while suitable employment was to be provided for the able-bodied near their own homes. Sixty-seven such incorporations were formed, and the result of the statute was that in five years the cost of relief rose from one and a half to two million pounds.

The pressure of the continental war led to still more disastrous measures. In 1795 the Berkshire magistrates drew up a declaration (the so-called " Speenhamland Act of Parliament ") fixing a scale of relief according to the price of wheat, and the number of children in a family, and they were imitated in several other counties. The practical effect of this was that relief was granted in aid of wages, and the farmers, themselves benefiting through their long leases by the high price of corn, were able to throw part of the cost of their labour upon non-farming residents in their parishes. Next year an act legalized generally out-door relief, and formally repealed the act of 1723. [The views of the commissioners of 1832–4 are well expressed in their note on these Poor Law modifications : " It is clear that when the magistrates assembled at Speenhamland, in 1795, 'to settle the weekly income of the industrious poor,' public opinion sanctioned their attempt. This is shown by the Act of 1796 which was passed a few months after, and may be considered the great and fatal deviation from our previous policy. The 43rd Elizabeth never contemplated, as objects of relief, industrious persons. It made no promises of comfort or happiness."] Some attempt was made in 1819 to improve the state of things by empowering such parishes as chose to elect a " select vestry " to superintend the overseers. In most parishes, however, especially in the rural districts, relief was still administered by the overseers, with the right of appeal to the justices on the part of the labourer when the overseers were not sufficiently pliant. The worst consequences followed—the agricultural labourers were pauperized, the bastardy laws made vice very profitable, and a premium was set on idleness and improvidence. Between 1784 and 1818 the amount of poor rate increased about three times as fast as population (population from eight millions to nearly twelve millions, poor rate from two million pounds to almost eight millions). These evils led to a commission of inquiry in 1832, and to the great act of 1834, the most important in the history of Poor Law after 1601. It attempted to restore the workhouse test for able-bodied paupers ; parishes were grouped into unions, and placed under elected boards of guardians, and the guardians were put under a central board at London—the Poor Law Commissioners, superseded in 1847 by the Poor Law Board, and that in 1871 by the Local Government Board, headed by a responsible minister as president. The measure was for a time very successful, and by 1841 the poor rate had fallen to £4,760,000. In 1844 the " Out-door Prohibitory Relief Order " finally forbade all relief except in the workhouse. But the commissioners still allowed out-door relief in case of sickness or " bodily infirmity," and this was speedily construed to cover relief to persons over sixty years of age incapable of earning wages. But this led once more to a rapid increase of out-door relief, encouraging

improvidence, and causing wages to be lower than they would otherwise have been. During the ten years 1861–71 the expenditure rose from five and three-quarter to more than seven and three-quarter million pounds, and the number of paupers from 883,921 to 1,037,360. This increase of pauperism, together with the growth of a spirit of scientific philanthropy, led to strong efforts to enforce the workhouse test, and these met with considerable success. They were seconded in London by Goschen's Act of 1870, which placed workhouse expenditure on a metropolitan fund, while leaving out-door relief to be borne by each district. Since then the incidence of the metropolitan poor-rate has been so altered that the richer parishes pay more and the poorer parishes less. In 1905 a royal commission was appointed to inquire into the working of the laws relating to the relief of the poor. In 1909 its report was issued, pointing out the defects of the present Poor Law, and formulating proposals for reform. [It is the Minority Report of this commission, with its vivid description of conditions in the general mixed workhouse, that provides the text for those who wish to undertake sweeping reforms in the present system of administration and workhouse accommodation, which, in spite of the activities of the commission of 1905 and the minister of reconstruction's committee of 1917, still remain unchanged in essentials. But of recent years there has been great extension of out-door relief. Social insurance has prevented many from falling into destitution. Old age endowment, though inadequate, has worked in the same direction. The following figures show the number of persons receiving poor relief in England and Wales in recent years. Only a small proportion of these were housed in institutions.

1913	632,000
1919	483,000
1920	568,000
1921	1,376,000
1922	1,406,000
1923	1,241,000
1924	1,072,000]

Ashley, "Economic History"; Webb, "English Local Government," vol. vii; Nicholls (and Mackay), "History of the English Poor Law"; Leonard, "Early History of English Poor Relief"; Fowle, "The Poor Law"; Ashby, "Poor Law Administration in a Warwickshire Village"; Marshall, "The English Poor in the Eighteenth Century"; Report of Commission on the Poor Laws, 1834; Reports of Commission on the Poor Laws, 1909; Salter, "Early Tracts on Poor Relief."

[W. J. A.] [A. V. J.]

Poorunder, The Treaty of (1776), was concluded between the East India Company and the Poona State. It annulled all the engagements of the Treaty of Surat to Ragoba, who was to disband his army and retire to the banks of the Godavery on a pension. The British army was to quit the field, Salsette was to be retained if the governor-general desired it, but all other acquisitions were to be relinquished; the claim of the British on the revenues of Baroach was conceded with twelve lacs for the expenses of the war.

Popham, Sir John (1531?–1607), a native of Somerset, was appointed solicitor-general in 1579, and next year elected Speaker of the House of Commons. He became attorney-general in 1581, an office which he held for eleven years, during which he took part in most of the important state trials of the period. In 1592 he succeeded Sir Christopher Wray as lord chief justice, in which capacity he presided at the trials of Sir Walter Ralegh and the conspirators in the Gunpowder Plot (q.v.). He is said to have been the originator of the idea of the transportation of felons to New England (Virginia) and other colonies. Sir Edward Coke called him "a man of ready apprehension, profound judgment, most excellent understanding, and admirable experience and knowledge of all business which concerned the Commonwealth."

Popish Plot, The (1678–9), was the name given to an imaginary conspiracy of the Catholics in the reign of Charles II. Though, no doubt, there were some projects for an attempt against the government agitated by the English Catholics, there is little doubt that the "plot" owed its existence chiefly to the imagination of Titus Oates (q.v.) and other informers. Oates was an English clergyman of bad character, who had become a Roman Catholic and joined the Jesuits at St. Omer. In 1678 he deposed before a magistrate that he knew the particulars of a papist scheme, by which the king was to be killed, a Roman Catholic ministry appointed, and a massacre of the Protestants prepared with the assistance of a French army. A few days afterwards Sir Edmund Berry Godfrey (q.v.), the magistrate before whom Oates had sworn, was found murdered on Primrose Hill, and a universal panic spread over the nation, which seemed for the time to have lost its senses. The wildest stories of Oates and the informers who arose were believed without question. Parliament met on October 21, and the Commons resolved, "that there hath been, and still is, a damnable and hellish plot, carried on by papist recusants for assassinating the king, the subverting the government, and for rooting out the Protestant religion." The plot was taken up by Shaftesbury as a weapon against his political opponents and the Duke of York. On the evidence of Oates, Dangerfield, Carstairs, and Bedloe, many leading Roman Catholics were tried, convicted, and imprisoned or executed. A valuable find was made in the papers of Father Edward Coleman, the Duchess of York's private secretary, who was arrested on September 30. Oates went so far as to swear that he had heard the queen give her consent to the king's murder. On November 30 an act was passed "for disabling papists from sitting in either House of Parliament." In May of the following year (1679) the bill to exclude the Duke of York from

the throne was brought in, and though Charles deferred it for that year by a dissolution, it was carried through the Commons in November 1680, but rejected in the House of Lords. In December 1680 Lord Stafford, the most distinguished of the victims of the Popish Plot, was executed. But by this time a reaction had set in. The judges would no longer convict on the evidence of the informers, and the people were alienated by what seemed like a Whig persecution of the Duke of York. In March 1681 Charles dissolved his fifth parliament, and governed without one during the remainder of his reign; and later in the year one of the false witnesses, College, was put on his trial, and condemned at Oxford, and Shaftesbury himself was prosecuted by the Crown for treason, though the bill was thrown out by the grand jury in London. [Oates, Titus.]

Burnet, "History of His Own Time," ed. O. Airy, 2 vols., 1897–1900; J. Pollock, "The Popish Plot," 1903.

Population. There is no subject on which wilder guesses have been made than those which, without enumeration, or something equivalent to enumeration, have been hazarded about the population of cities and counties, about the numbers of contending or invading armies, and about the ravages of famine and pestilence. Accounts of those numbers have been given, occasionally with some statement which appears to be confirmatory, but which later research has accepted with distrust. Thus, Herodotus states a number for the invading host of Xerxes, and asserts in confirmation of his figures that a rough census was taken of the army and its followers. But in the more critical age of Juvenal the whole narrative was scouted as the invention of a vainglorious and mendacious Greek. In the same manner, but with a better critical apparatus, Hume, in his essay on the populousness of ancient cities, challenged the assertions of those who claimed millions where thousands would have been nearer the truth. In our own country the same exaggerations have been made, doubtless in good faith. Gascoigne, the critic, and in some degree the chronicler of the fifteenth century, a chancellor of Oxford University, and a highly estimable and honourable person, alleges that he read the names of thirty thousand students in Oxford during the period immediately antecedent to the great plague of 1349. They could not possibly have been housed in the town, or if housed, could hardly have been fed. We are told that sixty thousand persons perished by disease in Norwich between January and July in the above-named year, but it is certain that, till the nineteenth century, Norwich has never had 60,000 inhabitants. Numbers are habitually exaggerated, and when panic is abroad the exaggeration rapidly becomes a geometrical ratio.

During the fourteenth century, and nearly to the end of the sixteenth, the population of England and Wales could not have been more than from two to two and a half millions. The proof of this statement is partly indirect, and partly direct. It may be confidently affirmed that, provided the inhabitants of a country subsist on one kind of grain, as the English from the remotest period have on wheat—more generally, indeed, from the Middle Ages to the eighteenth century than they even do at present—the number of persons in the country will be almost exactly equal to the number of quarters of wheat which is annually produced in the country. Now it could be shown, and it has been shown elsewhere, that the maximum produce of wheat in England and Wales from the beginning of the fourteenth to the close of the sixteenth century could not have been more than two and a half millions of quarters, and was probably much less, the average rate of production per acre being below eight bushels. The writer of this article has examined many thousands of farm accounts, giving the exact amount of produce from the acreage sown in all parts of England, and he is confident that eight bushels to the acre is a liberal estimate in average years. [The force of this argument depends on the assumption that wheat was the cereal food of the mass of the population. But we know that many men, especially those of the poorer sort, consumed bread made of rye, or of wheat and rye mixed, and that oatmeal, too, was an article of diet. If the wheat area alone could support two and a half million people, the total population must have been considerably greater.]

We are not, however, without direct estimates. There are several taxing rolls in the Record Office, especially records of poll taxes, from which it is possible to arrive at an approximate estimate of population. One of those more than a century ago was published, and commented on in the "Archæologia." In 1377, the last year of Edward III's reign, parliament granted the king a poll tax of four pence a head on all lay persons over fourteen years of age, none but known beggars being exempted from contributing. Beneficed clergymen paid a shilling; other ecclesiastical persons, except mendicant friars, paid, like the laity, four pence. The number of persons who paid the tax in the whole country, and in the principal towns, is given, and Topham added one-third to the amount, in order to include the untaxed part of the population, a quantity which the vital statistics of the time entirely justified, though now, owing to sanitary improvements, the life of childhood is prolonged beyond what was to be expected then, and therefore the proportion of youth to a more adult age is higher. The forty-two towns, which are separately enumerated, had an aggregate population of 168,720 persons. The rest of the population in the county and small towns is 1,207,722. But from this enumeration Durham and Chester, and Wales, including Monmouth, are excluded, not being taxed in the grant. Topham put this population at 182,123, making

a total of 1,558,565. By adding a third of this number for the children, and giving a very liberal allowance for beggars and begging friars, a total of two and a quarter millions is reached. [Here it must be remembered that this estimate is made for a year scarcely a generation later than the worst visitation of the Black Death in 1349 (q.v.), which may have destroyed between one-third and one-half of the population, and less than a decade after the visitation of 1369. It would not be rash to assume a figure of something like 4 millions for the early fourteenth century, a drop to 2,500,000 at the Black Death, a partial recovery before 1400, and a gradual increase till the end of the Tudor period when the population of England and Wales was probably between 4 and 5 millions.

Rogers, in the original article contributed by him to this dictionary, was inclined to think that a great increase of population took place in the seventeenth century. Arguing back from 5,500,000, Gregory King's (probably slightly over-estimated) figure for 1688, to the 2,500,000 of Elizabeth's reign, which Rogers suggested, we should have to conclude that the population doubled in the century; but this is unbelievable when common sense, our knowledge of the century, and the estimates of contemporaries are given fair play. In 1700 the total population of England and Wales was between 5,500,000 and 5,800,000; it is unlikely that the population increased by much more than one and a quarter millions during the Stuart period. Until we have the early census figures, from 1801 onwards, to work upon, it is only by indirect methods that a rough estimate of the growth of population can be determined on. The careful work of Mr. Griffith, which is based on the researches of Rickman, the early census statistician, into the baptismal and other registers of the eighteenth century shows a small increase in the period between 1700 and 1750. In the third decade there was actually a fall in numbers. The figure for 1750 is about six and a quarter millions. Thereafter the advance is more rapid: 6·6 per cent. in the 'fifties; 6·9 per cent. in the 'sixties; 6·4 per cent. in the 'seventies; 8·3 per cent. in the eleven years 1790 to 1801. This was the first census year, and Rickman's corrected figure for it is 9,168,000. Thereafter the percentage increase was: 1801–11, 14·39 per cent.; 1811–21, 16·39 per cent.; 1821–31, 13·74 per cent.; 1831–41, 14·46 per cent. From 1841 onwards methods of census procedure and calculation improved. For information on population in more recent years, see CENSUS.]

For a short discussion of the theory of population see Cannan, "Wealth"; among the older works special attention should be given to those of Malthus and Godwin's "Political Justice." Modern books: Clapham, "Economic History of Modern Britain"; Carr-Saunders, "The Population Problem"; Wright, "Population"; Newsholme, "Vital Statistics"; Griffith, "Population Problems of the Age of Malthus"; Redford, "Labour Migration in England"; Buer, "Health, Wealth and Population, 1760–1815"; Coulton, "Mediaeval Village," Appendix; Beveridge, in *Economic Journal*, December 1923, and *Economica*, February 1924; Sir Wm. Ashley, "The Bread of our Forefathers," 1927. [J. E. T. R.] [A. V. J.]

Porteous Riots, THE (1736), were occasioned by the hanging of a smuggler named Andrew Wilson at Edinburgh on April 14, 1736. Captain John Porteous, of the City Guard, ordered his men to fire on the rioters, six of whom were killed and eleven wounded. Condemned to death, Porteous was reprieved by the government, but was seized by the populace and hanged on the day previous to that fixed for his execution (September 7). The lord provost, Wilson, was declared incapable of further office, and the city was compelled to pay £2,000 to Porteous's widow.

W. Roughead (ed.), "The Trial of Porteous," 1909.

Portland, EARLS AND DUKES OF. [WESTON; BENTINCK.]

Portsmouth, LOUISE RENÉE DE QUEROUAILLE, DUCHESS OF (1649–1734). [QUEROUAILLE.]

Portugal, THE JOURNEY OF (1589), was the name given to the expedition undertaken in the year 1589 to wrest the Portuguese crown from Philip of Spain, and bestow it on Dom Antonio, an illegitimate son of Henry of Portugal. The expedition, which was under the command of Sir Francis Drake and Sir John Norris, sailed in April 1589. Corunna was partly destroyed, and Norris defeated a large force of Spaniards who had come to relieve the city. Drake then sailed up the Tagus to Lisbon, whilst Norris landed at Peniche and marched overland to join him. Lisbon, however, was too strong to be taken, the country refused to rise for the pretender, and in May the expedition returned home.

Portugal, RELATIONS WITH. The friendly relations which Henry II had established with the princes of the Iberian peninsula made the few dealings between the early Portuguese monarchs and the English court of a generally amicable nature [LISBON]. More intimate relations began when the Black Prince became the partisan of Pedro the Cruel of Castile, and John of Gaunt claimed his throne as his daughter's husband. The reigning King of Portugal, Dom Ferdinand, joined the English against Henry of Trastamara, who had succeeded in winning the throne of Peter. In 1381 an English army, under the Earl of Cambridge, who had also married a daughter of Peter's, came into Portugal; but very little was done, the English troops behaved badly, and Ferdinand concluded a truce with the Castilians. The marriage of Cambridge's son John to Beatrice, the king's daughter, was annulled on the retirement of the English, and on Ferdinand's death in 1383 Don John of Avis had to fight for his throne against Beatrice's husband, King John of Castile. In 1386 John of Gaunt came with an English army to help the new king, whom he married to his daughter Philippa. But the campaigns proved unfortunate, and

John of Gaunt abandoned both Portugal and his hopes of the Castilian crown. The career of maritime glory into which Portugal embarked in the fifteenth century brought it into no direct relations with England, though it prepared the way for later English enterprise; and when the English first appeared in India they were welcomed by the Great Mogul as likely to counterbalance the Portuguese. Intimate commercial relations between England and Portugal also sprang up during the later Middle Ages. The conquest of Portugal in 1580 by Philip II of Spain led to the fitting out of the Armada in Lisbon harbour, but also to the English affording a refuge to Dom Antonio Prior of Crato, the popular candidate for the Portuguese throne, in whose behalf Drake, in 1589, avenged the Armada by an expedition to the coast of Portugal. But though Antonio accompanied the fleet, it did more harm to Spain than good to Portugal, and the plundering of Portuguese vessels, and the devastation of Portuguese colonies by the English, involved their old ally in their war against her new master. In 1640 Portugal began her successful revolt under John of Braganza against Spain. One of the first acts of the new state was to conclude, in 1642, a commercial treaty with Charles I; but this rather complicated its relations with the government of the Commonwealth. In 1650 John refused to surrender the fleet of Princes Rupert and Maurice, which had taken refuge in the Tagus, to Blake; an act which, despite the voluntary retirement of the princes, caused some disagreement. But in 1652 the English war against the Dutch, the enemies of Portugal, and Cromwell's adoption of an anti-Spanish policy soon afterwards made it an easy matter to renew in 1654 the treaty of 1642. This began the political and commercial dependence of Portugal on England, which was continued by the marriage of Catherine of Braganza to Charles II (1662); a measure necessitated by the abandonment of the Portuguese by the French in the Treaty of the Pyrenees, and justified by the security it gave to Portuguese independence, against both Spaniards and Dutch. But the cession of Bombay and Tangier almost acknowledged the commercial supremacy of the English. At last the designs of Louis XIV on Spain involved the Portuguese in hostility to him, and justified the conclusion of the Methuen Treaty (q.v.) in 1706, which completed the dependence of Portugal. Through it Portuguese armies fought with Stanhope and Galway against the French and Spaniards during the Succession War. All through the eighteenth century Portugal, like Holland, was a satellite of England. The whole trade of Portugal fell into British hands. The commerce of Lisbon and Oporto was entirely carried on by British factors. The vineyards of the Douro, and the mines of Brazil, were ultimately quite dependent on British capital. The bread which the Portuguese ate, and the clothes which they wore, were brought from England; and, what was worse to disciples of the mercantile system, the "balance of trade" was constantly in favour of the British. The famous Marquis of Pombal, who during the reign of King Joseph (1750–77) upheld almost alone the power of Portugal, sought to change this dependence into alliance on equal terms. The British factors and Jesuits combined to plot his ruin; but his triumph resulted in a transient revival of Portuguese trade through his commercial companies, and Pitt was willing to accept the assistance of the Portuguese army, which the Count von der Lippe had reorganized in the war against Spain at the close of the Seven Years' War (q.v.). The death of King Joseph, and the fall of Pombal, renewed the degradation of Portugal. The war against revolutionary France again necessitated its dependence on Great Britain. Even in 1801, when France and Spain were united against it, Portugal struggled some time before accepting the Treaty of Madrid, which gave France equal commercial rights with Britain. But the refusal of Portugal in 1807 to accept the continental system involved it in fresh hostilities with France. British help alone forced Junot to conclude the Convention of Cintra (q.v.). Henceforth Portugal was the basis of operations against the French during the whole Peninsular War. Government and army became alike dependent on Great Britain, and the Portuguese troops, disciplined by Beresford, proved no unworthy allies of the British under Wellington. The conclusion of the war left Portugal, where the liberal spirit was rising, in the hands of the tyrannical government of a king who had sought in Brazil a secure refuge from the French. In 1822 a constitution was obtained; but in 1824 an absolutist reaction under Dom Miguel took place. It was renewed in 1828. Canning exerted all his energies in favour of the constitutional party. But after his death the Wellington ministry took a neutral attitude, which practically meant supporting Dom Miguel. The heroic struggle of Donna Maria II provoked, however, much sympathy, and in 1833 a British expedition under Napier powerfully assisted in the triumph of the constitutional party, and the quadruple alliance of Great Britain, France, and Spain with Portugal guaranteed their success. In 1835 the Methuen Treaty was annulled. The subsequent ambition of Portugal to take part in the colonizing of Africa received a check in 1889, when Lord Salisbury forced her to abandon her claims to Nyassaland.

E. MacMurdo, "History of Portugal," 3 vols. 1889; E. Prestage, "Diplomatic Relations of Portugal with France, England and Holland, 1640–68," 1926.

Post-Nati, Case of the. On the accession of James I to the throne of England, it became a question whether his Scottish subjects, born after his accession to the English throne (*post-nati*), were aliens in England or not. The Scots contended that they were not, and the same view was taken by the judges in

the House of Lords. In the House of Commons it was contended that a statute would be required to naturalize them. The point was decided in the Court of Exchequer Chamber in the case of an infant named Colvill (Calvin), born in Scotland in 1605, when ten of the twelve judges decided that a *post-natus* was not an alien in England.

Post Office, The, may be said to have originated in the mediæval system of royal messengers, whose supervisors furnish the earliest postmasters, of whom Sir Brian Tuke (c. 1533) is the first of whom we have authentic record. Regulations as to post-horses and the speed of messengers were laid down in detail by James I, whose accession brought an increase in communication between England and Scotland. The year 1619 saw the creation of the office of "Postmaster-General of England in foreign parts." Matthew de Quester, the first holder, was succeeded by Witherings, who doubled the speed and the frequency of the continental mails. At this time the yearly cost of the post office to the Crown was £3,400. Eight main postal lines were established in 1635.

Visions of a penny post occurred as early as the Commonwealth period to John Hill of York, who embodied his theory in a pamphlet, "Penny Post," 1659. (A similar plan was actually adopted for a short time in 1680 in London, by Dockwra and Murray.) Under Charles II the post office was farmed out, according to a statute of 1657. In 1710, however, the posts of the empire were consolidated into one establishment, the offices of Dublin, Edinburgh, and New York being reorganized and postal rates regulated. The revenue increased from £96,000 in 1724 to £164,000 in 1774. In 1784 mail-coaches with armed guards were first introduced by Pitt (at the suggestion of John Palmer of Bath) as a precaution against mail robberies. Meanwhile a packet system to the colonies had been developed, and reached an annual cost of £100,000 by 1800.

The nineteenth-century post office reforms began with the publication of Rowland Hill's 'Post Office Reform" in 1837. At this time postal rates (outside London) varied from 4d. to 1s. 8d. for a single sheet weighing less than ½ oz., and the average rate was 9d. inland. Hill's proposal for a flat rate of 1d. per ½ oz. was submitted to a parliamentary commission. The result was an act (passed on August 17, 1839, by a majority of 100) establishing the penny postage. The act came into force on January 10, 1840. Postage stamps were introduced in the following May. The result more than justified the experiment. The number of letters carried increased from 75 millions to 195 millions in the first two years, and the gross revenue for the same period amounted to £1,250,000. Within seven years the number of letters carried annually increased to 329 millions. The rest of the century is a record of expansion and development. The money-order department of the Post Office was instituted in 1838. The telegraph services were transferred to the State in 1870. Post cards were introduced in the same year. Post Office Savings Banks were created by statute in 1861. Postal-orders were first issued in 1881, sixpenny telegrams in 1885, and the parcel post in 1883. In 1874 the Universal Postal Union was formed. In 1912 the National Telephone Company services were transferred to the State. The penny post persisted until 1922, when the inland rate was raised to 1½*d.*

Joyce, "History of British Post Office," 1893; C. F. D. Marshall, "The British Post Office . . . to 1925," 1927. [A. C. F. B.]

Poynings, Sir Edward (1459–1521), after a distinguished military career was sent to Ireland as lord-deputy by Henry VII soon after his accession. He was very successful both in subduing the partisans of the house of York and in quelling the native Irish rebels in Ulster and along the borders of the Pale. He reduced the eastern portion of the island to order. His period of government is specially noted for the passing in December 1494 of "Poynings' Act," which decreed that all existing English laws should be in force in Ireland, and that no parliament should be held in Ireland without the sanction of the king and council, who should also be able to annul statutes passed by the Irish Houses. Thus the legislative independence of the English colony in Ireland was at an end. "Poynings' Act" was not repealed until 1782.

R. Bagwell, "Ireland Under the Tudors," 1885–90.

Præcipe, The Writ of, was a peremptory command addressed to the sheriff, ordering him to send a particular cause to be tried in the king's court, instead of the local court. By section 34 of Magna Carta its use was limited.

W. S. McKechnie, "Magna Carta," 2nd edn. 1914.

Præmunire, Statutes of. In the fourteenth century there seem to have been two forms of papal exaction more distasteful to the English parliament than any others: the one—of no modern standing even then—the right claimed, and often exercised, by the pope of giving away Church benefices in England to men of his own choice, and often to aliens; the other, his persistent action in assuming to himself and his curia the right of deciding cases of law which ought properly to have been dealt with by the king's courts at home. Against each of these abuses the parliaments of the middle of Edward III's reign aimed statutes: attempting to check the first abuse by the *Statute of Provisors* (1350–1) (q.v.), and the second by the first *Statute of Præmunire* (1353). By the latter of these two statutes the king "at the grievous and clamorous complaints of the great men and the commons of his realm of England," enacts that all his liege people of every condition who refer any matter properly belonging to the king's court to any jurisdiction outside the realm shall be allowed two months within which to appear before the

king's council, his chancery, or his justices of either bench, etc., to answer for their contempt of the king's rights in transferring their cases abroad. "If," the statute continues, "they fail to put in an appearance at the due time, their lands and chattels are all forfeited to the king; their persons are liable to be seized, and if not found, the offenders are to be outlawed." Two things are worth noticing with reference to the statute; first, that the clergy are not mentioned as petitioning for its enactment or assenting to it; and, second, that although the measure is plainly levelled against the pretensions of the Roman Curia, yet its aim is nowhere stated in the body of the act. There were several subsequent Statutes of Præmunire. The later and fuller are naturally more often called *the* statute, as in a way they superseded the earlier. The name is more especially reserved to an act passed in the sixteenth year of Richard II (1393). In this statute it is plainly stated that the right of recovering the presentation to a church benefice "belongeth only to the king's court by the old right of his crown as used and approved in the time of all his progenitors, kings of England." The statute then proceeds to condemn the practice of papal translation, and after rehearsing the promise of the three estates of the realm to support the king in his rights, enacts without any circumlocution, "that if any purchase, or pursue, in the Court of Rome, or elsewhere, such translations, processes, excommunications, bulls, etc.," he and his notaries, counsellors, and abettors shall forfeit all their lands and tenements, goods, and chattels to the king, while the offenders themselves are to be attached and brought before the king and his council, or be proceeded against by writ of *Præmunire facias*, as is ordained in other Statutes of Provisors. It is from the phrase *Præmunire facias* that the whole enactment has derived its name. These are the opening words of the writ directed to the officer, bidding him forewarn the offender when and where he is to appear to answer to the charges brought against him. The word *Præmunire* is said to be a corruption of *Præmoneri*, to be forewarned. The scope of these Præmunire Acts was still further enlarged under 2 Henry IV, 3 Henry V, etc. The Statutes of Præmunire were, however, constantly disregarded. Papal provision became in the fifteenth century the most usual way of appointing to bishoprics. The custom of granting dispensations from the statute had much influence on the growth of the king's dispensing power. It was by a dexterous manipulation of the clause which included the abettors of a breach of the Statute of Præmunire in the penalty due to the prime offender that Henry VIII laid the whole body of the clergy at his mercy in 1531 for having acknowledged the legatine authority of Wolsey; and the king's pardon was only bought by a large sum of money, and their acknowledgment of him as supreme head of the Church. Under Elizabeth, to refuse the oath of supremacy was made a breach of the Statute of Præmunire; and also to defend the pope's jurisdiction in England, or to support a Jesuit college, or any popish seminary beyond the sea. By later enactments the penalties following a breach of this statute have been extended to offences very different from those which were commonly connected with the word Præmunire.

"Statutes of the Realm"; F. Makower, "Constitutional History of the English Church."

Pratt, Charles, 1st Earl Camden (1714–94), was the son of Chief Justice Sir John Pratt. He was educated at Eton, and called to the bar in 1738. When Pitt came into office in 1757 he was appointed attorney-general. When Pitt resigned in October 1761 Pratt continued in office as attorney-general, and in the following January became chief justice of the Common Pleas. While he held this position, he continued to maintain constitutional principles against tyrannical attempts to oppress the subject, and decided in numerous cases against the legality of general warrants. To him Wilkes applied, and the chief justice ordered his release on the ground of his privilege as a member of parliament. On the formation of the Rockingham cabinet, in 1765, he was raised to the peerage as Baron Camden. In February 1766 he made a great speech in favour of the repeal of the Stamp Act, and against the Declaratory Act. In the following July he was raised to the woolsack. In January 1770 he openly declared his differences with his colleagues on the Wilkes question, and resigned the great seal. In 1772 he warmly opposed the Royal Marriage Act. In January 1782 he supported Lord Shelburne's amendment to the address on the king's speech. On the formation of the second Rockingham cabinet in March 1782 Lord Camden obtained the office of president of the council. In 1783 he resigned, and offered a vigorous opposition to the "Coalition" ministry. Soon after Pitt became prime minister Camden was again made president of the council. In May 1786 he received an earldom. He conducted, in the House of Lords, the measures adopted by the government in relation to the Regency Bill. The last occasion on which he addressed the House of Lords was during the debate on Fox's Libel Bill.

"State Trials," vols. xviii–xx.

Pratt, John Jeffreys, 1st Marquis Camden (1759–1840), son of the preceding, entered parliament in 1780 as member for Bath. In 1795 he succeeded Lord Fitzwilliam as viceroy of Ireland. On his entry into Dublin in March 1796 there was a serious riot, which could only be quelled by bloodshed. In 1797 he was bitterly denounced by Grattan, on account of the severities he had found it necessary to authorize in Ulster; but the parliament, now thoroughly alarmed by the progress of disaffection, was on his side. The English

government was more uncertain how to act, but ultimately supported Lord Camden, and took his side in the dispute in which he was involved with General Abercromby. He was, after the beginning of 1797, in full possession of all the rebel plans, but was unable to act on his information during the rebellion of 1798. He was consequently urging the gravity of the situation on the English cabinet, but it was only after Father Murphy's successes that the Guards and other English troops were sent out to support him. The Whigs in England, meanwhile, continued to attack him as a tyrant of the worst kind, Sheridan moving for his recall in the Commons, and the Dukes of Leinster and Norfolk in the Lords. Both motions were defeated, but popular clamour was so great that in June 1798 he was recalled. In 1804 he entered the cabinet, and in 1812 was made a marquis. For nearly sixty years he held the lucrative post of teller of the exchequer; but during more than half that period he patriotically declined to draw the enormous emoluments of the office.

Prayer Book, or, properly, the **Book of Common Prayer,** is the Liturgy of the Church of England, ordained by law for national use. Before the Reformation, Latin service-books were in use throughout Christendom, founded upon a common model, but containing considerable variations. The prayers for various hours of the day were contained in the Breviary; the order for celebrating the Holy Communion in the Missal. There was also a manual of devotions in English called the Prymer, current in the fifteenth century. The desire of the reforming party, headed by Cranmer, was for greater simplicity and intelligibility in the service-books, and Cranmer steadily moved in that direction. In 1541 a new edition of part of the Sarum Breviary was issued; and in 1542 Cranmer notified to convocation the king's pleasure that the service-books should be examined, corrected, and reformed of all superstitious prayers. A committee of bishops and divines sat for that purpose and prepared materials for the future. Portions of the Scriptures were ordered to be read in English in churches; and in 1544 the Litany, which was already in English for use in processions, was revised by Cranmer. In 1545 was issued the "King's Prymer," which contained the Creed, the Lord's Prayer, the Ten Commandments, and several canticles and collects, as well as the Litany in English.

In the reign of Edward VI the work of liturgical revision first bore definite fruit. In the first year of the reign convocation and parliament ordered the Communion to be administered under both kinds; and a committee of divines was appointed to draw up "The Order of Communion," which was published in 1548. This, however, was only a temporary measure for immediate use. The commissioners applied themselves, under Cranmer's presidency, to the task of framing a complete Book of Prayer. They finished their labours within the year, and submitted the book to parliament, by which it was accepted. The Act of Uniformity, passed in January 1549, ordered the book to come into general use on the evening of Whit-Sunday. The objects of the compilers of this book are stated in their preface to be (1) the formation of a uniform use for the whole realm, (2) the simplification of rubrics, (3) the reading of the whole Psalter in order, (4) the continuous reading of the Bible, (5) the omission of needless interruptions, (6) conformity to the pure Word of the Scripture, (7) the formation of a Prayer Book in the vulgar tongue. The First Prayer Book of Edward VI followed closely on the Prymer for morning and evening prayer, so as to make as little change as possible. Its chief differences from the Prayer Book now in use are—(1) Matins and Evensong began with the Lord's Prayer and ended with the Third Collect. (2) The Litany followed the Communion office, and there were no instructions for its use. (3) In the Communion office the Commandments were not read; the prayers were differently arranged, and included a mention of the Virgin and prayers for the dead; there was an invocation of the Holy Ghost before consecration; the words used in giving the elements were only the first clause of the two now in use; the priest was ordered to stand "afore the midst of the altar"; the old vestments, albs, and copes were prescribed for the celebrant; water was mixed with the wine. (4) In the Baptismal Service a form of exorcism was used; trine immersion was directed; the child was arrayed after baptism in a white garment, called a *chrisom,* and was anointed with oil on the head. (5) The Burial Service contained prayers for the dead, and provision was made for a Communion at a burial.

This Prayer Book was well received by the people generally; but an influx of foreigners brought to England opinions more decidedly Calvinistic. The Prayer Book was no sooner in use than a small party called for its revision. They prevailed with the king, who again appointed a committee, with Cranmer at its head. In their work the committee asked the opinions of the learned foreigners Peter Martyr and Bucer. The result of this revision was the Second Prayer Book of Edward VI, which was published in 1552. It added the introductory portion of Morning and Evening Prayer, appointed the Litany to be used as at present, added the Decalogue to the Communion office, reduced its prayers to the order in which they now occur, omitting the points noticed above; directed the priest to stand "at the north side of the table," and to wear no vestment save the surplice. The tendency of the alterations made it most clearly seen in the substitution of the second clause now used at the administration of the elements for the first clause, which was omitted. The Second Prayer Book showed no

desire to retain old uses because they were old, but was a movement towards the doctrines of the continental reformers.

The Second Prayer Book of Edward VI had scarcely time to come into use before it was swept away by the Marian reaction. When Elizabeth came to the throne in 1558 she behaved with great caution, and was crowned according to the rites of the Roman Pontifical. A committee was, however, appointed early in 1559 to compare the two books of Edward VI and correct them. The commission, of which the chief mover was Edward Guest, afterwards Bishop of Rochester, decided in favour of Edward VI's Second Prayer Book, with a few alterations. These were adopted by parliament, and the revised Prayer Book came into use on June 24, 1559. The alterations were not important, but were significant of Elizabeth's desire for comprehension. The ornaments in use in the second year of Edward VI were recognized; the two clauses in the administration of the elements at the Communion were put together as they are now; a petition was omitted from the Litany—"From the Bishop of Rome and all his detestable enormities, Good Lord deliver us."

Again the return of exiles from the continent brought discord, and the Puritan party desired another revision. At the accession of James I the king agreed to hear the Puritan demands at a conference at Hampton Court in 1603 (q.v.). The Puritans met with little attention, and the changes made in the Prayer Book were slight; chief of them was the addition of the Thanksgiving Prayers, and of the latter half of the Catechism. Charles I attempted to force on Scotland the use of the English Liturgy, and his attempt led to a revolution. Under the Commonwealth the Prayer Book was swept away. After the Restoration a conference was held at the Savoy (q.v.), in 1661, between twelve bishops and twelve Presbyterians, to discuss the wishes of the Presbyterians for a revision of the Prayer Book. This conference did not show much attempt at conciliation on either side. A committee of bishops was again appointed to revise the Prayer Book, and no steps were taken to meet the wishes of the Presbyterians. What alterations were made rather increased than diminished the scruples of the Puritans against receiving the work. The revised Prayer Book, finally reduced to the shape in which we now have it, was approved by parliament, and its use was enforced by the Act of Uniformity of 1662. Some printed copies were carefully compared with the original, were then sealed with the great seal, and were sent to all cathedrals, to the courts at Westminster, and to the Tower, to be preserved for ever. Since then the Sealed Books have remained the standard for preserving the Prayer Book in its original form. It is true that in 1689 a committee was appointed to prepare such alterations "as might reconcile, as much as possible, all differences." But convocation was opposed to all change, and the proposals were never considered.

Palmer, "Origines Liturgicæ"; Wheatley, "On the Book of Common Prayer"; Procter, "History of the Book of Common Prayer," "Liturgies of King Edward VI and of Queen Elizabeth" (published by the Parker Society). [M. C.]

[In 1926 certain changes in the Prayer Book were recommended. The subject of revision had been prominent in 1857 and 1863 and again in 1879. In 1904 a royal commission was appointed to investigate "alleged . . . breaches or neglect of the law relating to . . . Divine Service in the Church of England." The commission reported in 1906, and there were issued to the convocations Letters of Business authorizing the discussion of modifications in the existing law. Convocation included in its work a discussion as to a revision of the Prayer Book, and this was taken up by the Church Assembly on its formation. In 1926 the House of Bishops was engaged on the revision, and reported in February 1927. The bishops' proposals passed both Houses of Convocation on March 30, 1927, and the Church Assembly on July 6. The proposals were rejected by a majority of 33 in the Commons on December 15, 1927, and again by a majority of 46 on June 14, 1928.

"The New Prayer Book" (draft), 1927; *The Times* of February 8, 1927; T. B. Strong, "Notes on the New Prayer Book," 1927.]

Prerogative, The Royal. Prerogative has been defined as an exclusive privilege. Historically considered, it is not much more than the legal exercise of the royal authority. An old judge expounded it as "that law in case of the king which is law in no case of the subject." "It is of blood," said Bacon, "to the Common Law; it sprang from sources akin to those from which the Common Law has sprung; it did for the king and still does for the Crown what the Common Law did for the subject." "It grew," said Stubbs, "out of certain conditions of the national life, some of which existed before the Norman Conquest, others were the products of that great change, and others resulted from the peculiar course of Henry II and his descendants." Before 1377 the Crown had actually or virtually parted with most of its legislative and taxing powers. Chief among its admitted and exclusive powers at this time were those of calling, interrupting, and dismissing parliaments, of ratifying legislation, of creating peers, and conferring every form of honour, of making cities and boroughs, of pardoning criminals, of negotiating with foreign powers, of declaring and conducting war, of nominating to Church dignities and presenting to an immense number of benefices, of appointing all public officials, of coining money, regulating trade, fixing weights and measures, and establishing markets and havens. The spurious "Prerogativa Regis" adds to these the custody of idiots and lunatics, wreck of the sea, whales and sturgeons, and the right

to the lands and goods of attainted felons. With few exceptions, these claims are still conceded to Prerogative. But besides these it then claimed, and despite a long and stubborn opposition continued to exercise, the rights of purveyance, and of issuing commissions of array, with all the manifold accompaniments and consequences of both. A power to dispense with and even suspend the operation of a statute was also among its demands. Such was the mediæval measure of Prerogative at its widest legal stretch, though even to this a king like Richard II, in his days of absolutism, would seek to give an unquestionably illegal extension. During the constitutional rule of the Lancastrian dynasty the tendency opposite to Richard's set in, that of not only dislodging Prerogative from its disputed position, but also of placing its legitimate exercise under parliamentary control. The Tudor despotism, however, forced this to yield in its turn; and for a time it became the fashion to strain the principle to the utmost, and give it a practically unbounded sphere of action. The high prerogative doctrine then came into vogue, which vested in the king, besides his ordinary power limited by law, an extraordinary power as extensive as the whole province of government, to be resorted to, if the safety of the commonweal were judged by the king to require its application, when the constitutional resources of authority were deemed inadequate. This was perhaps what Bacon meant when he described Prerogative as "the accomplishment and perfection of the Common Law," stepping in to the rescue of the State when the Common Law was found wanting. At the same time the erection of exceptional jurisdiction and the granting of monopolies were regarded as covered by the regular Prerogative. The dangerous doctrine and the questionable practices were effaced for ever by the action of the Long Parliament. But the dispensing and suspending powers still lingered; Charles II and James II employed them without scruple. The latter, however, was finally extinguished by the Bill of Rights, which also placed severe limits upon the dispensing power. The Revolution started a new method of dealing with Prerogative; it was left with most of its powers unimpaired, and some of them even strengthened, but their exercise was gradually drawn under the efficient control of parliament. This now belongs to a body of ministers who are responsible for it to the Commons and the country, and are virtually chosen and dismissed by both.

W. R. Anson, "Law and Custom of the Constitution"; D. J. Medley, "Constitutional History," ed. 1926. [J. R.]

Presbyterianism is a form of Church government intermediate between Episcopacy and Congregationalism (q.v.). Episcopacy is monarchical; Congregationalism democratic; Presbyterianism aristocratic. The name is derived from the New Testament term *presbyteros*, or elder, and it is generally agreed that the organization of the Church in New Testament times was of the Presbyterian type. The Reformation of the sixteenth century, which was marked by a strong endeavour to effect a return to the primitive polity by the Christian Church, saw a vigorous revival of Presbyterianism. Most significant of all was the fact that John Calvin adopted the Presbyterian form of organization for his church at Geneva. From Geneva, together with the Calvinistic theology, the Presbyterian system of government spread to France (where it was soon suppressed), the Netherlands, Southern Germany, England, Scotland, Northern Ireland, and the American colonies. Under Presbyterianism each congregation elects its own minister and elders subject to confirmation by the presbytery, which consists of all the ministers and selected elders of a certain specified district. The presbyteries are united and controlled by a General Assembly to which all send representatives.

So far as England is concerned, a serious attempt to convert the Episcopal Church, as established by law, into a Presbyterian Church was made under Elizabeth, particularly during the years 1572–93, by the Puritan party led by Thomas Cartwright (q.v.). Against this the queen and Whitgift fought strenuously and successfully. Half a century later, during the period of the Civil War, the influence of the Scots caused a partial adoption of Presbyterianism by the Parliamentary party (1643 et seq.); but the system was uprooted by Cromwell's Committee of Triers (q.v.) under the Commonwealth government, which was dominated by Independents. At the Restoration the hopes of the Presbyterians revived, but they were finally dashed to the ground by the Act of Uniformity, 1662.

In Scotland, on the other hand, the Presbyterian system established itself [Church of Scotland; Free Church of Scotland], and from the eighteenth century onward branches of the Scottish Presbyterian Churches have planted and maintained themselves in England.

Macpherson, "Presbyterianism," 1883; Drysdale, "History of the Presbyterians in England," 1889.

Press, The Freedom of the, consists in the absence of legal restrictions on the employment of the printing-press for the discussion of questions of public concern. The first restrictions to be abandoned were those by which the Tudor council attempted to limit printing to members of the Stationers' Company (1557), and to manuscripts which had received the imprimatur of certain bishops or judges (1559). Stuart councils, courts, and parliaments next attempted to restrict publication to such printed works as received the licence of a press censor (1637 onwards); this licensing system was abandoned (1695) after being attacked by Milton and Blount. Thenceforward printing and publishing have remained almost completely free from administrative regulation (except under the temporary D.O.R.A., 1914–20), because such regulation had proved ineffectual

when deliberately defied, and undesirably biased and vexatious in so far as it was effectual. To this extent, the liberty of the press became generally recognized as part of the British constitution; but indirect restrictions continued to exist. "The liberty of the press is indeed essential to the nature of a free state; but this consists in laying no previous restraints upon publication, and not in freedom from censure for criminal matters when published" (Blackstone, 1769).

Publishers of parliamentary reports were subjected to judgment at the bar of either House of Parliament for *breach of privilege*, until the struggle with Alderman Wilkes (1771); and the House of Commons continued to exercise jurisdiction over publications derogatory to its own dignity until the imprisonment of Burdett (1810) and Hobhouse (1819). Prosecutions before other courts, for breach of the *common law of criminal libel*, remained very frequent; and until Erskine and Fox's Libel Act (1792) juries judged only the fact of publication, the criminal character of the publication being tacitly assumed. There was something like a regular "prosecuting system" (Bentham) from the publication of Paine's "Rights of Man" (Part 2, 1792) to 1819–24, when Carlile and several of his shop assistants allowed themselves to be imprisoned: voluntary subscription societies were organized by Tories for indicting publishers and retailers of Radical and deist works; Crown law-officers dispensed with grand juries, by filing ex-officio informations; English libellers were made liable to transportation ("Two Acts," 1795) and banishment ("Six Acts," 1819—q.v.); Scottish libellers were transported (last case 1819); and owing to the criminal matter in their poems the Chancery Court refused to recognize Shelley's claim to educate his child, or the publisher's copyright in Byron's "Don Juan."

According to the common law derived by King's Bench judges from the Star Chamber and ecclesiastical courts, anything can be regarded as a defamatory, seditious, blasphemous, or obscene libel—according as it treats of personal, political, religious, or sexual matters—if its circulation tends to produce a state of things which can be regarded as a breach of the peace. Libels defamatory of individuals can be made the ground not only of civil actions for damages, but also of criminal prosecution in so far as they constitute a breach of the peace; but since 1843 defendants have been allowed to plead in justification that a defamatory criminal libel is true, and that its publication is conducive to the public interest (Campbell's Libel Act—the only statutory amendment of the common law of libel). The chief forms of seditious libel are those which tend to bring into hatred or contempt, or to excite disaffection against, (1) the person of his Majesty, his heirs and successors, or (2) the government and constitution of this kingdom as by law established, or (3) either House of Parliament, or (4) the administration of justice; or to excite his Majesty's subjects to attempt—otherwise than by lawful means—the alteration of any matter in Church or State as by law established (Stephen). The term blasphemous libel includes all abuse or calumny of the Christian religion or Scriptures, and probably also anything tending to undermine popular faith in Christianity.

Another more indirect restriction consisted in *press-taxes* imposed for revenue purposes in 1712. The newspaper-tax, raised to 4d. by 1815, was extended to "weekly political pamphlets" ("Six Acts," 1819); it was reduced to 1d. in 1836, after 750 convictions had been obtained against Hetherington and his assistants in the "battle of the unstamped" (1831–5); and it was finally abolished in 1851.

J. Fitzjames Stephen, "Digest," 1877, and "History of the Criminal Law," 1883; C. D. Collet, "History of the Taxes on Knowledge," 1899; Z. Chafee, "Freedom of Speech," 1920; W. H. Wickwar, "The Struggle for the Freedom of the Press," 1928.

[W. H. W.]

Prestonpans, The Battle of, was fought on September 21, 1745, at a village in Haddington county, nine miles east of Edinburgh, between the Young Pretender's adherents and the royal forces under Sir John Cope. The latter were defeated. Of Cope's army, the Loudoun Campbells were captured, and the rest (save for 200 infantry) cut down. The Highlanders lost only 100 men.

Pretender. [Stuart, Charles Edward; Stuart, James Edward.]

Pride's Purge is the name given to the violent measure by which (December 6, 1648) the army excluded a large number of the Presbyterians from the parliament. At the close of 1648 the army resolved to bring the king to a trial, and to put a stop to the treaty proceeding between him and the Parliament. Parliament on December 5 decided that the king's answers to their proposals offered foundations for a peace. The army, which had occupied London on December 2, surrounded the House of Commons on the morning of the 6th with the regiments of Colonels Pride, Hewson, and Hardress Waller. Pride, with a list of names in his hand, prevented certain obnoxious members from passing in, and locked up those who resisted. The number of those arrested amounted in the course of the next day to 47, and 96 were excluded. On the same day a paper, called the "Humble Proposals and Desires," was presented to the members still sitting on behalf of the council of officers, setting forth the demands of the army. The House, reduced to less than 80 members, decided by 50 to 28 to proceed with the consideration of these proposals (December 7), and in the next three weeks rescinded its late votes, and determined to try the king.

Primrose, Archibald Philip, 5th Earl of Rosebery (*b.* 1847), succeeded his grandfather in the title in 1868. In 1881 he joined Gladstone's second government as under-

secretary at the home office, resigning in 1883, and returning in 1884 as lord privy seal and first commissioner of works. For a few months in 1886 he was foreign secretary, and held the same portfolio from August 1892 to March 1894, when he succeeded Gladstone as premier, remaining in office until 1895. He formally resigned the Liberal leadership in 1896. In 1903–5 he was a conspicuous opponent of Joseph Chamberlain's fiscal proposals. In 1909 he protested against Mr. Lloyd George's budget, and in 1911 he vehemently denounced the Parliament Bill. He became Earl of Midlothian in 1911.

Prior, Matthew (1664–1721), was one of the most distinguished of the literary diplomatists and politicians of William III's and Anne's reigns. He was educated at Westminster and St. John's College, Cambridge, of which he became a fellow. He was a friend of Charles Montagu, afterwards chief of the Whig party, and wrote with him "The City Mouse and the Country Mouse" (1687), a satire on Dryden's "Hind and the Panther." Prior was sent as secretary to the congress at The Hague, and became one of William's gentlemen of the bedchamber. He was appointed secretary to the English legation at Ryswick (1697), and was entrusted with the duty of bringing the treaty to England. Next year he was sent in the same capacity to France under the Duke of Portland. When factions broke out in the court Prior deserted Portland and attached himself to Albemarle. He was appointed under-secretary of state to the Earl of Jersey, but was removed from office on the retirement of that nobleman. In 1701 he was elected for East Grinstead and appointed commissioner of the board of trade. Under Anne he remained out of favour while the Whigs were in power; but in July 1711 he was sent with the Abbé Gualtier to Paris with propositions for peace. In August 1712 the ministry, weary of the length of the negotiations, sent Bolingbroke to Paris to shorten the work by personal conversation with Torcy. Prior accompanied him, and on Bolingbroke's return he was left as chargé d'affaires, without regular authority, and with scanty remittances. Disgrace rapidly overtook him on the death of Anne. As soon as he returned to England he was examined before the Committee of Safety, of which Walpole was chairman, for his share in the negotiations for peace. He was imprisoned, and Walpole moved an impeachment against him, but eventually he was released without trial. The rest of his life was spent in retirement.

Prior's collected works, 1733, ed. A. R. Waller, 1905–7; biographies by F. L. Bickley, 1914, and L. G. W. Legg, 1921.

Prisons, Legislation on. As early as 1166 it was enacted (by the Assize of Clarendon, c. 7) that in each county the sheriff should provide a jail at the king's cost if one did not already exist. In addition to these "common jails," some of the law courts had special prisons connected with them, such as the Marshalsea, attached to the King's Bench, and the Fleet (q.v.), attached to the Star Chamber and Chancery. Little attention was paid to the condition of these prisons until the eighteenth century. The jailers were paid, not by salaries, but by the fees which they could exact from the prisoners, and men were often retained long after their innocence had been pronounced because they could not pay the sums demanded. In 1728 the discovery of certain cruelties perpetrated in the Fleet led to the appointment of a parliamentary commission. The warden and his agents were put upon their trial for murder, but were acquitted; and the act passed in 1729 to remedy the worst evils was almost useless. The question was apparently forgotten until John Howard (q.v.) began to prosecute his inquiries. In 1774 two acts were passed, one providing that every prisoner against whom the grand jury failed to find a true bill should be immediately and without fee released, and that the jailer should be paid from the county rate; and the other to secure the due cleansing, etc., of prisons. After this time numerous statutes were passed. Of these the most important were those of 1823, 1865, and 1877. The act of 1823 was largely the result of Elizabeth Fry's efforts, and introduced a classification of prisoners. In 1865 the distinction, which had never been carefully maintained, between common jails and houses of correction—the latter intended only for convicted criminals, was finally abolished; and what was far more important, it was enacted that in all cases imprisonment should be "separate," i.e., solitary. Finally, the Prisons Act of 1877, which is now the principal statute on the subject, gave an increased power of control to the home secretary and to the prison commissioners appointed on his recommendation. It is to be added that between the years 1853 and 1864 transportation was abolished, and penal servitude, i.e., imprisonment with hard labour on public works, substituted. [The first Penal Servitude Act was passed in 1853. Important amendments—notably the restriction of corporal punishment and the establishment of three divisions of prisoners—were added by the Prison Act of 1898. In 1914, by the Criminal Justices Administration Act, the power of Courts of Summary Jurisdiction was enlarged.]

Stephen, "History of Criminal Law," I, ch. xiii; "State Trials," vol. xvii, 1813, p. 297; "Memoirs" of John Howard and Mrs. Fry. [W. J. A.]

Probate and Divorce, The Court of, was created in 1857, and received the testamentary and matrimonial jurisdiction, which had previously been vested in the ecclesiastical courts. By the Judicature Acts of 1873 (q.v.) this court, together with the Admiralty Court, was constituted one of the divisions of the Supreme Court.

Proclamations. In mediæval and later times, when the range of customary and statute law was still comparatively limited, and many practices that gave concern to kings and ministers were left uncorrected thereby, the king took upon himself at times to supply the defect by issuing proclamations which either expanded and applied the provisions of already existing laws—in any case were presumed to be fair deductions from such laws—or were independent acts of prerogative. They were under the Plantagenet and Lancastrian kings avowedly temporary. Under the Tudors proclamations took a bolder tone, and threatened to encroach on the domain of legislation. In 1539 was passed the famous Statute of Proclamations, which enacted that the king, with the advice of his council, might set forth proclamations, with penalties in them, as obligatory on the subject as an act of parliament, provided they did no damage to the estates, liberties, or persons of the king's subjects, and infringed no law. The precise significance of this measure has long been disputed. The tendency in recent years has been to minimize its importance, Professor Adair even going so far as to declare that it was not concerned at all with the legality of proclamations, but merely with the relief of the congestion of council business. In any case the first law of Edward VI repealed the measure. In Elizabeth's reign proclamations were not seldom used to supplement legislation, assist in the promotion of a policy, or regulate the conduct of the people. The banishment of Anabaptists, fasting in Lent, building houses round London, carrying daggers, or wearing long rapiers, trading with the French king's rebels, are a few of the things that were commanded or forbidden in them under penalties, and it is not clear that very many of them were distinctly illegal; statute law certainly warranted some, the unstrained prerogative others. James I resorted to the practice so often, and pushed it so decidedly across the boundaries of legality that in 1610 the alarmed Commons made it a subject of formal complaint, alleging that the king's proclamations touched the liberty, goods, inheritance, and livelihood of men, and that there was a general fear they would grow to the strength of laws. The gravest examples were that which in 1604 dictated rules to the constituencies in choosing members of parliament, and those which forbade new buildings about London, and the making of starch out of wheat, and in most cases disobedience was made punishable in the Star Chamber. James gave a reassuring reply, and consulted his chief judges. An important consequence followed. The consulted judges, led by Coke, were unanimously of opinion that by his proclamation the king could not create an offence. He could only admonish his subjects to keep the law, and could not make an offence punishable in the Star Chamber if it were not so already. James frankly accepted this statement of the law, and desisted from issuing proclamations imposing fine and imprisonment. But in Charles I's reign proclamations were greatly multiplied, especially during the long cessation of parliament. For staying in London despite a proclamation ordering country gentlemen with their families back to their homes, one Palmer was, in 1632, fined £1,000 by the Star Chamber. The unconstitutional nature of these proclamations is unquestionable. It is curious, however, that they afterwards found no place in the Grand Remonstrance. In the ecclesiastical province the sovereign's action in this respect is less disputable. Proclamations for and against certain religious tenets, practices, and ritual were frequent between 1529 and 1640. That of Charles I, in 1626, "for the establishing of the peace of the Church," is one of the latest examples. The practice survived, but only just survived, the convulsion of 1640–60. To only one or two of Charles II's reign has exception been taken. It is significant that no mention is made of them in the Declaration of Rights. To-day proclamations are still issued by the privy council, but they are invariably warranted, sometimes commanded, by the statute law. [J. R.]

"Prophesyings" was the name given in the reign of Queen Elizabeth to meetings of the clergy, under the superintendence of the bishops, for the discussion and explanation of passages of Scripture. The meetings, which were held in public for the edification of the people, were presided over by a moderator. The system began during the primacy of Archbishop Parker, and was very obnoxious to Elizabeth, as savouring of Puritanism. Most of the bishops were in favour of Prophesyings, as were many of the privy council, and Archbishop Grindal was sequestered for five years from the exercise of his jurisdiction for refusing to put down the Prophesyings at the queen's command. They were finally suppressed by a special command of Elizabeth, May 7, 1577, and never subsequently revived.

J. R. Tanner, "Tudor Constitutional Documents," 1922.

Proportional Representation. There are two main forms of proportional representation, the list system and the single transferable vote system. In either the election is held over a constituency returning several members, and the system operates in such a way that the voters are arranged into as many equal groups as there are members to be elected, each group being united in the support of a particular candidate. Of list systems there are many varieties, but the following features are usual. Parties as such are officially recognized. Candidates are put forward in party "lists"—hence the name—in an order of priority determined by the party organization. The voter votes for the list and has little or no power to alter the order of

priority of the candidates. The electoral quotient, or quota, for the constituency is the minimum number of voters entitled to a representative. The quota is variously determined, but an approximate value is the number of persons voting divided by the number of seats. Each list receives one seat for each complete quota of voters supporting it (the remaining seats being allotted in various ways), and the candidates elected for the list are those at the head of the list.

In the single transferable vote system there is no official recognition of parties; the candidates' names appear on the ballot paper in a single list in alphabetical order. The voter exercises his one (single) vote by numbering with the figures 1, 2, 3, etc., in the order of his preference the candidates he desires to support. A vote is credited in the first place to the first choice of the voter; in designating his first choice the voter in effect joins the group of voters supporting a particular candidate.

The quota required for election under the single transferable vote system is, in the election of one member (though this limiting case is hardly proportional representation), one more than one-half of the votes; in the election of two members, one more than one-third; and so on. If the requisite number of quota-groups are formed by first choices only, the election is at an end. If not, the additional choices come into play to prevent the vote being wasted. A vote is "transferred" to a next choice only if the voter's prior choice is either elected with votes to spare, or if, after any surplus votes of elected candidates have been transferred, the voter's prior choice is at the bottom of the poll, and is defeated. By transferring first any surplus votes, and then in succession the votes of each candidate lowest on the poll, the requisite number of equal groups is built up.

The single transferable vote system was first advocated in England by Thomas Hare in 1857, and is widely known as the Hare System. John Stuart Mill described Hare's proposal as "among the very greatest improvements yet made in the theory and practice of government." The Hare system is the only form of proportional representation which has found acceptance in English-speaking countries. On the continent of Europe list systems are generally used.

In 1917 the Speaker's conference on electoral reform, which decided the main provisions of the Reform Act of 1918, recommended a partial adoption of proportional representation for the House of Commons, extending to about one-third of the seats. This recommendation was rejected by the House of Commons, though approved by the House of Lords.

Proportional representation is in operation in Great Britain for electing University members of parliament (1918); in Scotland for electing county education authorities (1919); in the Irish Free State for parliamentary and local elections (1922); and, overseas, for parliamentary elections, in Tasmania (1907), the Union of South Africa (Senate only, 1909), Malta (1921), and, partially, in some Canadian provinces.

On the continent of Europe the system now applies for parliamentary, and generally also for local, elections in Austria, Belgium, Czecho-Slovakia, Denmark, Esthonia, Germany (both Reich and States), Greece, Jugo-Slavia, Finland, Holland, Latvia, Lithuania, Luxemburg, Norway, Poland, Sweden, Switzerland. The system is also in practice in Iceland and Japan. In many countries, including Belgium, Denmark, Germany, Holland, and Switzerland, proportional representation is a constitutional provision.

Thomas Hare, "The Election of Representatives, Parliamentary and Municipal," 4th edition, 1873; John Stuart Mill, "Considerations on Representative Government," 1861; John R. Commons, "Proportional Representation," 3rd edition, 1907; John H. Humphreys, "Proportional Representation," 1911; "Practical Aspects of Electoral Reform," 1923; Sir J. Fischer Williams, K.C., C.B.E., "The Reform of Political Representation," 1911; C. G. Hoag and Geo. H. Hallett, "Proportional Representation," 1926; Publications of the Proportional Representation Society, London; Publications of the Proportional Representation League, Philadelphia, U.S.A.

Protector, The Title of, was first given to the governors appointed during the minority or incapacity of the king. It was borne by the Duke of Bedford during the minority of Henry VI (or in his absence by the Duke of Gloucester); by the Duke of York in 1454, and again in 1455 during Henry's illness; by the Duke of Gloucester in 1483, and the Duke of Somerset from 1547 (January) to 1548 (October). The House of Lords, in answer to Humphrey, Duke of Gloucester, thus defined the meaning of the word: "It was advised and appointed by authority of the king assenting the three estates of this land, that ye, in absence of my lord your brother of Bedford, should be chief of the king's council, and devised unto you a name different from other counsellors, not the name of tutor, lieutenant, governor, nor of regent, nor no name that should import authority of governance of the land, but the name of protector and defender, which importeth 'a personal duty of attendance to the actual defence of the land, as well against enemies outward if case required, as against rebels inward, if any were, granting you therewith certain power, the which is specified and contained in an Act of the said Parliament, to endure as long as it liked the king.'" In the case of the Duke of Somerset the instrument signed by the privy council on January 31, 1547, declared him to be appointed because the good government of the realm, the safety of the king, and "the more certain and assured direction of his affairs" required "that some special man of the number aforesaid (the executors) should be preferred in name and place before the other, to whom, as to the head of the rest, all strangers and others might have

access, and who, for his virtue, wisdom, and experience in things, were meet and able to be a special remembrancer, and to keep a most certain account of all our proceedings." The title of Protector given to Cromwell (which may be compared with that of "*custodes libertatis Angliæ*," assumed by the Long Parliament) was chosen because it was not altogether strange to English ears, and perhaps also because it left the definite form of government, whether monarchical or republican, an open question. Cromwell's title was "Lord Protector of the Commonwealth of England, Scotland, and Ireland." It was given to him first in the Instrument of Government (q.v.), and, after his refusal to accept the crown, confirmed by the Petition and Advice.

The discussions on the question of the titles of king and protector are to be found in Burton, "Parliamentary Diary." [C. H. F.]

Protestant Refugees in England. As soon as the Reformation was established in England this country became the principal resort for the oppressed Calvinists of the Low Countries and of western and northern France, just as Switzerland was for the central and southern provinces of France. The immigration began before the end of Henry VIII's reign; it received a powerful impulse through the policy which guided the ministers of Edward VI; and in 1550 a charter was granted to the Protestants settled in London, allowing them free exercise of their religion, and appointing the church of Austinfriars for the joint worship of Dutch, Walloons, and Huguenots. The whole community was placed under the superintendence of John A. Lasco, a devoted minister who had abandoned high preferment as a Catholic priest in Hungary in order to found a Protestant church at Emden, in East Friesland. Driven from his charge there, A. Lasco had sought refuge in England in 1548, and took an active part in securing public support for his fellow exiles. A few months after the establishment of the congregation of Austinfriars, the French-speaking portion of it—Huguenots and Walloons—separated to found a distinct church in Threadneedle Street, known as "The London Walloon Church"; in 1840 they removed to St. Martin's-le-Grand. Meanwhile colonies were being formed in other parts of England. The silk-weavers of Canterbury settled there as early as 1547, and from 1561 until the present day, although now their industry can hardly be said to exist, they have worshipped in the crypt of the cathedral. By 1575 colonies were in existence at the seaports of Southampton, Winchelsea, Rye, Dover, Sandwich, and Yarmouth; and inland at Glastonbury, Wandsworth, Maidstone, Colchester, Norwich, Thetford, and Stamford. All, or nearly all, of these had their own religious services. Other sporadic Walloon settlements appear to have existed at Buckingham, Stony Stratford, Newport Pagnell, and other places in the southern Midlands. In the first years of this immigration the Dutch and Walloon element seems to have greatly outnumbered the Huguenots. An account of the year 1567 reckons 2,993 Dutch to only 512 French within the City of London proper; but on the south coast the French appear to have prevailed almost exclusively. The success, however, of the Dutch in the resistance to Spanish rule soon put an end to the emigration from that quarter; and the issue of the Edict of Nantes (1598), which gave a legal status to the Calvinistic community in France, had the natural result of keeping the Huguenots at home. There was, therefore, a pause in the inflow into England until the fourth quarter of the seventeenth century. But the measures preliminary to the revocation of the Edict of Nantes (1685) had their effect in a great multiplication of the French settlements in England. Between 1686 and the beginning of the eighteenth century no fewer than thirty French churches sprang into existence in London and its immediate vicinity. Others arose at Bristol, Barnstaple, Bideford, Plymouth, Stonehouse, Dartmouth, and Exeter, at Faversham, at Thorpe-le-Soken in Essex, and in Edinburgh. A whole set of colonies was founded in Ireland, at Portarlington and Youghal, in Dublin (where the French had three churches), at Lisburn, Waterford, Cork, and other places. The last influx of Protestant refugees was that of the mixed multitude of French and Germans who were ejected from the Palatinate in 1709; several thousands of whom were received in England, and the majority, probably, sent on to America. Many of the English congregations named were from the beginning attached to the National Church; nearly all in time became so. The foreigners soon adapted themselves to English customs, and, although they experienced much opposition from native tradespeople, were able to exercise their handicrafts to the signal advantage of the country. There are few industries that have not benefited by the work of the immigrants. In particular may be mentioned those in silk (at Canterbury and Spitalfields), linen, cotton, wool, paper, beaver (at Wandsworth), sailcloth, glass, etc. The total number of those who settled in English territory after the revocation of the Edict of Nantes can hardly be short of 80,000.

J. Southerden Burn, "History of the Foreign Protestant Refugees settled in England," 1846; C. Weiss, "History of the French Protestant Refugees," bk. iii (English translation), 1854; D. C. A. Agnew, "Protestant Exiles from France in the Reign of Louis XIV," 2nd ed., 1871, etc.; R. L. Poole, "History of the Huguenots of the Dispersion," chs vii.—ix, 1880. [R. L. P.]

Provisors, The Statute of. The papal practice of "provision" gave rise to one of the most serious ecclesiastical abuses of the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries. Under pressure of financial necessity, created mainly by their strife with the Hohenstaufen, the popes adopted the expedient of appointing to English

benefices their own nominees and supporters, who were commonly foreigners, pluralists, and absentees. The abuse of "provisions" was accentuated by the system of "reservation," whereby the Curia secured in advance the disposal of livings. Thus Gregory IX in 1238 demanded the reservation to his use of the next three hundred English benefices to fall vacant. Although measures such as these aroused strong opposition in England, it was not until 1351 that a serious attempt to check the abuse was made. The passing of the Statute of Provisors marks the zenith of anti-papal sentiment. It declared invalid all appointments made by way of papal provision and ordered the arrest and detention of offenders against the law. Nevertheless the statute, like its better-known complement, Præmunire, was rarely put into effective execution. Provisions continued to be issued by the popes, appointing to English benefices, and Edward III himself set the example of disregarding his own laws by asking for the appointment of his ministers to bishoprics by way of papal provision.

Prussia, Relations with, began with the commercial and crusading intercourse between England and the Teutonic order. The towns of the old Prussian state were all Hanse towns, and the intimate dealings between England and the Hansa extended to Elbing, Danzig, and Riga. At last rising English commerce was checked by the exclusive system of the Hansa. At the end of the fourteenth century the quarrels between Prussian and English merchants led the Hochmeister in 1385 to confiscate all English merchants' goods. In 1388 an understanding was arrived at, but the desire of the English for more privileges involved constant disputes all through the fifteenth century. Despite this, crusading expeditions to help the Teutonic knights in their struggle against the heathen were not unfrequent. In 1352 Duke Henry of Lancaster took the cross, and in 1391 Thomas of Gloucester projected, and Henry of Bolingbroke accomplished, a crusade against the Lithuanians. Meanwhile relations with Brandenburg became friendly during the tenure of the Margravate by the Bavarian and later Luxemburg houses. The Reformation united Prussia and Brandenburg under the Hohenzollern. The acquisition of the Rhenish duchies brought the Prussian house into relations with James I and Charles I. The close connexion of the Hohenzollern with Holland, at first a cause of disunion with England, ultimately became a bond of connexion. The Great Elector's last act was to contribute powerfully to the Revolution of 1688 by sending his troops into Holland to invade England. He had felt himself threatened by James II's alliance with Louis XIV, and had strongly urged William to seize the English crown. Common alliance with Austria, common hostility to France, now united England and Prussia. Frederick I, the first king, married the sister of George I, Sophia Charlotte. His son, Frederick William I, married his cousin Sophia Dorothea, daughter of George I. Frederick William I for many years remained on good terms with England. In 1725 he signed the Treaty of Hanover; but later he secretly deserted the English for the Austrian alliance, and the double marriage project by which Prince Frederick of Wales was to marry Wilhelmina, the king's daughter, and his heir Frederick, the Princess Amelia of Hanover, was never carried out. The accession of George II hardly mended matters. He bore no goodwill to his brother-in-law, or to his nephew Frederick II, who became king in 1740. The Elector of Hanover feared the growing power of Prussia; yet so important was Prussia's help against France that British diplomacy did its utmost to compel Maria Theresa to acquiesce in Frederick's conquest of Silesia. During the Seven Years' War (q.v.) Frederick found in Great Britain his one important ally. His brilliant feats of strategy won him great popularity in Great Britain, where he was regarded, strangely enough, as the "Protestant hero." The accession of George III led, however, to Great Britain's sudden desertion of Prussia in a way that Frederick never forgave. His later policy of Russian alliance was largely the result of his conviction that no stable alliance could be formed with Great Britain. Frederick William II, however, found in Great Britain an ally, first against Austria and Russia, next in the intervention in Holland to restore the House of Orange, and lastly in the war against revolutionary France. But in 1796 Prussia concluded peace with France at Basel, and refused to join the second coalition of 1799; and delayed in 1805 to join the war until Austria was defeated and Prussia herself threatened by the French. After Jena Prussia was compelled by Napoleon to exclude British manufactures and join in his measures to reduce the power of his great enemy. The War of Liberation renewed the alliance between Prussia and Great Britain, and Blücher and Wellington destroyed Napoleon's last army at Waterloo. The Tory government, after the peace of 1815, found in Prussia a congenial ally, though it had to curb Prussian animosity towards post-war France. The refusal of Prussia to co-operate against Russia during the Crimean War, and its attacks on Denmark in order to restore Schleswig-Holstein to Germany, caused some discontent in Great Britain. But the sympathy felt for the power which alone could give unity to Germany, and the alliance between the royal houses, long sufficed to maintain a general friendliness. [Germany, Relations with.]

J. A. R. Marriott and C. G. Robertson, "Evolution of Prussia," 1915; W. F. Reddaway, "Frederick the Great and the Rise of Prussia," 1904; J. S. Headlam, "Bismarck," 1899; G. B. Malleson, "Refounding of the German Empire, 1848–71," 1893. [T. F. T.]

Prynne, William (1600–69), the Puritan pamphleteer, matriculated at Oxford in 1618, and entered at Lincoln's Inn in 1620. He was an untiring student of ecclesiastical and legal antiquities, a bitter Puritan, and a voluminous writer on controversial subjects. In 1632 he published a work entitled "Histriomastix," attacking the immorality of the stage, and containing words supposed to reflect on the queen. For this he was fined £5,000 by the Star Chamber; degraded from his degree and the practice of his profession; and sentenced to be pilloried and to lose both his ears (February 17, 1634). Again, in 1637, for attacking the bishops in his "News from Ipswich," he was sentenced to imprisonment for life (June 14, 1637). The Long Parliament released him, and declared these sentences illegal. He was most active in the prosecution of Laud, and was appointed one of the visitors of the university of Oxford. He was elected to parliament in 1648 as member for Newport (Cornwall), but as he opposed the king's trial, and considered his answers to the parliamentary propositions to offer grounds for a treaty, he was expelled by Pride's Purge (q.v.). In 1659 he exerted himself to procure the restoration of the "secluded members," and when readmitted, worked to bring about the king's return. In the discussions on the punishment of the regicides he was one of their severest opponents. In the debates on religion he supported the Presbyterian view. From 1660 to his death he was keeper of the records in the Tower.

"Documents relating to the Proceedings against Prynne," ed. S. R. Gardiner, 1877 (Camden Society).

Public Worship Regulation Act, The (1874), was introduced into the House of Lords by the Archbishop of Canterbury, and into the House of Commons by Russell Gurney. The object of the bill was to give parishioners a ready way of invoking the authority of the bishop, and to enable the bishop to prohibit by his own mandate any practices which he considered improper, or else to submit the question to a special court. All that was requisite to put this machinery in motion against any clergyman was that three of the parishioners, or one archdeacon or churchwarden, should declare themselves dissatisfied, and proceed to make use of the law. A new court was erected, to which was transferred all the authority of the Court of Arches, and at its head was placed Lord Penzance, as the first judge, who thus became the direct successor of the Dean of Arches. There was a very warm debate on the subject in both Houses. Lord Salisbury and Gladstone opposed it with great vehemence as destructive of the independence of the Church. Disraeli and Sir William Harcourt stood forward as its most prominent champions. The act has not been successful. [High Church.]

Pucklechurch is a village of Gloucestershire, a few miles north-east from Bristol. It was a royal vill in Anglo-Saxon times, and there, in 946, King Edmund was stabbed by a robber named Liofa, while keeping the feast of St. Augustine of Canterbury.

Pulteney, William, Earl of Bath (1682–1764), entered the House of Commons (1705) and distinguished himself on the Whig side during the last years of Anne's reign, having contracted a friendship with Walpole. On the accession of George I, Pulteney became one of the secretaries of state. In the political language of the day he, Stanhope, and Walpole were known as the three "grand allies." When Walpole's quarrel with Stanhope resulted in his retirement from office, Pulteney followed his patron (1717). When Walpole became supreme in 1721 Pulteney naturally expected a position in the cabinet. Instead, a peerage was offered him. In disgust he joined the opposition (1725), and in conjunction with Bolingbroke brought out the *Craftsman*, a journal in which Walpole was bitterly attacked. In 1728 he conducted a vigorous assault on Walpole's sinking fund, without much success; but his speech against Walpole's excise scheme was more successful, and the minister was obliged to withdraw the obnoxious measure. Pulteney's name had previously been struck off the list of privy councillors. He supported the Prince of Wales in opposition to the king and Walpole. In 1740 he was one of those who seceded from the House—an unwise step which he attempted in vain to excuse. In 1741 he conducted that last grand attack on Walpole's foreign policy which drove him from office. Pulteney, however, declined to form a ministry, and retired into the Upper House as Lord Bath. He gradually sank into insignificance, and his popularity waned. In 1743 his friends succeeded in persuading him to come forward as candidate for the premiership in opposition to Pelham; he failed, however, although supported by the splendid talents of Carteret. In 1746 he and Granville (Carteret) were commissioned by the king to form a ministry. This, the "Forty hours' Ministry," was an egregious failure, and the Pelhams returned to power. Long before his death Pulteney had become altogether forgotten by the political world. His talents were considerable, and his public life was on the whole respectable, and marked by uprightness and integrity; but he was somewhat wanting in steadfastness of purpose and discretion. Besides some poems which were highly praised by Pope, Pulteney was the author of several vigorous political pamphlets. [L. C. S.]

Punjab is the district lying about the five rivers, the tributaries of the Indus. It was inhabited by a half-religious, half-military community, the Sikhs, or Akalees. Their commonwealth or "khalsa" was divided into fraternities called *misils*, the chief of each of which was the leader in war and arbiter in time

of peace. Of these chiefs twelve were deemed the foremost in rank. From 1806 to 1839 Ranjit Singh (q.v.) ruled all the Punjab. Six years of anarchy followed, and then, in 1845, war broke out with the British, whose victory involved cessions and submission (1846). The Sikh indignation at this humiliation produced the second Sikh War (q.v.), ending in the annexation of the Punjab (1849). It was placed under a board of commissioners, but its government has since been assimilated to that of the other provinces.

Cunningham, "History of the Sikhs"; J. McDouie, "The Punjab, North-West Frontier Provinces and Kashmir," 1916.

Puritans, The. During the course of the English Reformation a difference sprang up between the moderate reformers and those who wished to make the forms and ceremonies of religious worship as simple as possible. Besides, "the English bishops" (writes Fuller under the date 1564) "conceiving themselves empowered by their canons, began to show their authority in urging the clergy of their dioceses to subscribe to the liturgy, ceremonies, and discipline of the Church: and such as refused the same were branded with the odious name of 'Puritans.'" Up to about 1570 the question at issue between the Elizabethan Puritans and the authorities of the Church was a question of ritual. After that date the institution of Episcopacy was attacked, especially by Cartwright (q.v.), on the ground of the apostolic ordination of Presbyterianism, and the question of church government added to the former cause of division. Thus was founded the Presbyterian section of the Puritan party. The first Puritans were anxious to remain within the national Church and reform it after their own ideas. But from the first attempt to enforce conformity some of them began to form separate conventicles. In June 1567 a company of more than 100 were seized at worship in Plummers' Hall, London, and fourteen or fifteen sent to prison. This is "the first instance of actual punishment inflicted on Protestant Dissenters" (Hallam). Later in the reign a sect arose, called—from their leader, Robert Browne—Brownists (q.v.) (or Separatists), holding that each congregation was in itself a complete church, denying that the State or any assembly of the clergy had any right to control it, and proclaiming the duty of separation from the national Church. This was the origin of the Independent section of the Puritan party. [Congregationalism.] The result of the spread of these views was the act of 1573, enacting imprisonment, banishment, and death as penalties for Nonconformity.

The demands of the Puritan clergy were expressed in the Millenary Petition (q.v.) presented to James I in 1603, and at the Hampton Court Conference (q.v.—1604). They asked for certain definite alterations in the ritual, for a preaching ministry, and for the amendment of the articles in a Calvinistic direction. They wished to maintain uniformity in ritual and in doctrine, but to change the characters of both. After the rejection of their demands, conformity to the existing order was enforced, and about 300 of the Puritan clergy were ejected from their livings, as many had been expelled by Whitgift during the previous reign. English Puritanism in the earlier part of the seventeenth century continued to adhere more and more exclusively to Calvinistic doctrine, and by the mouth of the House of Commons to demand the suppression of the opposite views. One of the resolutions passed by that body on March 2, 1629, declared that "whosoever shall bring in innovation in religion, or by favour seek to extend or introduce Popery or Arminianism or other opinions disagreeing from the true and orthodox Church, shall be reputed a capital enemy to this kingdom and the commonwealth." During the same period questions of ritual and ceremonial became of less importance in Puritan teaching, and the demand for a purer morality and a reformed life more and more its characteristics. The number of Puritans within the Church increased. Baxter describes them thus: "Most men seemed to mind nothing seriously, but the body and the world. . . . The other sort were such as had their consciences awakened to some regard of God and their everlasting state; and according to the various measures of their understanding, did speak and live as serious in the Christian faith, and would much inquire what was duty and what was sin, and how to please God; and made this their business and interest, as the rest did the world." Under the government of Charles I and Laud a series of measures was directed against the Puritans. Controversial preaching was silenced by a royal proclamation, so that the doctrines at issue between the two parties in the Church could not be freely discussed, the lectureships were suppressed, and writers against the hierarchy or the Prayer Book severely punished. The summoning of the Long Parliament at length gave the Puritans the ascendancy, and they set to work to carry out their ideas on Church reform. The Grand Remonstrance (q.v.) set forth their programme. They wished (1) to reduce within bounds the "exorbitant power" of the prelates; (2) to unburden the consciences of men of needless and superstitious ceremonies, suppress innovations, and take away the monuments of idolatry; (3) to effect this intended reformation, a synod of British divines, "assisted with some from foreign parts professing the same religion," was to be assembled to discuss and submit to the confirmation of parliament the necessary measures. At the same time they meant to maintain uniformity of doctrine and discipline. "We hold it requisite that there should be throughout the whole realm a conformity to that order which the laws enjoin according to the Word of God." To carry out these views the Presbyterian system of church government was established in England, and a new Prayer Book and Confession of Faith drawn up, two or three thousand

of the clergy were ejected from their livings, and a severe law passed against all heretics and sectaries. But the Independent section of the Puritan party, the successors of the Separatists, defended the cause of toleration and congregational government, purged the parliament, put a stop to the assembly of divines, and finally dissolved both. The advanced section of the Independents would have abolished altogether an established Church. Cromwell, however, was determined to carry out a more conservative policy; "his definite ideal had come to be a State Church that should comprehend Presbyterians, Independents, Baptists and pious men of all sound evangelical sects with an ample toleration of dissent round about it." This ideal he carried out during the Protectorate. After his death, when the secluded members had been readmitted to sit in parliament, Presbyterian government was re-established (March 1660), and the Restoration found it in possession. Charles had promised a liberty for tender consciences, and led the Presbyterians to hope for their comprehension within the Church establishment. Negotiations for that purpose were carried on, and a conference took place at the Savoy (1661) (q.v.), but attempts at a compromise failed, and the Act of Uniformity (q.v.) was passed (May 1662). About 2,500 of the Puritan clergy were deprived of their livings in consequence of this change. Those who conformed and remained within the Church formed the Low Church party, those who now definitely separated themselves from it, the Nonconformist, or Dissenting party.

Neal, "History of the Puritans"; T. H. Green, "Lectures on the Puritan Revolution," 1888 and 1912; H. O. Wakeman, "The Church and the Puritans," 1889; G. B. Tatham, "The Puritans in Power, 1640–60," 1913; St. John D. Seymour, "The Puritans in Ireland, 1647–61," 1921.

[C. H. F.]

Purveyance. "Purvey" is but another form of "provide." Purveyance, in its general sense, was the obligation believed to be of immemorial antiquity, imposed upon all people of the country-side through which the king was making progress, of providing him and his multitudinous following with the means of support and conveyance, at prices fixed by the royal officers, and paid, if paid at all, in tallies, the value of which was to be deducted from the next taxes that the several victims of the exaction would have to pay. Reduced to particulars, it meant the right of buying for, and the duty of selling goods to, the king in preference to any other purchaser (called pre-emption), the power of demanding personal services, horses, and carts, and everything else that the case needed, from those of the neighbourhood who could give them, at whatever cost of damage, loss, and inconvenience, with no chance of ever being adequately paid, and little of ever being paid at all. No irregular royal right was of greater antiquity, better established, or of longer continuance. We can trace it by the efforts to correct its evils from the Great Charter (arts. 28–31) till the Civil Wars, [by way of the Articuli super Cartas (1300), the Ordinances of 1311, the statutes of Edward III's reign (notably that of 1362), and the Commons' Petition of 1604], and it was undoubtedly much older than the Charter. Even in its warranted use it was specially oppressive in England; the very eagerness of our best kings to do their work well, by keeping them constantly travelling from place to place, aggravated its hardships. But its nature lent it readily to abuse; it was accordingly grossly abused, and most galling its abuses were. Not only were the purveyors outrageously unjust, dishonest, and unfeeling, making, as an authority states, every old woman tremble for her poultry till the king had gone by, and perverting their office to their own enrichment, but the son or servant of the king was counted as the king himself, and every other colourable pretext for making the requisition was seized without scruple. It was, moreover, construed into a claim to call upon whole counties for supplies of beef, pork, and corn, on great state occasions. Purveyance was, therefore, odious in itself; and it loaded the Crown with a heavy burden of unpopularity. No grievance provoked so much legislation; it is prominent in every remedial movement and measure for centuries; we are told that not fewer than thirty-six statutes were passed to restrain it, ten in Edward III's reign alone. Yet its legality was always admitted, nor was there ever any thought of removing the "accursed prerogative" itself, as Archbishop Islip called it. The curtailing legislation was not altogether useless; after 1362, when Edward III enacted that purveyance should provide for the personal needs of the king and queen only, and that purveyors should change their name to buyers, its abuses seem to have been less grievous. In process of time, however, an abundant crop of new ones had grown round it; of these the Commons' Petition, in 1604, gives a detailed account that shows a wonderful ingenuity on the part of the purveyors and cart-takers in working the prerogative for their own benefit, and to the oppression and vexation of the people. Bacon told the king that their practices were "the most common and general abuse of all others in the kingdom." It was then proposed to compound the right for an annual payment of £50,000, but the proposal fell through. Two years later the king pruned away the worst of the evils by proclamation; and the rage against the officials subsided. In 1610 a surrender of the right by the Crown was almost arranged by Cecil in the bargain known as the Great Contract, but broke down with the collapse of that negotiation. It was discontinued, however, with the relics of feudalism, at the fall of the monarchy, and was not restored with its restoration. In 1660 purveyance was formally abolished by the convention of that year, [though a statute of 1661 revived it in part by declaring that the king, when travelling,

could requisition horses and carts at a fair price specified].

W. Stubbs, "Constitutional History"; S. R. Gardiner, "History of England, 1603–42," 1884; W. S. McKechnie, "Magna Carta," 1905 and 1914.
[J. R.]

Pusey, Edward Bouverie (1800–82), was born at Pewsey (Wilts) and educated at Eton and Christ Church. He became a fellow of Oriel College in 1823, where he was closely associated with Keble and Newman (q.v.). In November 1828 he was appointed Regius Professor of Hebrew at Oxford by the Duke of Wellington, then prime minister, and at the same time became a canon of Christ Church. He joined Newman in the series of "Tracts for the Times" (1833), and threw himself into the religious revival with an energy which soon converted the tracts into doctrinal treatises, won for the movement the nickname "Puseyism," and caused Pusey in 1836 to oppose the appointment of Dr. R. D. Hampden (q.v.). He gradually became the leader of the Oxford Revival, and in June 1843 was suspended for two years from his office of preacher at the University on account of his sermon on the Eucharist. When Newman was received into the Roman Church in 1845 Pusey definitely became the chief guide of the revival. He founded Anglican sisterhoods in London, Devonport, Oxford, and elsewhere (1845–50), maintained his Tractarian principles against all opposition, particularly during the crisis of the "Papal Aggression" in 1850, and began later a campaign of opposition to Latitudinarianism (1852), which culminated in his attack on Benjamin Jowett in 1862. In 1865 he published a letter to Keble on "The Church of England a Portion of Christ's one holy Catholic Church, and a means of restoring visible Unity: an Eirenicon," pleading for reunion between the Churches of England and Rome. It was followed by a second (1867) and third Eirenicon (1869) in reply to Newman's retorts. But his efforts failed, along with his endeavours to secure reunion with the Wesleyans (1874–5), though he remained active until his death on September 16, 1882.

Biographies by Johnston and Wilson, 1893–4, and E. B. Pusey, 1900. [A. C. F. B.]

Pym, John (1584–1643), descended from a good Somersetshire family, and educated at Broadgates Hall, Oxford, early obtained a responsible office in the exchequer, and entered parliament in 1614 as member for Calne. In the second parliament of Charles I he was one of the managers of Buckingham's impeachment, and in the third he took a prominent part in the debates on the Petition of Right (q.v.). In 1640 he was naturally pointed out to head the popular party, and the great speeches in which he summed up their grievances were widely circulated amongst the people. He moved the impeachment of Strafford, drew up with the aid of St. John the charges against him, and was the chief manager of his trial. The Bill of Attainder was forced on him by the extreme party amongst his followers, and Pym did his best to give the proceedings a judicial form. Not only was he a very able debater and parliamentary tactician, but he had what Clarendon terms "a very comely and grave way of expressing himself." He was a strong Presbyterian, though not at first disposed to go the length of the Root-and-Branch (q.v.) party, and it was probably on account of this relative moderation that it was at one time intended by the king to offer him the post of chancellor of the exchequer. The Protestation and the Grand Remonstrance (q.v.), two appeals to the people, were particularly his work. The influence which he exercised gained him from the Royalists the name of "King Pym," and marked him out for impeachment on the charge of treasonable correspondence with the Scots and attempting to subvert the fundamental laws of the kingdom, brought against him by the king in January 1642. After the refusal of the guarantees demanded by parliament, Pym became a leading member of the Committee of Safety (July 4, 1642). He was practically the head of the government, and unceasingly active in directing the conduct of the war and maintaining the spirit of resistance in city and parliament. He was excepted from pardon in the king's proclamations, and exposed both to the slanders of the Royalists and to many accusations from the discontented of his own party. But he retained the confidence of the parliament to the last, and a month before his death they conferred on him the important post of lieutenant-general of the ordnance of the kingdom. His last important work was to bring about the alliance with the Scots. He died on December 8, 1643, and was buried in Westminster Abbey. Clarendon thus describes his position in 1640: "He seemed to all men to have the greatest influence upon the House of Commons of any man; and, in truth, I think he was at that time, and for some months after, the most popular man, and the most able to do hurt, that hath lived in any time."

C. E. Wade, "John Pym," 1912. [C. H. F.]

Pyrenees, The Battles of the (July 25–August 2, 1813), fought during the closing period of the Peninsular War, were a series of combats which resulted in the defeat of Soult's attempt to relieve San Sebastian. In July Soult had been sent to supersede Joseph. On the 25th and 26th General Cole was vigorously attacked by Soult at Roncesvalles, and only just managed to maintain his position until Picton and Campbell arrived, while, at Maya, Stewart was all but driven from the pass, after losing two successive positions. Wellington, on returning from San Sebastian, heard of these combats at Imeta, and at once gave orders for all the troops to concentrate in communication with the force at Pamplona. The retreat of the troops was successfully accomplished. On the

28th a combat took place at Sorauren, where Wellington, with very inferior numbers, held a strong position against the attacks of Soult. On the 30th Hill was attacked at Buenza in a difficult position, and his position was turned; but in the meantime Wellington had assaulted and taken Sorauren and had thrown the French who were engaged against him into hopeless confusion. Soult's position had become desperate, and it was necessary to retreat. In the narrow passes he with difficulty escaped being surrounded and losing his whole army. During nine days' fighting the allies had lost 7,300 men, while the French loss must have been quite double. Soult's army was rendered incapable of further action for the time being, and Wellington at once ordered Graham to renew the siege of San Sebastian.

Sir C. Oman, "Peninsular War," 1902–20.

Q

Quadruple Alliance, The (August 2, 1718), was the name given to the extension of the Triple Alliance of 1717 (q.v.) between Great Britain, France, and Holland by the adhesion of the emperor to its principles. A treaty was drawn up by the allied powers, with the main object of maintaining the European settlement effected by the Treaty of Utrecht (q.v.). With a few changes of detail the chief articles of the treaty were that Spain was to restore Sardinia to the emperor, and the King of Spain was to renounce his claim to succeed to the French crown; while the emperor renounced all claim to what had been guaranteed to Philip V by the Treaty of Utrecht. Philip was to renounce his claim to the Italian possessions of the emperor and to the Netherlands. The emperor was to be put in possession of Sicily, in return for which he was to give up Sardinia to the King of Sicily, who was to be confirmed in all the cessions made to him by the Treaty of Turin in 1703; while the emperor was to acknowledge the house of Savoy's right to succeed to the crown of Spain in case of the failure of Philip V's heirs. France and Great Britain promised to aid the emperor to acquire possession of Sicily; while the emperor and the French bound themselves to maintain the Protestant succession in England. The kings of Spain and Sicily were to be forced to submit to these terms, but were allowed three months' consideration. If any one of the mediating powers was attacked, the others should assist her. If both Spain and Sicily held out, Sardinia was to be first conquered, and then Sicily, of which two islands the former was to be put in the guardianship of Great Britain; and in case of this resistance on the part of these two powers, the emperor was allowed to recover the part of Milan ceded by the Treaty of Turin. When once in possession of Sicily the emperor was to give up all claim upon Spain and the Indies.

Quakers. [Friends, Society of.]

Quatre Bras, The Battle of (June 16, 1815), was an encounter between the left of the French army and the British advanced guard in the short campaign of 1815. Quatre Bras itself was merely a mass of farm-buildings situated at the point where the four main roads to Brussels, Nivelles, Charleroi, and Namur intersect. Napoleon's orders were that, while he attacked the Prussians at Ligny, on the 16th, Ney should simultaneously overwhelm the British force at Quatre Bras. The attacks began at three o'clock in the afternoon, and as evening wore on Ney became aware that no reinforcements could reach him; and at the same time fresh troops were arriving for the allies, among whom were two brigades of the Guards. As the attacks became feebler, Wellington ordered all the troops to advance. They at once drove the French before them, and carried every position which the French had won. Night had fallen, and the troops bivouacked on the field of battle. The reinforcements had given Wellington a numerical superiority over Ney; but the necessity of forming a connexion with Blücher, who was falling back from Ligny, compelled him to forgo the opportunity of attacking Ney on the 17th, and at ten o'clock next morning he began a retreat to the field of Waterloo.

J. W. Fortescue, "History of the British Army," vol. x, 1920; D. Gardner, "Quatre Bras, Ligny and Waterloo," 1882.

Quebec, The Province of, or Lower Canada, one of the original federating states of the Dominion of Canada (q.v.).

Quebec, The Capture of (September 13, 1759), was effected by General Wolfe (q.v.) during the campaign in America which formed part of the Seven Years' War. The idea of attacking Quebec, the capital of French Canada, was one of long standing with British ministers, and in 1711 an expedition was sent, but returned without being able to make its way through the channel of the St. Lawrence. The town, situated on a promontory of lofty rocks—the Heights of Abraham—was considered impregnable, and was defended by 13,000 French troops under the Marquis de Montcalm. He had so disposed his troops as to command the only dangerous position of assault, with the river and the sandbank in his front, and behind him heavy woods. Wolfe's force of 8,635 men, on board Admiral Saunders's fleet, succeeded in landing on the Isle of Orleans, before the city, by June 27, 1759. On the 29th Wolfe took possession of the headland of Pointe Levis, which faces Quebec. He opened fire on the city from his two batteries, while Montcalm remained for the most part on the defensive. On July 9 Wolfe carried his troops over to the left bank, while a squadron of British ships, passing farther up the river, maintained the

blockade. At last, being unable to induce Montcalm to move, Wolfe crossed the Montmorency, but was beaten back. Still the two other British armies failed to appear. To add to the other difficulties, Wolfe fell ill of a fever, and there were only between 3,000 and 4,000 effective men. On the night of September 12 Wolfe determined to attempt to scale the Heights of Abraham. In the darkness half his forces were carried across with the tide. Clambering up the precipice, they startled the French company guarding that part of the heights. Before Montcalm could muster his men, the British were at the back of Quebec. In the engagement that followed Wolfe was wounded, and died in the moment of victory. At the Tercentenary celebrations in 1908 the Plains of Abraham were converted into a national park.

R. Wright, "Memoirs of General Wolfe."

Quebec Act, The (1774), was passed at the instigation of Lord North, despite the opposition of Chatham and Burke, to conciliate as far as possible the French Canadians, and to secure their allegiance to Britain in the approaching war with America. This act restored the old French system, included in Canada the territory previously annexed to Newfoundland, extending its boundaries to the Ohio and the Mississippi, and established the Roman Catholic Church, to which the vast majority of the Canadians belonged. Further, it "confirmed the French Canadians in their possessions, their laws, and rights, on condition of their taking an oath of allegiance which was so worded as not to hurt the conscience of Roman Catholics." It also provided for the establishment of a legislative council, with authority over everything except taxation.

Queen is a word which originally meant no more than woman or wife, though it early came to be used for the wife of a king. Asser, after telling how Ethelwulf upon his return to England with his second wife, Judith, placed her upon a throne by his side, "contrary to the perverse custom" of the West Saxons, proceeds to explain that the evil deeds of Eadburh, wife of Beorhtric of Wessex, had caused the nobles of that kingdom to swear that they would not henceforth allow any king's wife to sit upon the throne beside her husband, or even to be called "queen" (*regina*). According to Freeman ("Norman Conquest"), this explains the fact that in Wessex the usual title for the king's wife was "lady," *hlæfdige*, though in Mercia "queen," *cwen*, was still used. From the time of Ethelred, however, a special form for the coronation of the queen appears in the rituals; Eadgyth, wife of the Confessor, is said by the chronicler to have been "hallowed to queen," though she is afterwards always spoken of as "lady"; and from the coronation of Matilda, wife of the Conqueror, onward, the title "queen" is always applied to the wife of the king. But it still carried with it the sense of king's *wife*, and this may, perhaps, explain the fact that the Empress Matilda, who claimed the crown in her own right, is never spoken of as "queen," or "regina," but in the chronicles appears as "empress," and in William of Malmesbury and a charter as "domina." On the other hand, Stephen's wife, Matilda, is spoken of as "the king's *cwen*."

Henry I's attempt to secure the accession of his daughter broke down, partly because the rule of a woman was unprecedented, and opposed alike to the old English theory of election and the new feudal spirit, but still more because of her marriage with the Count of Anjou, the hereditary enemy of the Normans. But till long afterwards there were doubts whether a queen could reign in England. The accession of Mary Tudor was secured alike by her father's will, authorized by act of parliament, and by the strong legitimist feeling of the country. To extinguish, however, "the doubt and folly of malicious and ignorant persons," a statute was passed declaring that a queen regnant has the same powers and prerogatives as a king. Mary, wife of William III, occupied a curious position, midway between that of queen consort and queen regnant, for while the Bill of Rights declared the Prince and Princess of Orange joint sovereigns, and her name accompanied his in all public documents, "the sole and full exercise of the regal power" was entrusted to the prince.

The mediæval queens consort of England usually possessed considerable estates separately administered, and had their own chancellors. In modern times they have had their attorneys- and solicitors-general, though the offices are merely nominal. Apparently even before the Conquest the queen consort received "queen gold" (*aurum reginæ*, probably the same as the *gersamma reginæ* of Domesday), i.e., one mark of gold for every one hundred marks of silver paid to the king in fines and the like. As there was no queen consort from the death of Henry VIII to the accession of James I, its payment was suspended, and Anne of Denmark never exacted it. In 1635 writs were again issued for levying it, but Charles afterwards bought the right from his wife for £10,000, and it was never enforced.

By the Act 25 Edward III it was rendered treason to compass or imagine the death of the queen, or to violate her, and in the latter case the queen herself, if consenting, was guilty of treason. For this offence Anne Boleyn was tried before the peers of parliament; Caroline, wife of George IV, was proceeded against in a like case by a bill of pains and penalties. The legal position of a queen consort is that of a *feme sole*, and not of a *feme covert*. She "is of ability to purchase lands and convey them, to make leases, to grant copyholds, and do the other acts of ownership (without the concurrence of her lord), which no other married woman until very recently could do. She may likewise sue and be sued alone without joining

her husband. She may also have a separate property in goods, as well as in lands, and she has a right to dispose of them by will" (Stephen). But though she can be sued, she is not liable to any amercement.

A queen dowager is not protected by the Statute of Treasons. An act is said to have been passed in the reign of Henry VI, though of this there is little evidence, rendering any person who dared to marry a queen dowager without special royal licence liable to the forfeiture of his lands and goods. No action, however, seems to have been taken when it was discovered that Lord Seymour of Sudeley had married Catherine Parr before leave was given. [W. J. A.]

Queen Anne's Bounty was instituted in 1703 for the relief of the poorer clergy. The tax known as first-fruits and tenths of livings on the Church (the surrender, that is, of the entire income of the first year of every ecclesiastical living, and the tenth part of the income of every subsequent year) had been originally imposed by the papacy, but had been transferred to the Crown by Henry VIII. Under Charles II the condition of the clergy was miserable in the extreme; their incomes hardly ever amounted to £100 a year—they were often less than £15. At this time the tax produced only £14,000 a year, and the king used it as a fund from which to pension his mistresses and their offspring. In 1697 Bishop Burnet presented to William III a plan for transferring the proceeds of the tax from the Crown to the poor clergy, but the king set it aside. The design was carried out in the next reign. On February 7, 1703, the day after the queen's birthday, Sir Charles Hedges, chancellor of the exchequer, announced to the House that her Majesty intended to make a grant of her whole revenue arising out of the first-fruits and tenths of livings, for the benefit of the poorer clergy. The project was warmly approved by the House, and a bill passed empowering the queen to incorporate such persons as she should select as trustees for her bounty. The measure passed through the Lords after some opposition. Various regulations have been made with reference to this fund since it was first handed over for the benefit of the clergy. Of these acts the principal are 2 and 3 Anne, c. 11, authorizing the queen to establish a corporation for the management of the fund, which was done the same year, the corporation consisting of archbishops, bishops, privy councillors, various law officers, the mayors of cities, *custodes rotulorum*, and lieutenants of counties, etc. By 1 Geo. I, c. 10, these trustees were allowed to examine witnesses on oath. £200 was to be invested for the increase of each living with a stipend of less than £10 a year: then those not exceeding £20. To every living under £45 a year the governors might make a grant of £200 on condition of a similar amount being raised from other sources. Fresh regulations were made in the Clergy Residences Repair Act of 1776 (17 Geo. III, c. 53). By 46 Geo. III, c. 133, £6,000 a year was granted for the augmentation of livings not exceeding £150 a year. By 28 and 29 Vict., c. 69, any five of the governors (three being archbishops or bishops) were constituted a quorum. Other statutes have allowed certain advances for repairing chancels, building parsonages, and other similar purposes. The act of 1776 was amended in 1911 by the Parsonages Act, under which the governors are empowered to lend money at not more than 4 per cent. for parsonages, etc., on mortgage of a benefice.

W. R. Le Fanu, "Queen Anne's Bounty," 1921.

Queen-gold (*Aurum Reginæ*) was a claim made by the queens of England on every tenth mark paid to the king on the renewal of leases on Crown lands or the granting of charters or payment of certain fines (e.g., those in lieu of military service)—matters of grace supposed to be obtained by the powerful intercession of the queen.

Queensberry, James Douglas, 2nd Duke of (1662–1711). [Douglas.]

Queensberry Plot, The (1703). In March 1703 Queen Anne granted a pardon to all Scottish political offenders who would take the oath to her government. Encouraged by this act of generosity several of the exiled adherents of the Stuarts availed themselves of this opportunity of returning to their own country for the purpose of stirring up sedition. Amongst those who took advantage of the new state of affairs was Lord Lovat. It soon got noised abroad that there was to be a great Highland gathering at Lochaber early in August, and people were not long in discovering or inventing a political meaning to this event. Lovat availed himself of the general feeling of disquietude to gratify a grudge which he had long held against Lord Atholl, the keeper of the privy seal. Having in his possession an unaddressed letter written by the Pretender's queen to some Scottish noble, he filled in the blank of the superscription with the name of Atholl, and then forwarded the document to the commissioner, the Duke of Queensberry. The latter nobleman, glad of an opportunity of ruining his colleague, sent on the letter unopened to the queen. Before long, however, Robert Ferguson, one of Lovat's friends, revealed the deceit, and the chief plotter had to fly to the continent. But as a result of his deception Queensberry had to quit office, and even then the effects of this movement were not all over. In December the queen informed the House of Lords in London that there were French emissaries stirring up rebellion in Scotland, and the House at once began to investigate the question on its own account, but without coming to any very definite result. In the meantime, however, the appointment of a committee of inquiry in the House of Lords

had wounded the feelings of the Scots, who naturally considered that such a question should be dealt with by their own privy council. At the same time the proceedings of the House of Lords had stirred up indignation nearer home. The Commons discovered in the action of the peers that this body was assuming powers of criminal inquiry which did not belong to it, and prayed the queen to give orders for the investigation to be carried on by her officers. Accordingly, when the Scottish parliament met in January 1704, the queen desired the privy council to ascertain how much truth there was in the suspected plot.

Queensferry Paper, The (June 1680), was found in the pocket of Henry Hall (*d.* 1680), one of the leading Covenanters in Scotland. He was captured at Queensferry, and the document found in his possession was read at the council board. It was a preliminary sketch of the more famous Declaration of Sanquhar (q.v.).

P. Hume Brown, "History of Scotland," 1911.

Queensland, one of the original states of the Commonwealth of Australia (q.v.).

Queenston, The Battle of (October 13, 1812), was fought on the shores of Lake Ontario between an invading force of Americans, and the British and Canadian forces led by Generals Brock and Sheaffe. The victory remained with the British, who, however, purchased it by the death of General Brock.

R. Johnson, "American War of 1812–15," 1883.

Quérouaille, Louise Renée de, Duchess of Portsmouth and Aubigny (1649–1734), came over to England in 1670 in the train of Henrietta of Orleans, the sister of Charles II. She shortly became the mistress of the king, who created her Duchess of Portsmouth (1673). She appears to have been friendly with Arlington, and to have long kept up a communication with the French ambassadors, being very anxious for the friendship between Louis XIV and Charles II to continue. Towards the close of the reign she became a strong partisan of the Exclusion Bill. A little later she became on good terms with the Duke of York, finding that he was willing to guarantee her £5,000 a year from the receipts of the post office. Next year (1682) she was mainly instrumental in securing Sunderland's recall to office, and in 1684 was one of the prime movers of the ruling ministers, Sunderland and Godolphin. When the king was seized with his fatal apoplectic stroke it was she who reminded the Duke of York that his brother was at heart a Catholic, and who thus succeeded in calling Francis to the royal deathbed. She returned to France in 1685. By Charles II she was the mother of Charles, Duke of Richmond; but her own title died with her.

H. N. Williams, "Rival Sultanas; Nell Gwyn, Louise de Kéroualle, etc," 1915; and biography by Mrs. Colquhoun Grant, 1909.

Quia Emptores (or Westminster III) is the name given to the statute enacted in 1290, which directed that in all future transfers of land the new tenant should hold the land not from the alienor, but from the next lord. Thus if B holding land from A transferred some of that land to C, C would hold it not from B but from A. In this way *sub-infeudation* was checked, but incidentally free *substitution* was made possible. The result of the measure was to set in motion a process by which in course of time the importance of merely tenurial principles were immensely decreased. By the gradual extinction of all mesne tenures the seignory of all freehold lands held in fee simple tended to become concentrated in the Crown. The consequence of the removal of restraints on alienation was to make land for the first time a marketable commodity in the full sense, and thus finally to destroy the rigidity of the feudal organization.

W. Stubbs, "Select Charters," ed. H. W. C. Davis, 1913; W. S. Holdsworth, "History of English Law," vol. iii, 1923.

Quiberon, The Expedition to (1795), was intended to assist the royalist insurgents of La Vendée and Brittany. After much delay the expedition, consisting largely of French royalist refugees, left England (June 16, 1795), and landed at the peninsula of Quiberon, near Carnac. Here they were joined by a large number of "Chouans" and irregular troops, commanded by the royalist generals de Puisaye and D'Hervilly. The little fort of Penthièvre was captured by these troops; but nothing more was done, owing to jealousies among the leaders. Meanwhile Hoche, the Republican general, had raised 10,000 troops, and managed to recapture the fort and shut the invaders up in the peninsula of Quiberon. They were then attacked by the Republicans, and cut to pieces or driven into the sea. About 3,500, with the leader, de Puisaye, escaped to the British vessels. The remainder were killed or taken captive. Of the prisoners 700 were shot by their captors after the fighting was over.

Quiberon Bay, The Battle of (November 20, 1759), was fought between the British and French fleets during the Seven Years' War (q.v.). Sir Edward Hawke had been engaged during the summer of 1759 in blockading the French fleet, which lay at Brest under de Conflans; and when, in November, he was forced to stand off, the French admiral seized his opportunity to sally forth in the hope of overpowering a few British frigates that were cruising about under Captain Duff, before Hawke could come up to their aid, and to transport 18,000 troops from the Morbihan to Scotland. In this plan, however, de Conflans was unsuccessful, and the united British fleets drove the French—to whom they were slightly superior in numbers (23 to 21)—back from the point of Quiberon to coast near the mouth of the Vilaine. The French ships were drawn up close to a shore

rocky and set with islands. Shoals and quicksands rendered their position still more dangerous to attack. Nevertheless, Hawke determined on an engagement, and refused to listen to the representations of his pilot. The battle resulted in a decisive victory for the British, who lost only forty men and two ships, and by night two French ships had struck, four had been sunk, and the others had drawn up the Vilaine. In return for this victory, which relieved Britain from all fear of invasion, and shattered the French naval power for a time, a pension of £2,000 a year was conferred upon Admiral Hawke.

W. L. Clowes, "Royal Navy," vol. iii, 1898.

Quo Warranto Commissions were issued by Edward I to his justices for the purpose of inquiring by what warrant local magnates were administering royal justice in their franchises. They were continued at intervals for a period which extended into the reign of Edward III. The records of their proceedings are embodied in a collection of pleadings published (1818) under the title of "Placita de Quo Warranto." The inquiry was not entirely a novel thing. Writs of *Quo Warranto* had been in use since the time of Richard I, and we have records of inquiries of a similar nature to the above made by the justices of Henry III. But the elaborate and efficient measures taken by Edward I have given the series of inquiries inaugurated by him a special place in the history of English local jurisdiction. On his arrival in England in 1274 he ordered a general investigation into the usurpation of royal jurisdiction in his private courts. The material collected by this commission is embodied in the Hundred Rolls. Armed with the information so obtained, the justices set out on their *Quo Warranto* itinerary to challenge the claims of all whose jurisdiction might be questioned. The theory employed by the king's council in disputed cases was that of Bracton: peace and justice belong to the Crown; where no express grant of a franchise can be shown, the claimants may be presumed to have usurped it. It is obvious that if such a theory were pressed hard, opposition would be likely to be met from the lords of local courts, since with many an old-established franchise there was no certain foundation other than its exercise beyond the memory of man. For these no charters could be shown, and the royal justices aroused considerable resentment among those whose privileges were imperilled. There is the well-known story of Earl Warenne, who produced an old and rusty sword, and said to the justices, "This is my warrant! My ancestors, who came over with the Conqueror, won their lands by the sword, and by the sword I will defend them against all usurpers." Whatever may be the authenticity of this story, the earl, like his fellow-magnates, fought hard at law to preserve his jurisdictions. It seems probable that the royal claims were not so hardly pressed as tradition has declared. In some cases immemorial possession was allowed as sufficient justification for a claim. But to meet opposition the king in 1290 struck a compromise in the two Statutes of Gloucester, which allowed that uninterrupted possession from the beginning of Richard I's reign should constitute a title. Those who could exercise this plea and had already lost their franchises in the course of the proceedings were to have restitution. As a matter of fact, very few franchises were abolished. "In almost every case where a liberty was found to be unwarranted, the king was willing, for a substantial fine, to restore it to its late holder and give him a charter." There must have been satisfaction among both parties when the original ill-feeling had passed. For the king's part, his exchequer had profited and he had put a check upon the unlicensed assumption by private persons of the royal jurisdiction. The law was now perfectly clear. On the other hand, the holders of franchises could feel more secure in their possession, since it was now only necessary to show that the lawful employment of jurisdiction was established either by charter or by prescription.

Maitland, "Select Pleas in the Manorial Courts" (Introduction); H. M. Cam in *History*, July 1926.

[A. V. J.]

R

Rabbling the Curates was the name given to the expulsion of Episcopalian clergymen from the south-west of Scotland by the Cameronians in 1689–90. There seems to have been comparatively little mob violence. Cameronian committees were formed to superintend the ejectment, and formal notices to quit were sent to the curates. A subsequent act of the Scottish parliament legalized these proceedings by declaring the parishes vacant.

The expulsion is described in the Cameronian pamphlet, "Faithful Contendings Displayed."

Radcliffe, James, 3rd Earl of Derwentwater (1689–1716), was a grandson of Charles II by his mistress, Moll Davis (q.v.). He was a Roman Catholic, and deeply implicated in the rebellion of 1715, for which he was tried and executed in the following year, at the early age of twenty-eight.

Biography by C. H. Bowden, 1897.

Radcliffe, Thomas, 3rd Earl of Sussex (1526 ?–1583), though inclined to Catholicism, was a faithful and honourable counsellor and affectionate kinsman of Elizabeth. He was made, on his father's death in 1556, lord deputy of Ireland, where he distinguished himself by his energetic government. He became an active servant of Elizabeth, and on his recall from Ireland (1567), where he had quarrelled with Sir Henry Sidney, was sent to Vienna to

try to arrange the conditions of the queen's marriage with the Archduke Charles. On his return to England he became president of the Council of the North (1568), and was one of the commissioners at York for the inquiry into the murder of Darnley. Sussex afterwards advocated the marriage of the Scottish queen with the Duke of Norfolk, and on that account was supposed by the confederate earls to be favourable to their cause. He remained loyal, however, and as president of the North took part in suppressing the rebellion of 1569, though he incurred the charge of lack of energy. He was one of the few peers who were in favour of the Alençon marriage, and in his capacity as lord chamberlain seems to have exercised a good deal of influence at court. He was a man of blunt and straightforward character, a good soldier, but not much of a courtier.

Radcot Bridge, The Battle of (December 20, 1387), was a skirmish on the upper Thames near Faringdon, between de Vere, Duke of Ireland, the favourite of Richard II, and the baronial forces under Gloucester and Derby (afterwards Henry IV). De Vere, finding himself out-numbered, fled, and his men surrendered after a slight skirmish. The result of this defeat was to place the king entirely at the mercy of Gloucester and the other lords appellant.

Radical. The exact origin of this term as applied to a political party is unknown; possibly it was derived from a speech delivered by Fox in 1797, wherein he declared that "radical reform" was necessary. The word seems to have come into general use about 1816, and was applied to persons agitating on behalf of extreme measures of parliamentary reform. The best account of the early character of the movement is given by the weaver Samuel Bamford ("Passages in the Life of a Radical"). Describing a meeting of representatives from several "Hampden Clubs," he says, "Resolutions were passed declaratory of the right of every male to vote who paid taxes; that males of eighteen should be eligible to vote; that parliaments should be elected annually; that no placeman or pensioner should sit in parliament; that every twenty thousand inhabitants should send a member to the House of Commons. It was not until we became infested by spies, incendiaries, and their dupes, that physical force was mentioned among us." The most important leaders of the party were "Orator" Hunt, Cobbett, and Major Cartwright. It was also patronized by Sir Francis Burdett. Some of the extreme Radicals, however, seem to have planned an armed movement; and the action of the government and public fear caused the terms Radical and rioter to be used as synonymous. Brougham said in 1819, "The Radicals have made themselves so odious, that a number even of our own way of thinking would be pleased enough to see them and their vile press put down at all hazards." During the struggle over the Reform Bill of 1832 the term began to be adopted by some comparatively moderate parliamentary advocates of reform. In the parliaments which followed they numbered from fifty to seventy, including Grote, Molesworth, Roebuck, Joseph Hume, etc. Henceforth the term came to indicate little more than an advanced Liberal; and after the Reform Bill of 1867 was often used as a scornful designation for the whole Liberal party.

For the early Radical movement, besides Bamford, see J. B. Daly, "Dawn of Radicalism," 1892; C. B. R. Kent, "English Radicals," 1889; W. P. Hall, "British Radicalism, 1791–7," 1912; W. Harris, "History of the Radical Party in Parliament, 1766–1867," 1885.

Raffles, Sir Thomas Stamford (1781–1826), colonial administrator and naturalist, was the son of a naval captain. He became a clerk in the India House, and was appointed in 1805 assistant-secretary to the company's establishment at Penang. His ability brought him under the notice of Lord Minto, to whom he suggested the conquest of Java from the Dutch. This island he administered as lieutenant-governor from 1811 to 1816. From 1818 to 1824 he was lieutenant-governor of Benkullen in Sumatra, and succeeded in establishing the settlement at Singapore. In Java and in Sumatra he emancipated the slaves, and introduced many reforms.

Biographies by J. A. B. Cook, 1918; and R. Coupland, 1926.

Raglan, Fitzroy Somerset, 1st Baron (1788–1855). [Somerset.]

Ragman Rolls, The, are a collection of documents recording the homage performed by the Scottish barons and clergy to Edward I on his progress through Scotland in 1296. They are a most important source of information upon the condition of Scotland in the fourteenth century. The Bannatyne Club published the documents in full in 1834.

Railways and Railway Legislation. The first public British railway, as distinct from the tram-lines of colliery owners, was authorized by act of parliament in 1801. The railway was for goods and mineral traffic, and connected Croydon and Reigate with the Thames at Wandsworth. In 1814 an application was made to parliament for power to construct a railway for coals and goods, to be worked by animal power or stationary engines, between Stockton and Darlington. The bill became law in 1821. In 1823 George Stephenson was appointed engineer of the company, and at his suggestion the company obtained parliamentary powers to use locomotive engines and to carry passengers. In 1825 the Liverpool and Manchester Railway was authorized; it was opened in 1830. The dates of the acts incorporating some of the other great undertakings are:—London and Birmingham (afterwards London and North-Western), 1833; London and Southampton

(nucleus of the South-Western), 1834; Great Western, 1835; South-Eastern, 1836; Great Northern, 1846. The first general Railway Regulation Act, passed in 1840 and modified in 1842 and 1871 by the Regulation of Railways Acts, empowered the board of trade to inspect all passenger railways before their opening, and to require returns of railway traffic, accidents, and rates. But a more important act was passed in 1844 (7 & 8 Vict., c. 85). This provided that the board of trade might revise the rates charged by any line when its clear annual profits exceeded 10 per cent.; it also secured to the State the option of purchasing any line opened after 1844 after twenty-one years from its completion. This act also introduced "Parliamentary trains"—i.e., it enacted that along every line one train each way must be run on every week-day at a speed of at least twelve miles per hour, carrying passengers at one penny per mile. In 1846 the "battle of the gauges" was decided by the enforcement by law of a uniform gauge of 4 ft. 8½ in., except in those districts served by the existing broad gauge (Great Western) system. In 1854 the Railway and Canal Traffic Act compelled the companies to give reasonable facilities for the receipt and forwarding of traffic transferred from one line to another, and prohibited the giving of undue preferences to particular customers.

The Railway and Canal Traffic Act of 1873 set up a Railway Commission of three members, two being legal and one a railway expert, for the settlement of disputes between the companies or a company and the public. The act of 1888 set up beside this commission an administrative tribunal in the shape of the board of trade. The Railway Regulation Act of 1893 (56 & 57 Vict., c. 29) conferred important powers on the board of trade in revising the hours of labour of railway employees; while the Prevention of Accidents Act of 1900 made important provisions in another direction. During the Great War the British railways were placed under State control, private ownership being restored, however, after the peace. Since then the number of railway companies has been reduced by amalgamation to four.

J. H. Clapham, "Early Railway Age," 1926; W. M. Acworth, "Railways of England," 1900; L. Knowles, "Commercial and Industrial Revolutions," 1921; Reports of Royal and Parliamentary Commissions of 1865–7, 1872, 1881–2, 1889–90, 1891–2, 1903; A. E. Chapman, "Guide to Railway Law," 1913 and 1921.

Rainsborough, Thomas (*d.* 1648), was one of the Parliamentary soldiers who took part under Cromwell in the storming of Bristol, where, according to Cromwell's own account, he "had the hardest task of all." In 1648 he was appointed admiral, but the fleet mutinied and set him ashore. In October 1648 he was assassinated in his lodgings at Doncaster by a party of Royalists who had sallied from Pontefract Castle.

Raipur Ghaut, The Treaty of (December 24, 1805), terminated the war between the East India Company and Jeswunt Rao Holkar (q.v.), who regained all his territories, but was obliged to renounce his claims to Bundi and Rampu and accept the Chumbul as his northern boundary.

Ralegh, Sir Walter (1552?–1618), was the son of Walter Ralegh of Hayes Barton, Devonshire. In 1578 he accompanied his half-brother, Sir Humphrey Gilbert, on a voyage of discovery to Newfoundland, which proved unsuccessful. In 1580 Ralegh obtained military employment in Ireland, where he distinguished himself by his ruthless severity, and took part in the massacre of the Smerwick garrison (q.v.). For his services he received 12,000 acres of the Desmond land, and it was upon these that he first planted the potato in 1596. In 1584 he was knighted. In the same year he obtained a charter for the colonization of any lands not held by a Christian prince, and sent three expeditions to America, but the colony which had received the name of Virginia had to be abandoned in 1590. After taking an active part in the defence of the country against the Armada, he voyaged to Guiana to find El Dorado in 1595, accompanied Essex to the capture of Cadiz in 1596, and joined in the expedition to the Azores in the following year. On the accession of James I he was dismissed from court. He was shortly afterwards charged with complicity in Lord Cobham's plot in favour of Lady Arabella Stuart, was found guilty of treason and sentenced to death. The true history of the plot can scarcely be recovered, but it seems certain that Ralegh was guilty of nothing more than vague talk. The sentence of death was not carried into effect, however, and Ralegh remained a prisoner in the Tower for twelve years, occupying himself in writing his "History of the World." In 1617 he was released, in order to conduct an expedition to Guiana in search of gold, but the gold mine remained undiscovered, and Ralegh returned to England in 1618. He was badly received by James, who, disappointed at the ill success of the expedition, declared his intention of punishing those who had committed acts of violence "against his dear brother of Spain." Ralegh was executed on his old sentence (October 29, 1618).

E. Edwards, "Life and Letters of Raleigh," 1868; Sir J. Pope-Hennessy, "Raleigh in Ireland," 1883; Sir R. H. Schomburgk, "Raleigh's 'Discovery of Guiana,'" 1848; biographies by W. Stebbing, 1891; Martin Hume, 1897 and 1926; Sir J. R. Rodd, 1904; Milton Waldman, 1928; also T. N. Brushfield, "Bibliography of Ralegh," 1908.

Ramillies, The Battle of (May 23, 1706), was the second of Marlborough's great victories in the War of the Spanish Succession. Both Marlborough and Villeroi, the French commander, were eager for a battle, and the armies met near Ramillies, between Namur and Louvain. Villeroi's right wing was composed

of the household troops, while his left, which he considered sufficiently protected by the swamp created by a stream (the Little Geete), consisted only of a single line of infantry backed by cavalry. Marlborough made a feint of attacking the left; Villeroi was at once deceived, and withdrew troops from his right to strengthen it. Then the main body of the British and Dutch attacked the French extreme right, which was also taken in the flank by the Danish cavalry, which had galloped round unperceived. Thus the French position was turned, and now the main body was attacked. After a hard struggle the household troops retreated. The difficulties caused by the baggage wagons in the rear created a panic, and the whole army fled in the direction of Brussels. Many towns at once surrendered, and before the end of the year the only places of importance held by the French in the Netherlands were Mons and Namur.

J. W. Fortescue, "History of the British Army," vol. i, 1889.

Ramnagar, The Battle of (November 22, 1848). At the beginning of the second Sikh war the British army, under Lord Gough, attacked Shere Singh (q.v.) at Ramnagar on the Chenab. His position, however, was too strong to storm; and many lives were lost in a charge of the dragoons to clear the Sikhs from the dry sandy bed of the river. A flanking movement was then attempted, whereupon Shere Singh withdrew to Sadullapur.

Ramsay, Sir Alexander, of Dalhousie, compelled the English in 1338 to raise the siege of Dunbar. After carrying on a successful guerrilla war against them for some years, he took the castle of Roxburgh (1342), receiving as his reward the sheriffdom of Teviotdale. This aroused the jealousy of William Douglas of Liddesdale (q.v.), who captured him at Hawick and starved him to death in his castle of the Hermitage.

Ramsay, George, 9th Earl of Dalhousie (1770–1838), distinguished himself as a soldier in his earlier life. For his services in the French War, and especially at the battle of Waterloo, he was raised to a peerage in the United Kingdom. In 1816 he was appointed governor of Nova Scotia, and four years later governor-general of Canada. More of a soldier than a statesman, he failed to conciliate the democratic party, who were clamouring for reforms. About this time a select committee of the House of Commons declared the grievances of the Canadians to be real, and in 1828 Lord Dalhousie was recalled. From 1824 until 1832 he was commander-in-chief in the East Indies.

Ramsay, James Andrew Broun, 1st Marquis and 10th Earl of Dalhousie (1812–1860), was the third son of the 9th Earl of Dalhousie, and was educated at Harrow and Oxford. He entered the House of Commons young, but was soon called to the Upper House on his father's death. Under Sir Robert Peel's ministry he was successively vice-president and president (1845) of the board of trade—a post in which perhaps he did more than any other statesman for the development of our railway system. On the fall of Sir Robert Peel's government he did not quit office, but was soon appointed governor-general of India (1847). It was a time of great peril for British India, where the Sikhs were threatening much trouble, and in such an emergency Dalhousie determined to be on the scene of danger. After the victories of Gujarat (q.v.) and Multan (q.v.), he reorganized the government of the Punjab, and in 1852, by the capture of Pegu, completed the frontier of British Burma. The remainder of his term of office was occupied in consolidating the great empire under his rule. Oudh and Nagpur, in addition to Pegu and the Punjab, were brought directly under our government, while the civil service was more and more thrown open to all natural-born subjects of the Crown, British and Hindu alike. Under the strain of such work Dalhousie's health began to fail, and in 1856 he resigned office, and soon afterwards left Calcutta for Europe. Parliament passed a vote of thanks to him for his services, and the government showed its sense of his merits by creating him a marquis.

Duke of Argyll, "India under Dalhousie and Canning," 1863; biography by Sir W. L. Warner, 1904; Dalhousie's private Letters, ed. J. G. Baird, 1910. [T. A. A.]

Randolph, Thomas (1523–90), one of the ministers of Queen Elizabeth, was compelled to seek an asylum abroad during the reign of Mary, owing to his religious opinions. On his return to England after Mary's death he was employed on several important diplomatic missions to France and Russia. His first embassy to Scotland was in 1559, when he accompanied the Earl of Arran, and in the following year he was employed by Elizabeth to testify to the Scots her disapprobation of the Confession of Faith. In 1563–4 he was charged with the delicate mission of recommending a husband for Mary Stuart, the person selected being Robert Dudley, afterwards Earl of Leicester. In 1564 Randolph was named a commissioner at the Conference of Berwick, and in 1565 was again ambassador in Scotland, commissioned to assure the Protestant lords in Scotland of Elizabeth's sympathy, and to promise Argyll and Moray that they should have what aid from England they required. In 1566 the Queen of Scots ordered him to withdraw from her court, believing that he had been Elizabeth's instrument in keeping alive in Scotland the Protestant faction. In 1570 he was again sent to the north, but the feeling against England was so strong in Edinburgh that he found that he could not with safety remain. Two years later he was obliged to return to Edinburgh, and was twice shot at. In 1581

he was ordered to demand the release of Morton from James VI; but the hatred of the English still continued, and he had to flee for his life. His last mission to Scotland took place in 1586, and resulted in a treaty between the two kingdoms. Cautious, trustworthy, and deeply skilled in Scottish politics, Randolph obtained the confidence of the queen and the goodwill of Cecil.

Rangoon, the capital of Burma, was occupied by the British in 1824, during the first Burmese war. In the second Burmese war, undertaken on account of the oppression of British subjects at Rangoon, the town was taken by storm by the British forces under General Godwin, April 14, 1852. At the conclusion of the war the province of Pegu, including Rangoon, was annexed to British India. Situated at the mouth of the Irawadi, it is an extremely favourable situation for trade, and has become one of the most important commercial cities of British India.

Ranjit Singh (1780–1839). Upon the fall of the Mogul empire, its territories were divided between the Mahrattas in the south and the Sikhs, a religious sect, in the Punjab. It was the work of Ranjit Singh, the son of a sirdar of one of the Sikh principalities, to weld the loose Sikh confederacy into a kingdom. Gaining, in 1799, the governorship of Lahore in return for the aid he had given to Zaman Shah of Afghanistan, he practised upon the religious fanaticism of his Sikh countrymen, and organized the "khalsa" or "the liberated" into an army under European officers, which resembled in many points the Ironsides of Cromwell. He speedily conquered the neighbouring sirdars, but he found himself shut in on the east by the river Sutlej, the boundary of the British territory. He was wise enough to make a treaty of peace with the British in 1809, and to this he was faithful till his death. He captured Multan in 1810, Peshawar in 1823, and Kashmir in 1819, and in that year assumed the title of Maharajah (King of Kings). The Afghans inflicted upon him a defeat in 1836, but his authority was too firm to be shaken by disaster, and he seemed to leave behind him a firmly-established power on his death in 1839.

Sir L. Griffin, "Ranjit Singh," 1892.

Rape, A, is a territorial division of Sussex. Sussex is divided into six rapes, which again are subdivided into hundreds. At the time of the Domesday survey there were five rapes (Chichester and Arundel being treated as one), and Messrs. Round and Salzmann think the arguments for Norman origin very strong. Each of the Domesday rapes—Chichester, Bramber (or Steyning), Lewes, Pevensey, and Hastings—was in the possession of a single powerful lord. It seems to have been the rule for the rapes to have sheriffs of their own, and of these we find mention in documents of the eleventh and twelfth centuries. They collected geld from their district and paid it to the sheriff of the county. The rape may possibly represent the shires into which Sussex was divided while it was yet an independent kingdom. The original meaning is discussed in the "New English Dictionary."

Ballard, "The Domesday Inquest"; "Victoria County History: Sussex."

Rapparees were bands of Irish led by dispossessed proprietors who refused to submit to the Cromwellian transplantation to Connaught, and carried on a guerrilla warfare against the new English possessors. At first known as Tories, they came later to be called Rapparees, which Burnet, writing in 1690, called "a new name." But the names Tory (q.v.) and Rapparee came to mean in Ireland only ordinary felons at large. Their numbers were immensely exaggerated: thus in 1707 "there were but six Tories in the county Tipperary, and four in the county of Cork."

Ratcliffe (or Radcliffe), Sir Richard, was a confidential friend of Richard III. He was responsible for the execution of Rivers, Grey, and their companions in 1483; a service for which he was richly rewarded. To his advice it was largely due that Richard publicly disavowed any intention of marrying his niece Elizabeth (1485). Ratcliffe was killed at Bosworth. He is the "ratte" of the well-known contemporary couplet:

The catte, the ratte, and Lovell our dogge
Rulyth all England under a hogge.

Rates are contributions in certain proportions levied for specified local purposes by local authorities, as distinct from Taxes levied by the government for national purposes. All are now based on the Poor Law valuation of the annual value of each separate piece of real property in a given district, which is periodically revised by an assessment committee, from whose decisions there may be an appeal to the courts. The rates thus fall only on occupiers. Many examples of local rates are found before the sixteenth century in England. But the payment was often apportioned according to the estimated total income of each payer, so that personal property, capital (e.g., stock-in-trade), and real property wherever situate were rated. (For examples, see E. Cannan, "History of Local Rates in England.") The Poor Rate under the statute of 1601 (which became the pattern for future rating) was so assessed in some places even in the nineteenth century. But such a system is practicable only in a small community. As wealth increased and became more varied, only real property and its occupiers could be reached by the rating authorities, and judicial decisions and acts of parliament eventually confined rating to occupiers alone. All rates are now levied under statutory authority. Our rating system conspicuously illustrates the slow and unequal growth and involved character of our

modern system of local government. Only an imperfect classification is possible, but the following may be suggested:—1. *Parochial Rates*, or rates associated with the parochial system: (*a*) The Poor Rate, "for the relief of the poor and other purposes," collected by paid collectors (formerly by the overseers), according to the "precept" of the board of guardians of each Poor Law union. This arrangement dates from 1834. (*b*) Church rates (q.v.) generally have not been recoverable at law since 1868, but are still so recoverable in some parishes under local acts. (*c*) Parishes were formerly grouped into "highway parishes," which levied rates for the maintenance of the roads (with many exceptions). The highway authority outside boroughs or urban districts is now the rural district council. (*d*) The so-called "Adoptive Acts" enable specified local authorities to levy rates for the maintenance of baths and wash-houses and free libraries, for burials, lighting and watching, and certain public improvements. Where a parish is not superseded by a borough or an urban district council it is such an authority. Burial rates, however, are levied by a burial board appointed by the local authority; but the legislation on burials is very confused. 2. *Borough Rates* are levied by the corporation of a borough under the Municipal Corporations Act (1834) to make up any deficiency in the borough revenues, which are partly derived from its own property. It has generally statutory authority to levy an improvements rate, or a rate to meet the interest on loans, and often to maintain a police force. It is also a local authority under the "Adoptive Acts." 3. *District Council Rates:* Before the Local Government Act (1894) rates for sanitary purposes were leviable under various Public Health Acts, and rates for improvements, paving, lighting, etc., in "urban districts" under local boards or improvement commissioners. The sanitary authority was the board of guardians in rural, the local board or improvement commissioners in urban districts, or in a borough the corporation. Under the act of 1894 the rural district council is the sanitary authority in rural districts; while urban district councils replace local boards and commissioners. Urban district councils are also authorities under the Adoptive Acts. 4. *County Rates*, made by the county council, are collected by the overseers.

E. Cannan, "History of Local Rates in England," 1912; E. M. Leonard, "Early History of English Poor Relief," 1900; S. and B. Webb, "Local Government," 1906–27; Redlich and Hirst, "Local Government."

Rathmines, The Battle of (August 2, 1649), was one of the earliest engagements in Cromwell's Irish campaign. It resulted in the defeat of Ormonde by the Cromwellian forces under Colonel Michael Jones.

Ravenspur, or Ravenser, near Spurn Head in Yorkshire, was in early times the most considerable port on the Humber. In 1298 the privileges of the burgesses of Ravenspur were confirmed, and in the early fourteenth century it was represented in parliament. The encroachments of the sea finally submerged it by the middle of the sixteenth century. The process of erosion had begun when Henry Bolingbroke—afterwards Henry IV—landed here in 1399, to claim his inheritance and to make war on Richard II. Here, too, Edward IV landed in 1471, a little previous to the battle of Barnet.

Reading, the chief town of Berkshire, is mentioned first in 871 when Ethelred and his son Alfred were defeated at Reading by the Danes, though the victory of Ashdown (q.v.) near the town was afterwards won. The town was important as defending the frontier of Wessex against Mercia, since Wessex had been deprived of the lands north of the Thames. Under Ethelred the Unready in 1006 the town was reached by the Danes and burnt. Henry I founded a great monastery at Reading, in which he himself was afterwards buried. Reading was frequently favoured by the royal presence, and several parliaments were held by Henry VI and Edward IV. The dominant feature of its later mediæval history was the struggle between the Abbey and the merchant gilds. The town suffered during the Civil War, surrendering to the Parliamentary troops in 1643; and in 1688 on the landing of William of Orange. It returned two members to parliament from 1295 to 1885, when one was taken away. University College, Reading, received its charter of incorporation in March 1926.

C. Coates, "History of Reading," 1806; "Studies in Local History" (Reading University College), 1910.

"Rebecca Riots" was the name given to a series of riots which occurred in South Wales in 1843 as a protest against turnpike-gates. The rioters were dressed in women's clothes, and, in allusion to Isaac's bride (Gen. xxiv. 60), the leader and his followers were known as "Rebecca and her daughters." The raids on toll-gates were for a time successful, but after the daylight riot at Carmarthen on June 10 troops and London police were drafted into the disturbed areas (Brecknock alone was unmolested). The unrest thereupon declined, and at the close of the year a government commission was set up to inquire into the operation of the Turnpike Laws.

"Annual Register," 1843.

Rebellion, The Great. The struggle between the monarchy and the Parliament which led to the Great Rebellion began with the accession of the House of Stuart to the English throne. James I and Charles I inherited the Tudor dictatorship, but the authority which Henry VIII and Elizabeth had exercised in harmony with the feelings of the nation they endeavoured to use for unpopular purposes. The Commons, who had grown strong and rich during the sixteenth century,

woke to a consciousness of their strength, and headed the opposition to the Crown, as the barons had done in the thirteenth. Whilst James I formulated a dogmatic theory of the sovereign power, and strove to realize it, the Commons revived the constitutional claims of the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries. The Petition of Right in 1628 (q.v.) was an attempt to limit the king's powers and secure the subject's rights, but there was no impartial authority to interpret the meaning of the contract, and the Commons claimed by virtue of it much that Charles had not meant to concede. For eleven years the king governed through the privy council without calling a parliament. The judgment on Hampden's case in June 1638 definitely settled the question of taxation in the king's favour. But at this very time the king's ecclesiastical policy had called forth in Scotland an opposition which obliged him, after an unsuccessful attempt to suppress it by arms, to have recourse once more to an English parliament. The Short Parliament, which met in April 1640, instead of supporting the king in the war, demanded the abolition of ship money and the taxes levied for the support of the army, and was about to petition in favour of the Scots, when it was dissolved. The ill success of the second Scottish war, and the invasion of England, obliged Charles again to call a parliament, known afterwards as the Long Parliament (q.v.), on November 3, 1640. On the 11th the impeachment of Strafford was moved by Pym, that of Laud followed a little later, and other leading officials fled abroad. Ship money (q.v.) was declared illegal, and tunnage and poundage (q.v.) were no longer to be levied without the consent of parliament. The Star Chamber, the Court of High Commission, and other extraordinary jurisdictions were abolished. The Triennial Bill bound the king to summon a parliament every three years, and he was obliged to consent to an act prohibiting him from dissolving the existing parliament. Hitherto the Commons had been united, but the question of Church reform caused a division in their ranks. One party wished to abolish the bishops altogether, the other merely to limit their powers. Thus the king was enabled to gather round him a party which gave him support on the further questions which rose out of this disagreement. In the Grand Remonstrance (q.v.) the Parliamentary leaders appealed to the people, setting forth the king's misgovernment in the past and the political and ecclesiastical reforms they demanded for the future. The Irish rebellion, which broke out in October 1641, raised the question whether the king could be trusted with an army. In England war began in the following autumn. The king set up his standard at Nottingham on August 22, 1642. On the king's side were the north and west of England; in Wales and Cornwall and on the border he found his strongest adherents, while the south and east, and the manufacturing districts especially, took the side of the Parliament. The battle of Edgehill (q.v.—October 23) had no decisive results, and a second battle at Brentford (November 12) was equally fruitless. In the campaign of 1643 the advantage was decidedly on the king's side. In the spring and the summer a Cornish army conquered the west, and the Marquis of Newcastle recovered Yorkshire. The fate of the Parliamentary cause seemed to depend on the question whether Gloucester and Hull would hold out. But the Earl of Essex relieved Gloucester, and defeated at Newbury (q.v.) the king's attempt to intercept his march back to London, whilst three weeks later Newcastle was forced to raise the siege of Hull. In one part of the country, however, in the eastern counties, the Parliamentary cause had not only held its own, but gained ground, and an army had been formed there, headed by the Earl of Manchester, but inspired by Cromwell (q.v.), which exercised a decisive influence on the next campaign. Both king and Parliament sought aid outside England. The king concluded a truce with the rebels, and brought over troops from Ireland. The Parliament made an alliance with the Scots, confirmed by the Solemn League and Covenant, which procured them the assistance of a Scottish army, but bound them to endeavour to bring the three kingdoms to religious uniformity, and to reform the English Church "according to the Word of God, and the example of the best reformed Churches." The Westminster Assembly (q.v.), which had, in July 1643, commenced the deliberations ending two years later in the establishment of Presbyterianism in England, was now joined by Scottish divines, and Scottish representatives entered the committee which directed the war. A Scottish army under the Earl of Leven crossed the border, joined the troops of Fairfax and Manchester, and laid siege to York. Rupert relieved York, but offered battle under its walls, and the victory of Marston Moor (q.v.—July 2, 1644) was followed by the conquest of all England north of the Trent. In the west and south the king was more fortunate. He defeated Waller at Cropredy Bridge (June 29), and shut up Essex in Cornwall, where the latter's foot were obliged to surrender (September 1644). But the advance of the Royalists on London was put a stop to by the second battle of Newbury (October 27, 1644). Whilst the fruitless negotiations of Uxbridge (q.v.) were going on, the Parliament, urged by Cromwell, resolved to adopt a new system of carrying on the war. By the Self-denying Ordinance (q.v.) the members of parliament who held commands had to resign them, and by a second ordinance the army was remodelled, reduced to 21,000 men, and placed under the command of Sir Thomas Fairfax. He was allowed to retain the services of Cromwell, who became his lieutenant-general. Well armed, well disciplined, and well paid, its ranks full of men "who had the fear of God before their eyes, and made some conscience of what

they did," the "New Model" (q.v.) changed the face of the war. Fairfax took the field on May 1, 1645, and on June 14 Charles was defeated at Naseby with the loss of half his army. One after another the king's fortresses in the west were conquered. Winter alone stopped the progress of Fairfax; but in March 1646 the king's last army laid down its arms, and his last fortress, Raglan Castle, surrendered in August. Charles himself took refuge in the Scottish camp at Newark at the beginning of May. In the negotiations which followed, the Parliament's chief demands were the control of the militia and the establishment of Presbyterianism in England. The king delayed giving a definite answer as long as possible, but finally offered to concede the militia for ten years, and the establishment of Presbyterianism for three. The Scots at last, weary of his delays, surrendered him to the Parliament, receiving in return compensation for their expenses in the war (January 30, 1647). The Presbyterian leaders were as anxious to impose uniformity, and as hostile to liberty of conscience and diversity of worship as Laud himself. The army, on the other hand, had fought for religious as well as for civil liberty, and were resolved to secure it. They believed also that "God's Providence" had "cast the trust of religion and the kingdom upon them as conquerors." They had also a special grievance as soldiers in the proposal to disband them without payment of their arrears, so they did not scruple when their demands were refused to seize the king's person (June 4, 1647), march on London, expel eleven of the Presbyterian leaders from parliament (August 7), and treat directly with the king themselves. The king still continued his attempt to play off one party against the other, and refused to accept the terms of the soldiers. He escaped from the hands of the army (November 11), and took refuge in the Isle of Wight, where, whilst publicly negotiating with the Parliament, he privately concluded a treaty with the Scots, promising in return for his restoration to establish Presbyterianism for three years, and suppress all dissident sects. Parliament replied to his rejection of the Four Bills, in which they had embodied their demands, by a vote that no more addresses should be made to the king (January 3, 1648), and a meeting of the officers of the army decided that it was their duty so soon as the expected war was over to call "Charles Stuart, that man of blood," to account for the blood he had shed and the mischief he had done. In April the second Civil War broke out. Fairfax defeated the Kentish Royalists, shut up the main body of the insurgents at Colchester, and starved them into surrender (August 26). Cromwell, after putting down the insurrection in Wales, attacked and destroyed the Scottish army under the Duke of Hamilton in a three days' battle at Preston in Lancashire (August 17–19). Meanwhile the Presbyterian majority in parliament had seized the opportunity to pass a severe law against heresy and reopen negotiations with the king [NEWPORT, TREATY OF]. The victorious army trusted neither king nor parliament, but resolved to put a stop to the negotiations and effect a settlement of the kingdom itself. The king was seized at Carisbrooke, and removed to a place of security (December 1). The House of Commons, purified by the exclusion of 96 Presbyterian members (December 6) [PRIDE'S PURGE] and the voluntary abstention of many others, became the obedient instrument of the army. It passed a resolution to bring the king to justice (December 13), assumed the supreme power (January 4, 1649), and erected a High Court of Justice to try Charles (January 9). The trial lasted from January 20 to 27, and the king was executed on the 30th, but out of the 135 members of whom the court was composed only 59 signed the death warrant. The new government, which took the name of Commonwealth, consisted of a Council of State of 41 persons exercising the executive power, and a House of Commons, which rarely numbered more than 60 members. [COMMONWEALTH; LONG PARLIAMENT.]

Clarendon, "History of the Rebellion," 1702–18, and ed. W. D. Macray, 6 vols., 1888; Carlyle, "Cromwell's Letters and Speeches"; S. R. Gardiner, "Great Civil War," 1893; C. H. Firth, "Cromwell," 1890, and "Cromwell's Army," 3rd, ed., 1921; Peacock, "Army Lists of Roundheads and Cavaliers," 2nd ed., 1874; A. L. Bayley, "Civil War in Dorset," 1910; E. Broxap, "Civil War in Lancashire," 1910; J. W. W. Bund, "Civil War in Worcestershire," 1905; G. N. Godwin, "Civil War in Hampshire," 1904; C. T. Stanford, "Sussex in the Great Civil War," 1910.

[C. H. F.]

Rebellion, CADE'S. [CADE'S REBELLION.]

Rebellion, THE IRISH. [IRELAND.]

Rebellion, WAT TYLER'S. [PEASANTS' REVOLT.]

Record, COURTS OF, are those "where the acts and judicial proceedings are enrolled in parchment . . . which rolls are called the records of the court, and are of such authority that their truth is not to be called in question" (Stephen's "Commentaries"). They are of two classes: superior (including the House of Lords and the Judicial Committee) and inferior (including County Courts and Coroners' Courts). The superior courts have power to impose fine and imprisonment for contempt of court; the inferior courts power to fine only. A court must either be a Court of Record by immemorial recognition or by modern creation through act of parliament. James I, by yielding to the Commons in the case of Goodwin (1603), recognized that their house was a Court of Record.

Record Office. In 1800 a committee of the House of Commons was appointed to examine into the condition of the public records, and in accordance with its recommendations a royal commission was appointed, which was renewed six times, and lasted till the accession of Queen Victoria. The Record Commission published its report in 1837, and on its recom-

mendation, by an act of 1838, the guardianship of the records was conferred upon the Master of the Rolls, with power to appoint a deputy. Under this act the documents have been placed in the Public Record Office in Chancery Lane, London, and a staff of officials and clerks is employed in their preservation and arrangement. The central repository was begun in 1851, and in 1852 the State Paper Office passed into the control of the Master of the Rolls. In 1856 began the publication of the Calendars of State Papers, and in 1858 the Chronicles and Memorials known as the Rolls Series (q.v.).

S. R. Scargill-Bird, "Handbook to the Public Records," 3rd edn., 1908; M. S. Giuseppi, "Guide to the Public Record Office," 2 vols., 1923.

Records, or ARCHIVES, have been defined as "documents drawn up and used in the course of an administrative or executive transaction (whether public or private) of which they themselves formed a part; and subsequently preserved in official custody to perpetuate the memory of the transactions described in them." They "far excel the chronicle in scope, authenticity, and objectivity"; and a marked characteristic of modern historical research has been the increasing reliance placed upon them as a basis of investigation. History as it is understood now is, it may be said, largely, if not mainly, dependent upon archives; and the widening within recent years of the scope of historical study to embrace new varieties such as Constitutional, Legal, Economic, Social, and Administrative History has been due in the main to the growing exploitation of record sources.

The archives of England, especially for the mediæval period, are unrivalled by those of any other country. Those of the central government are now for the most part assembled at the Public Record Office in Chancery Lane, in the custody of the Master of the Rolls (q.v.). A general idea of their content can be obtained from such introductory studies of the subject as C. Johnson's "The Public Record Office" (S.P.C.K. Helps for Students of History), or from the new official "Guide to the Public Records," compiled by M. S. Giuseppi (2 vols., 1923). The purpose of the present article is merely to indicate those classes which are most readily accessible and most generally valuable to the student.

Of special importance for the political historian of the Middle Ages are the records of the two great mediæval departments of State—the Chancery and the Exchequer. Among the more important classes of Chancery documents are the *Patent Rolls*, on which were entered the public or "open" letters addressed "to all to whom these presents shall come," and dealing with every variety of public business. This series begins in 1204, and is accessible in print either *in extenso* or in calendar form down to 1509. The *Close Rolls*, containing mainly letters addressed to individuals, are of less but still of considerable interest. They begin in 1201, and are available in print down to 1402. Parallel series are the *Charter Rolls* recording foundations, grants of land, liberties, markets, fairs, etc., from the reign of John onwards (calendared down to 1516); the *Liberate Rolls*, on which were entered after 1226 letters close relating to payments or allowances from the Exchequer (calendared 1226–40); and the *Fine Rolls*, registering the payments made in return for grants, pardons, etc. (calendared to 1383). Of great importance also are the Chancery *Inquisitions*, which include the returns made by local juries as to the lands and heirs of deceased tenants-in-chief (Inquisitions *post mortem*, calendared Henry III–Henry VII); and as to the probable effect upon existing interests of contemplated royal grants (Inquisitions *ad quod damnum*), as well as to many miscellaneous questions of interest to the Crown (Miscellaneous Inquisitions, calendared 1219–1349). Later come the *Parliament Rolls*, which begin in 1278, and which throw invaluable light not merely upon parliamentary history and procedure, but upon general constitutional development, and indeed upon almost every aspect of contemporary life (printed under the title of *Rotuli Parliamentorum*, 1767–77). The *Statute Rolls* begin in the same period, but do not continue as a separate class after 1468 (printed in "Statutes of the Realm," Rec. Comm. 1810). There may be mentioned also the collections of *Chancery Warrants*, consisting of privy seals, signed bills, and other documents, forming steps in the process of issuing letters under the great seal; and the mass of judicial records—proceedings, decrees and orders, and affidavits—which accumulated as a result of the development of the equitable jurisdiction of the chancellor in the later mediæval period.

The records of the Exchequer offer to the student a field of research no less fruitful than that afforded by the Chancery records, although up to the present less use has been made of them, and although they are for the most part less readily available for study. The most important of them are the *Great Annual Rolls* or *Pipe Rolls* (q.v.), on which were entered summaries of the accounts presented yearly to the Exchequer by the sheriffs and other royal officials. There is one example of this series extant for the reign of Henry I, but they do not become regular until 2 Henry II. The early rolls are at present in course of publication by the Pipe Roll Society, which so far has carried the work down to 5 Richard I; and there are two rolls of Henry III accessible in print (1230, ed. Chalfont Robinson, Princeton Univ. Press, Pipe Roll Society Series; and 1241–2, ed. Cannon, Yale Univ. Press). Accounts subsidiary to the Pipe Roll are the *Foreign and Enrolled Accounts*, which begin under Edward III. Other valuable Exchequer series are the *Receipt* and *Issue Rolls*, and the *Memoranda Rolls* of the lord treasurers and the king's remembrancers. The latter, in particular, are a mine of information of the

most varied and interesting kind. Among documents preserved in, although not actually belonging to, the Exchequer are the series of accounts relating to the *Wardrobe* (q.v.) and *Household* (q.v.) of the king, the importance of which for general as well as for purely administrative history has only been fully realized since Professor T. F. Tout began his intensive study of mediæval administration.

Another considerable class of documents which is still in bulk unprinted is that of the judicial records. These include the *Rolls of the Curia Regis* (printed down to 1205), which separate under Edward I into two categories—*Coram Rege Rolls*, or Rolls of the King's Bench, and *De Banco Rolls*, or Rolls of the Common Pleas. The *Assize Rolls*—the records of the itinerant justices or of special commissions—are also of value.

The great constitutional and administrative changes of the Tudor period inevitably left their mark upon the archives. The Reformation and the dissolution of the monasteries resulted in the erection of such courts as the Court of Augmentations and the Court of First Fruits and Tenths; while the vast extension of conciliar activity and the growth of "prerogative courts," such as the Star Chamber, also gave rise to new classes of records. The series of *Privy Council Registers* begins in 1540; and the records of *Star Chamber Proceedings* run from the reign of Henry III to the abolition of the court under Charles I. The most important and significant feature of the administrative history of the sixteenth century was, however, the development of the office of secretary of state, with which coincided the formation of the great class of *State Papers*—of first-rate value for the student of modern political history. These were roughly divided, from the date of the establishment of the State Paper Office under Elizabeth in 1578, into two categories, *Domestic* and *Foreign*; a third series—*Colonial*—being subsequently added. Since the reorganization of the secretariat in 1782 the State Papers Domestic have been carried on under the title of *Home Office Records*, and the State Papers Foreign under the heading of *Foreign Office Records*. The State Papers Colonial for the period after 1699 are combined with the records of the Committee of the Privy Council for Trade and Plantations to form the *Colonial Office Records*. All these categories of the state papers are accessible to students in calendar form.

Apart from the records of the central government, there may be noted the archives which, while local in origin and scope, are yet of a public character. Such are the *Town Records*, among which are conspicuous the muniments of Nottingham, Leicester, Exeter, and pre-eminently those of the City of London, which are housed in the Records Office of the Guildhall. Of a semi-public nature are such ecclesiastical records as the *Bishops' Registers*, which are now in most dioceses in process of publication, and which throw invaluable light upon the history of the Church in general, as well as upon matters of purely diocesan interest. Finally there may be mentioned the mass of *Private Records*—deeds, court and account rolls, registers and cartularies, etc., some of which have found their way into public repositories, but the bulk of which are still in private custody and either inaccessible to the student or only to be consulted with difficulty. The Report of the Historical Manuscripts Commission (1870, etc.) affords some guide to the contents of the more important of these collections, and in connexion with the recent land legislation a definite attempt has been made to safeguard and preserve certain classes of records such as manorial rolls; but it remains true that private muniments constitute a virtually untapped and unplumbed source of historical information.

For bibliography see the works mentioned in the text. The following may also be consulted: C. H. Jenkinson, "Archives and Archive Administration"; H. Hall, "Studies in English Official Documents"; C. Gross, "Bibliography of Mediæval History," "Bibliography of Municipal History"; bibliographies appended to the "Political History of England," ed. Hunt and Poole, and to the "Intermediate History Source Books" of the University of London; S.P.C.K. "Helps for Students of History."

[H. M. C.]

Recorder. Before the Municipal Corporations Act of 1835, 159 out of the 246 corporate towns in England had recorders or stewards. Most of these were nominated by the common council, sometimes, however, by the aldermen only, sometimes by all the burgesses. "They were mostly magistrates within their boroughs, and quorum judges of the Courts of General and Quarter Sessions, and Courts of Record where those existed." But few recorders, however, actually resided in the towns, and in many cases the office was obtained only in order to facilitate the exercise of political influence. By the act of 1835 all towns without a separate Court of Quarter Sessions were deprived of their criminal jurisdiction; but boroughs were permitted to petition the Crown for a separate Court of Quarter Sessions, stating the salary they were ready to pay the recorder. If the petition were granted, the Crown thenceforward nominated the recorder, who must be a barrister of at least five years' standing and hold his court four times a year, or more often if necessary. He is sole judge therein, save that he may not grant licences under the liquor acts, nor levy rates.

Recruiters. The Royalist members who deserted the Parliament at Westminster after the outbreak of the Civil War were one by one "disabled" by the House of Commons in 1645. Writs were moved for new elections in their place. Nearly 150 new members were returned, who were called by the Royalist writers "Recruiters." The new members included Ireton, Ludlow, Fleetwood, and Algernon Sidney.

Recusancy Laws. [Penal Code in Ireland, The.]

Red River Expedition, The (1870). In 1869 the Red River Settlement, in North America, which had been in the territories of the Hudson's Bay Company, was transferred to the new Dominion of Canada. Some of the settlers, however, refused to acknowledge the transfer. On November 24 the rebels, under Louis Riel, took possession of Fort Garry, and resisted by force an attempt of Major Boulton to get possession of the place. One of Boulton's followers, named Hugh Scott, was seized and shot. An expedition, consisting of about 350 British troops and a number of Canadian militia, under the command of Colonel Garnet Wolseley, was sent against them. After a three months' journey in boats across the lakes and rivers, it reached Fort Garry (August 23, 1870). The rebels surrendered without resistance. The territory became a province of the Dominion, Manitoba. Riel headed a rebellion of the half-breeds of the N.W. provinces in 1885, and was convicted of high treason and hanged.

Sir F. Maurice and Sir G. Arthur, "Life of Lord Wolseley," 1924.

Red Sea Expedition, The. In 1801 the Marquis Wellesley dispatched 4,000 Europeans and 5,000 sepoys, under General David Baird, to co-operate with the forces under Abercromby in the expulsion of the French from Egypt. The force proceeded up the Red Sea to Cosseir, whence it marched 120 miles over the desert to the Nile, reached Cairo on August 10, and encamped on the shores of the Mediterranean on the 27th. Before, however, the Indian contingent could be brought into action, the report of its approach, and the energy of General Hutchinson, who succeeded to the command on the death of Sir Ralph Abercromby, induced the French general to capitulate.

Redan, The, was a fortress protecting the southern side of Sebastopol. [Crimean War.] On September 8, 1855, the British attempted to take it by storm, while the French attacked the Malakoff. The attacking party under Sir William Codrington were, however, so diminished while crossing the open ground immediately in front, and there was so much difficulty in sending for reinforcements, that the handful of men who had entered the works were forced to retire. The evacuation of the southern side of Sebastopol during the night made a further attack unnecessary.

A. W. Kinglake, "Invasion of the Crimea," 1863–87.

Redeswire, The Raid of (July 27, 1575), was a disturbance on the borders arising from a dispute between Sir John Forster, the English warden, and Sir John Carmichael, the Scottish warden of the Marches. The English were defeated, their warden and Francis Russell, 2nd Earl of Bedford, being taken prisoners. Bedford was killed. The affair nearly led to a rupture with the English court.

Redmond, John Edward (1851–1918), was educated at Trinity College, Dublin. He entered parliament for New Ross in 1881, and was called to the bar in 1886. In 1891 he became the leader of the Parnellites, and in 1900 he united under himself the two Irish Nationalist parties. After the election of 1910 his power greatly increased. He supported Mr. Asquith in the struggle over the Parliament Bill (q.v.), and was consulted on the drafting of the Home Rule Bill of 1912. He resisted the extremist methods of Sinn Fein, though he did not obtain control of the Nationalist volunteers until June 1914. He supported the government on the outbreak of the Great War, and denounced the Easter rising in Dublin, 1916.

Biography by W. B. Wells, 1919; also Stephen Gwynn, "John Redmond's Last Years," 1919.

Redonda is a dependency of Antigua (q.v.).

Reduction, Action of, is a process of Scottish law by which a settlement wrongly made is questioned. Acting upon this analogy, the Scottish government in 1628 drew up "a summons or initial writ of an Action of Reduction against all copyholders of ecclesiastical property," declaring the king's right to all kirklands. Charles I's object was to restore to the Scottish Church part of the lands of which it had been deprived at the Reformation.

Redwald, King of East Anglia (593–617), became a Christian probably owing to the pressure of his overlord, Ethelbert of Kent. Returning home from Kent, where he had received baptism, he was "led astray by his wife and certain perverse teachers, so that, like the ancient Samaritans, he seemed at the same time to serve Christ and the gods whom he had served before; and in the same temple he had an altar to sacrifice to Christ, and another small one to offer victims to devils" (Bæda). But it would appear from Bæda that even while Ethelbert was living his place as overlord in central Britain had been taken by Redwald. So that it is probable a war had arisen between Ethelbert and Redwald from this religious compromise, and had ended in Ethelbert's defeat. In 617 Edwin of Northumbria took refuge at his court from Ethelfrith, and in the same year Redwald attacked and defeated Ethelfrith on the Idle. But Redwald died soon after, and the East Anglian power seems to have broken up under his son, Eorpwald. Bæda, ii, 5, after describing Ethelbert's overlordship, says that Redwald was the fourth king who gained a power of this kind. In the "Anglo-Saxon Chronicle" Redwald is placed fourth on the list of Bretwaldas.

Reeve (Sax. *gerefa*), a name applied to many classes of officials, especially to those charged with the management of some territorial division; as the so-called Laws of Edward the Confessor say, "est multiplex nomen; greve enim dicitur de scira, de wapentagiis, de hun-

dredis, de burgis, de villis." [Of these the most important was the shire-reeve, for which see SHERIFF.] Besides the sheriff, the following uses of the term are to be noted :—*High-reeve* (heah-gerefa) mentioned in the "Anglo-Saxon Chronicle," s.a. 778, 780, 1001, and 1002. *Port-reeve* (port-gerefa), *borough-reeve* (burh-gerefa), and *wic-gerefa* also frequently occur, in the sense of the chief officer of a town, who presided over its courts, etc. The first title was only used in trading towns (not necessarily ports), and was borne by the presiding officers of several of the smaller towns until recent times. *Tun-gerefa* is the usual term for the headman of a township. He was probably chosen by the inhabitants in free townships, but would be nominated by the lord in dependent townships. He appeared with the four best men in the hundred court, and in dependent townships was legally responsible for his lord's men. The position of the manor-reeve (the representative of the earlier tun-gerefa) in the thirteenth century is clearly described in Fleta. He was to be a good husbandman chosen by the *villati*, and was responsible for the cultivation of the land, having especially to watch over the ploughs, and see that due service was rendered. A kind of co-ordinate authority was apparently exercised by the lord's bailiff, and both alike were subject to the seneschal or steward, who supervised several manors. [Examination of manorial records has shown that the reeve was not invariably elected by his fellow-villeins, the appointment often being made by the lord. If the reeve's work was satisfactory he might be retained for further annual periods. His work was of an exacting nature, and the office was sometimes so unpopular that a peasant would be elected to it by his fellows if he were unfortunate enough to be absent from a meeting of the jurors. Each year he had to produce accurate accounts of services rendered on the manor and of changes in the farm stock, particulars of which he must have had difficulty, as an unlettered man, in keeping by him. The *hundred-reeve* appears in the laws of Ethelred as an official of more local authority than the reeve of the shire, and again in the reign of Edward the Confessor he is found exercising functions in the hundred court, but not independently of his sheriff, who after the Conquest acquires full control and often farms the presidency of the court to bailiffs.]

Schmid, "Gesetze der Angelsachsen," and Kemble, "Saxons," ii, Bk. ii, ch. vii. discuss all the uses of the term. See also Stubbs, "Constitutional History," i, §.39, 45; and for the High-Reeve, Green, "Conquest of England," and especially ch. x. For the Manorial Reeve see Cunningham, "Growth of English Industry and Commerce," i, App. B; "Walter of Henley's Husbandry," ed. Lamond; H. S. Bennett in *English Historical Review*, July 1926.

[W. J. A.] [A. V. J.]

Referendum, THE, a constitutional device whereby important measures of legislation are referred to a direct vote by the electorate on the petition of a certain number of voters, is not a British institution. It made its reputation in Switzerland, where it was adopted generally in 1848, and spread later to the United States. After the Great War it was embodied in the new constitutions of Germany, Esthonia, and the Irish Free State. It is in operation in parts of the British Empire. Australia had employed it before 1910, and used it during the war to reject compulsory military service abroad (1916 and 1917); New Zealand used it several times (1911 onwards) to reject prohibition; and several Canadian states have employed it. Efforts were made in 1911 to incorporate it in the governmental machinery of the United Kingdom, but without success. The Referendum question had become important as a result of the abolition of the Lords' veto by the Parliament Act (q.v.), and had already been publicly advocated by leading men of both parties—notably Lord Courtenay of Penwith, Mr. Asquith, Mr. Balfour—when Lord Balfour of Burleigh introduced his Referendum Bill in the Lords on March 2, 1911, providing for a Referendum to be taken whenever a Commons' bill was not passed by the Lords within forty days or was dropped on account of a difference between the two Houses, and also for a Referendum on any bill passed by both Houses if 200 of the Commons so desired. The second reading on March 28 was opposed by Lord Morley and defeated. Lord Lansdowne proposed later in the year (June 26) for a Referendum to be taken on any bill passed under the Parliament Act which affected the existence of the monarchy; but without success. During the same years, 1910–11, various specific questions were made the subject of agitation in favour of the Referendum: notably Women's Suffrage, Home Rule, and Welsh Disestablishment. In 1920 proposals were made for submitting the nationalization of mines to a Referendum.

Critics of the Referendum declare that the votes cast are usually few and unreliable; that the voter is rarely well-informed on the issue referred; and that the system lowers the responsibility of members of the legislature. Its advocates on the contrary emphasize its value as a check on absolutism. Perhaps the strongest conclusion that a perusal of the literature of the subject warrants is that analogies between Switzerland, the United States, and Great Britain are misleading; and that final judgment of the Referendum cannot be based on theory alone.

See A. V. Dicey, "The Referendum and its Critics," in *Quarterly Review*, No. 212, 1910; A. L. Lowell, "Governments and Parties in Continental Europe," 2 vols., 1918; Foreign Office Handbooks, No. 159 ("Plebiscite and Referendum"), 1920.

[A. C. F. B.]

Reformation, THE. The process which ended in the separate organization of the English Church was due to three principal causes: (1) dissatisfaction with the practical operation of the papal headship; (2) a desire

to reform the clergy and render the Church more useful; (3) a conviction that the system of the mediæval Church had in many ways deviated from the teaching of Christ and the apostles, and from primitive custom. The first of these causes showed itself in England in the reign of Henry III, and gradually led to legislative acts by which England endeavoured to protect itself from undue interference on the part of the pope. The Statutes of Provisors and Præmunire (q.v.) secured England against the heavy exactions by which the papacy during the Great Schism oppressed Christendom. [Papacy.] In the reforming councils of the fifteenth century, which laboured in vain, England did not take a prominent part, because it already had the means of keeping in check the claims of the papacy. It was, however, an Englishman who first gathered together and expressed the dissatisfaction of Europe. John Wyclif began his career by maintaining the independence of the State from hierarchical interference. To this he added a longing after greater simplicity and spirituality of life. He sent forth preachers among the people. He denounced the worldliness of the papacy as anti-Christian. He undertook the noble task of translating the Bible into English. He wrote numerous tracts to stir up the people to greater earnestness in religion. He asserted the existence of a true spiritual Church founded on faith in Christ, and depending for its rule on the law of the Gospel. Moreover, as a means of reducing the organization of the Church to greater purity, he attacked the central point of sacerdotalism—the material conception of transubstantiation in the sacrament of the altar. He did not deny the presence of Christ in the Eucharist; he denied only the change of substance in the elements after consecration. Thus Wyclif united in his teaching the three principles which brought about the Reformation—a strong sense of national patriotism, a deep desire for greater spirituality of life, and an acute criticism of the doctrines on which the existing system of the Church was founded. Wyclif's teaching drew upon him ecclesiastical condemnation. His opinions spread in Bohemia, and gave birth to the rising of the Hussites. In England his followers, the Lollards, were unfortunately associated with political risings, and were suppressed. Still Wyclif's translation of the Bible and many of his writings were passed from hand to hand, and bodies of "Biblemen" scattered here and there throughout the land prepared the way for more decided efforts. [Wyclif.]

The end of the Wars of the Roses saw a great change in the social condition of England. The ideas of the Middle Ages were languishing. The feudal system had practically passed away. While the nobles were fighting, the middle class had grown more prosperous. A narrow but practical spirit prevailed, which looked enviously on the wealth of the Church, which was unaffected by its sentiment, and which in a dim way wished to see it made more useful. As the New Learning made its way in England men like More dreamed of a new organization of society, and Colet bestirred himself in the cause of a broader system of education. The Church itself was vexatious to the people by the wide extension of its inquisitorial courts of spiritual discipline. The rabble of useless and lazy priests excited the contempt of thinking men. There was small hope of reform from within; for the organization of the Church depended on Rome, and the secularized papacy of the sixteenth century was powerless to initiate reforms. Politically the English Church, through fear of the Lollards, had relied for help on the Crown, and had trusted to the balance of parties. The overthrow of the baronage by the Wars of the Roses left the Crown practically supreme, as the people were too much engrossed in business to care for anything save a strong and peaceful government.

The desire for some reform in the Church was felt by Wolsey, who obtained from the pope permission to suppress thirty monasteries, and devote their revenues to educational foundations at Oxford and Ipswich. Perhaps Wolsey's schemes for internal reform would have progressed farther, if a crisis in the relations between Church and State had not been brought about by the self-will of Henry VIII. Henry VIII, fascinated by Anne Boleyn, was resolved on a divorce from his wife Katharine. He had married Katharine, his brother's widow, by virtue of a papal dispensation; he needed the papal consent for a divorce. The papacy was the source of ecclesiastical law, the supreme judge, with equitable powers in cases of grievance. So long as Henry VIII expected to obtain his divorce he was content to wait. But when Wolsey's plans failed, and Pope Clement VII showed that he dared not gratify the English king at the expense of offending the emperor, Henry VIII resolved to give the pope a sample of his spirit. The powerful minister Wolsey was declared subject to the penalties of the Statute of Præmunire, because he had exercised legatine powers without the king's consent. He fell, and no voice was raised in his favour (1529). Henry VIII appealed from the pope to the learning of Christendom, and proceeded to gather the opinions of the universities on the legality of his marriage and the propriety of his divorce. Further, to terrify the pope by a display of his power, he involved all the clergy of the realm under the penalties of Præmunire, because they had recognized Wolsey's legatine authority. The convocation of 1531 was compelled to sue for the king's pardon, and grant him a large subsidy by way of a fine. Moreover, the king demanded that he should be called in the preamble of the bill granting the subsidy, "sole protector, and supreme head of the Church and clergy of England." With difficulty Archbishop Warham modified the term "supreme head" by the limitation "as far as the law of Christ

allows." In the parliament of 1532 the pope was still further threatened by an act forbidding the payment of annates to Rome. The clergy were terrified by the presentation by the Commons of a long petition concerning ecclesiastical grievances. It was clear that Henry VIII was in a position to do what he would. The Commons, as representing the middle class, were on his side, because they had many practical grievances which they hoped to see redressed. The clergy had no strong hold on the people, and had little organization amongst themselves. They were helpless before the king, and the pope was unable to give them any succour. What is known as "the submission of the clergy" was simply the practical recognition of this fact. Convocation in 1532 "submitted themselves humbly to his highness," and undertook thenceforth to promulgate no ordinance which had not received the royal approval, and to submit the provincial constitutions then in force to revision by a committee of sixteen laymen and sixteen clergy appointed by the king. In 1533 the new archbishop, Cranmer, took cognizance of the question of the king's divorce, and pronounced his marriage invalid from the first. As the pope had pronounced in favour of its validity, this was a decided assertion of the act passed in 1532 that appeals in such cases as had hitherto been pursued in the court of Rome should thenceforth be had within the realm. Henry VIII's marriage with Anne Boleyn announced his breach not only with the papacy, but with the public opinion of Europe. He had advanced step by step till there was no return possible. The parliament of 1534 passed acts confirming the submission of the clergy to the jurisdiction of the Crown, forbidding the payment of annates and all other dues to the pope, establishing the king as supreme head of the Church, with authority to reform all abuses, and conferring on him all payments that previously were made to the pope. All that was implied in the papal headship over the Church was now swept away from England. The secular privileges of the pope were conferred upon the Crown. The Church, whose machinery had already been broken down by papal encroachments, was left without any power to repair that machinery. Its legislative power was subject to the royal assent, its courts were left unreformed, and appeals were to be heard and decided in some court approved by the Crown.

Henry VIII had overturned the papal headship, and was no doubt aided in so doing by the example of those German states where the ideas of Luther had prevailed. But Henry himself was opposed to Luther's teaching, and had no sympathy with the cause of doctrinal reform. He wished the Church to remain as it had been, save that the rights of the pope were transferred to the Crown. Even Cranmer, though he had broken the rule of clerical celibacy, did not meditate any great change. But in Oxford and Cambridge especially men turned their attention to German theology. At the end of 1534 convocation petitioned the king to decree a translation of the Bible into English, a work which was not allowed till 1537. The visitatorial power of the Crown, vested in the hands of Cromwell as vicar-general, was not allowed to slumber. The visitation of the smaller monasteries led to an act in 1536 giving to the Crown all religious houses below the annual value of £200. In 1539 the suppression of the greater monasteries followed. The centres of the reactionary and papal party were abolished. The wealth and social importance of the Church were greatly diminished. The political power of the Church in the House of Lords was reduced. Those who were accused, with some reason, of making the ecclesiastical profession a cloak for idleness were dispersed.

These changes were not made without profoundly affecting English society. The bulk of the lower classes were attached to the old state of things, and suffered from the abolition of the monasteries. The number of those who were influenced by the teaching of Luther increased in activity. The middle class alone was satisfied, and Henry VIII took care to satisfy them in his measures. To define the position of the English Church, Ten Articles "to stablish Christian quietness" were put forward by the southern convocation in 1536, which asserted as "laudable ceremonies" the chief uses of the old Church. In 1537 was issued the "Bishop's Book," or "Institution of a Christen Man," which discarded the papal monarchy, but otherwise maintained the existing system. Free discussion of dogmatic questions was not according to Henry VIII's views. He valued his reputation for orthodoxy, and in 1539 the "Six Articles" inflicted the punishment of death on all who should call in question the chief dogmas and practices of the mediæval Church. So long as Henry VIII lived no further changes were made in the position of the Church of England. His strong hand kept contending parties from struggling, and his strong will impressed itself on the nation.

With the accession of Edward VI long pent-up antagonisms made themselves felt. One party, headed by Gardiner, Bishop of Winchester, was contented with the abolition of the papal headship, and was opposed to further change. The reforming party was divided into three chief bodies—one consisting of revolutionary sectaries, whose wild talk had already created alarm; another of advanced reformers who had absorbed much of the theology of the Swiss teacher Zwingli, and regarded the sacraments as external symbols; a third of more moderate reformers, headed by Cranmer, who leaned to the teaching of Luther and Melanchthon, were willing to reform superstitious errors, but held by the sacraments and the system of the Church. This last party succeeded in getting matters into their hands, and expressed their views in the First Prayer

Book of Edward VI, and in the "Book of the Homilies." The Prayer Book provided a uniform use for the service of the English Church; the homilies provided for the restoration of preaching as a means of teaching the people; the Bible was already translated. The practical character of the English Church was thus emphasized. It aimed at meeting the national needs, and appealed to the national intelligence. But the First Prayer Book did not satisfy the more ardent reformers, whose numbers were reinforced by a large influx of foreign teachers driven by religious persecution from the continent. Under their influence Cranmer's views developed, and in 1552 a second Prayer Book was issued, which simplified vestments, omitted some usages which were deemed superstitious, and remodelled the Communion service that it might be more acceptable to the followers of Zwingli and Calvin. The formularies of the Church were also set forth in Forty-two Articles, which in the main followed the ideas of the Saxon reformers, while retaining much of the conservatism which especially marked the beginnings of the English movement. No sooner had this been done than the accession of Mary (1553) produced a reaction, which the bulk of the people regarded with indifference. The progress of the Reformation under Edward VI had been too rapid. It had been accompanied by many outrages on the opinions of those who held by the old forms. It showed little tenderness or consideration for others, and was endured rather than welcomed.

Under Mary, Gardiner and his party prepared to return to a recognition of the papal headship. England was again reconciled to the papacy. Many of the English reformers fled to the continent; many who remained, amongst them Cranmer, suffered death for their opinions. But Mary's government was a failure. Her religious persecution was carried on in a spirit of narrow fanaticism, which stirred the popular mind against her. Her brief reign of five years undid the ill effects of the excessive zeal of the reformers under Edward VI, and disposed men to look regretfully on the reign and policy of Henry VIII.

Elizabeth had lived through both, and had conformed to Romanism under Mary. She made no change at first, but Anne Boleyn's daughter could not seriously contemplate a reconciliation with the papacy. Her first parliament in 1559 passed an act to "restore to the Crown the ancient jurisdiction over the estate ecclesiastical and spiritual, and abolish all foreign jurisdictions repugnant to the same." Elizabeth explained the meaning of the royal supremacy so re-established to be "under God to have the sovereignty and rule over all persons born within these her realms of what estate, either ecclesiastical or temporal, soever they be, so as no other foreign power shall or ought to have any superiority over them." At the same time heresy was defined to be what was contrary to the canonical Scriptures, or the first four general councils. The Prayer Book was revised and legalized, and uniformity of worship was enforced by an act bidding all men to resort to their parish church. The greater part of the Marian bishops refused to take the oath of supremacy, and were deprived of their sees. Matthew Parker, the new Archbishop of Canterbury, brought great learning and much moderation to the difficult task of reorganizing the English Church upon a basis which should be at once comprehensive and definite enough to form a strong institution. The exiles who had fled before Mary's persecution returned to England, strongly imbued with the ideas of Calvin. The Catholic party resented its loss of supremacy. Elizabeth supported as a compromise the system which her father had devised. The old order and ceremonies of the Church were left untouched, while room was made for the exercise of the spirit of personal religion. At first the Elizabethan system was not strong in its hold on the popular mind. It was tolerated because it was the only means of securing peace. Soon the feeling of the mass of the people gathered round it, and the events of the reign of Elizabeth identified it with the English spirit. A body of Calvinists, known as Puritans or Precisions, objected to some of its ceremonies, and to its episcopal organization. They vainly strove to make alterations, and the "Martin Marprelate" controversy (q.v.—1588) is a testimony to their zeal. They were strong in the House of Commons, and grew in strength under James I and Charles I, so that the Great Rebellion was as much a religious as a political controversy. On the other hand, the Romanists organized themselves into a political party. Elizabeth was excommunicated in 1570, and Jesuit missionaries flocked into England. They were persecuted, and the great mass of the English Catholics remained loyal to their queen and country against the attacks of Spain. Practically the reign of Elizabeth saw England established as a Protestant country. The Church of England has in the main adhered to the lines then laid down, while Romanists and Nonconformists have gradually been admitted to civil and religious equality.

F. Seebohm, "Oxford Reformers," 1867 and 1906; M. W. Patterson, "History of the Church of England," 1909; C. S. Carter, "English Church and the Reformation," 1912; W. H. Beckett, "Reformation," 3rd ed. 1926; R. H. Murray, "Political Consequences of the Reformation," 1926; C. Beard, "The Reformation," 1927.

[M. C.]

Reformation in Ireland. The parliament which met at Dublin in May 1536 rapidly copied the measures which the English parliament had just passed. In the first session the king was declared supreme head of the Church of Ireland, and given the first-fruits; and appeals to Rome were abolished. To facilitate the work, Poynings' Act was suspended, so that the English statutes needed only to be copied, and it was not necessary to send drafts to London and back. No opposi-

tion was offered by the laity; but the spiritual peers sturdily resisted the progress of the bills; and the proctors of the clergy (who were in Ireland members of parliament, though not apparently sitting with the Commons, but in a separate house) were so energetic in obstruction that the privy council decided that they had no right to vote, and caused an act to be passed in the next session depriving them of the privilege. In 1537 certain monasteries were suppressed, and this was soon followed by a general dissolution. A small part of the monastic revenues was transferred to bishoprics; but, as in England, the greater portion of the land was sold at nominal prices to private persons. An important part was played in these transactions by George Browne, the "Cranmer of Ireland," who had been provincial of the Austin Friars, and had been created Archbishop of Dublin in 1535. The Bidding Prayer issued by him in 1538 is the first document in which the union of the churches of England and Ireland is declared. Until the accession of Edward VI no change was made in worship or belief. But when an attempt was made by the council without act of parliament to enforce the use of Edward's Prayer Book the Archbishop of Armagh and most of the bishops and clergy refused to obey. Only Browne and five bishops accepted the new liturgy. As Armagh was in the land of O'Neill, and beyond the control of the council, the primacy was transferred to Dublin, and some of the vacant bishoprics were filled up by advanced reformers, of whom the most important was Bale of Ossory. Under Mary the old state of things was restored. Browne, the conforming bishops, and the married clergy were deprived. In the second year of Elizabeth a carefully packed parliament passed the Act of Uniformity (q.v.), and copied the contemporary English measures. Three bishops alone refused to conform; but in a large part of the country Mass continued to be performed, and where the new system was really introduced, the dissolution of the monasteries, which had in many places served the parish churches, left half the parishes without clergy. The English Church, which had been imposed by the English government, and was used as a means of anglicizing the Irish, never laid hold of the Irish people. They adhered firmly to the old opinions, and persecution only intensified their steadfastness. The disestablishment of the Irish Church in 1869 was an admission that the Reformation in Ireland had been a failure, and that the people were practically Roman Catholic.

R. Bagwell, "Ireland Under the Tudors," 1885; T. Olden, "Church of Ireland," 1897.

Reformation in Scotland. The Reformation was the first national movement in Scotland which originated with the people, who now came forward for the first time as a power in the state. By the beginning of the fifteenth century the Church in Scotland had become very unpopular. Favoured by the Crown it had amassed riches and lands. Its prelates held the great offices of state, and were arrogant and overbearing, delighting in displays of their pomp and power. This excited the jealousy of the baronage. The burden of the tithes and Church dues, and the greed and injustice that were exercised in extorting them by the clergy, in whom the spirit of avarice was dominant, woke the hatred of the people, who lent a willing ear to the reformed doctrines. These doctrines were imported by the fugitives, who fled over the border to seek safety from the Marian persecution in England. Sympathy with their sufferings overcame the prejudice against their nation, and roused a Protestant reaction among the people. Many of the landowners, inspired by a desire to get hold of the Church lands, joined the popular movement. The Reformers signed the bond which pledged them to united support [Covenant] in 1557. Abjuration of papal authority and adoption of the English Bible and Prayer Book were its principles. The "Lords of the Congregation," as the supporters of the bond were called, demanded of the regent, Mary of Guise, a reformation of religion in accordance with these principles. She refused, and summoned their preachers before the privy council. This roused a tumult. The mob, excited by John Knox (q.v.), rose in Perth, sacked the religious houses, and defaced the churches (1559). Their example was followed throughout the country. The regent employed French soldiers to quell the insurgents, and thereby excited a civil war. The Congregation took up arms and appealed to England for support. On the death of the regent the estates passed the Reformation Statutes, which abjured the authority of the pope, adopted the Genevan Confession of Faith, and declared the celebration of the Mass a capital offence (August 24, 1560). Thus the Church of Scotland was nominally separated from that of Rome. But these statutes were not confirmed by the Crown, for the queen, Mary Stuart, was in France. When she arrived in Scotland (1561), though she did not attempt to restore the old Church, she demanded toleration for herself and her attendants, and re-established the Mass in her private chapel. Meanwhile the ministers and the lairds fell out over the disposal of the Church lands. Most of the richest of the ecclesiastical estates had been already secured by laymen. Of the lands that were still unappropriated the privy council set aside one-third to pay the stipends of the ministers of the reformed Church. The rest remained in possession of the churchmen who held it, and as they died off it was to fall to the Crown. But the Lords refused to accept the "First Book of Discipline," a code of stringent statutes drawn up by the ministers for the government of the Church, even more tyrannical in spirit than the exactions of the old Church, which had been found so galling. For the Presbyters imagined that they had succeeded to the power of the pope, and assumed

the right of interfering in matters secular as well as spiritual. On the deposition of the queen (1567) the Earl of Moray, her half-brother, was made regent for the infant king. He had been foremost as a leader of the Congregation, and during his regency Presbyterianism was in the ascendant. The government of all ecclesiastical matters was committed to the General Assembly, a council of presbyters elected by their brethren. Liturgical worship, however, was not altogether swept away with the rites and ceremonies of the Romish Church. A prayer book, called the "Book of Common Order," was in daily use in the churches. Under the regency of Mar Episcopacy was again restored (1572). But the bishops were merely nominal, as they had neither lands nor dignities, and were subject to the authority of the General Assembly. In 1592 this shadowy Episcopacy was again abolished, and the Presbyterian polity established. Each Presbyter was supreme in his own parish. A certain number of parishes formed a presbytery or council of presbyters, who dispatched the ecclesiastical business of the district. The synod, composed of several presbyteries, was a court of appeal for matters of graver import, while the supreme court, the General Assembly, met yearly at Edinburgh. It was formed of ministers and laymen, elders as they were called, sent up as deputies by the several presbyteries. The king (or his commissioners) was the secular president. There was also a moderator elected from among the presbyters as acting president. The Covenant, based upon the principles of the first bond, was very generally signed, and the "Second Book of Discipline," drawn up by Andrew Melville, was accepted as a code for the government of the Church. Shortly afterwards the accession of King James to the English throne again restored Episcopacy. The General Assembly was not, however, abolished, though it was deprived of its despotic power. No change was made in the established form of worship. The attempt made by Charles I to substitute the English "Liturgy" for the "Book of Common Order," and a "Book of Canons" for the "Book of Discipline" led to the outbreak of the Civil War. Under Cromwell Presbyterianism was again established, and again displaced by Episcopacy under Charles II. After the Revolution the bishops and the episcopal clergy were turned out. The Presbyterian Church was re-established by law (1690). Since that date it has been the Church of Scotland. And at the Union the liberty of the Church was secured by a provision that the Presbyterian should be the only Church government in Scotland from that time forward.

Calderwood, "History of the Kirk of Scotland"; Spottiswoode, "History of the Church of Scotland"; P. Hume Brown, "History of Scotland," 1911; J. Knox, "History of the Reformation," revised by C. Lennox, 1905; R. H. Story (ed.), "The Church of Scotland," 5 vols., 1891; Cunningham, "Church History of Scotland"; Grub, "Ecclesiastical History of Scotland." [M. M.]

Reform Bills. The question of parliamentary reform, on which an agitation had arisen in 1769, and on which Pitt introduced an unsuccessful motion in 1782 and 1783, was first raised in a practical shape on April 18, 1785, when Pitt brought forward a bill proposing to disfranchise thirty-six rotten boroughs returning two members each, to give the members to the counties and to London and Westminster, and to extend the franchise to copyholders, and in towns to householders, setting aside £1,000,000 for compensation. The motion was rejected by 248 to 174. The outbreak of the French revolution a few years afterwards, and the European war, diverted men's minds from the subject, and produced a disinclination towards the extension of popular liberty. In 1790 both Burke and Pitt opposed Flood's parliamentary reform motion, which was negatived, and Grey's abortive motion of 1793 (rejected by 232 to 41) met with no better fate when brought forward again in 1797. The Fox ministry had no leisure, and the Portland ministry no inclination, to attend to the matter. In 1817 a motion of Sir Francis Burdett was lost by 265 to 77, and a bolder attempt of the same member to introduce manhood suffrage in the following year found not a single supporter besides the mover and seconder. In 1820 Lord John Russell carried a bill for withholding writs from the rotten boroughs of Camelford, Grampound, Penryn, and Barnstaple, which was thrown out by the Lords. Each year from 1821 to 1829 Lord John Russell or some other Whig introduced a motion for reform, which was invariably rejected. Huskisson's motion for the disfranchisement of Penryn and East Retford (q.v.) led (May 1828) to the secession of the Canningites from the Wellington cabinet. In February 1830 the Marquis of Blandford moved an amendment to the address in favour of reform, which was rejected by 96 to 11. The same year Calvert's bill to transfer the representation of East Retford to Birmingham, and Lord John Russell's motion to enfranchise Leeds, Manchester, and Birmingham, were rejected.

When Lord Grey became prime minister in 1830 the subject was at once taken up by the cabinet. On March 1, 1831, Lord John Russell introduced the Reform Bill. After most animated debates the second reading of the bill was carried (March 22) by a majority of one (302 to 301). On an amendment in committee for reducing the whole number of members the ministry were defeated (April 19). On April 22 parliament was dissolved, to meet again in June with the reformers in a great majority. The Reform Bill was again introduced (June 24), and on September 21 finally passed the Commons by 345 to 236, but was thrown out by the Lords (October 8) by 199 to 158. On December 12 a third Reform Bill was brought in and carried by a majority of 116 (March 23, 1832). The bill sent up to the Lords passed the second reading on April 14.

But on May 7 the peers, by a majority of 35, postponed the disfranchising clauses of the bill, thus virtually rejecting it. The king refused to create new peers, the ministers resigned, and the Duke of Wellington attempted to form a Tory ministry. But the attempt was hopeless, and the nation almost in a state of insurrection. On May 15 the Grey ministry returned to office, and the king intimated his readiness to create new peers if necessary. The Lords, however, at length gave way, and on June 4 the bill was passed by 106 to 22. The Reform Bill of 1832 disfranchised 56 boroughs having less than 2,000 inhabitants, and deprived 30 other boroughs of one member each. Of the 143 seats gained, 65 were given to the counties (making the total of county-seats 159), 22 of the large towns received two members each, and 21 others one each. A uniform £10 household franchise was established in boroughs, and in the counties the franchise was given to copyholders, leaseholders, and tenants-at-will holding property of the value of £50 and upwards. Reform Bills with analogous provisions were also passed for Scotland and Ireland in 1832.

Between 1832 and 1850 motions for further extending the franchise were frequently made and lost. In 1852 and 1854 Lord John Russell introduced Reform Bills which were withdrawn. In February 1859 Disraeli, on behalf of the Conservatives, introduced a bill designed to equalize the town and county franchise (fixed at £10 each) and to limit the forty-shilling freeholder to his borough-vote by depriving him of his county vote. This was defeated by 39 votes. In 1866 (March) a comprehensive Reform Bill was introduced by Gladstone. The "Adullamite" (q.v.) section of the Liberals had, however, seceded from their party, and the bill, after fierce debate, was carried only by 5 votes, and in June the government were defeated on an amendment. The Liberals resigned, and the Conservatives, in February 1867, brought forward and passed (August) Disraeli's Reform Bill of 1867. This bill conferred a household and lodger franchise in boroughs, though it still left a property qualification in counties [ELECTIONS].

Between 1872 and 1883 motions in favour of household franchise in the counties were moved (generally by G. O. Trevelyan) and rejected. In 1884 Gladstone introduced a Reform Bill intended to render the franchise uniform in England, Scotland, and Ireland, and to assimilate it in counties and boroughs. No provisions for the redistribution of seats were made, but the government undertook to bring in a bill dealing with the subject at an early date. After several amendments in favour of joining the Franchise Bill with a Redistribution Bill had been thrown out in the Commons, the bill passed its third reading in the Lower House by a majority of 130. The Lords, however, declared by a majority of 51 that no bill would be satisfactory which did not deal with the two subjects of extension of the franchise and redistribution. The two bills were brought in during the next session and carried.

No further changes in the franchise occurred until 1918, when the Representation of the People Act (q.v.), introduced by Mr. Walter Long, extended the vote to women of the age of 30 and over. The second Baldwin administration of 1924 took office pledged to accord the vote to women on the same terms as to men, to which end was passed the Equal Franchise Act of 1928.

J. R. M. Butler, "Passing of the Great Reform Bill," 1914; G. S. Veitch, "Genesis of Parliamentary Reform," 1913; C. Seymour, "Electoral Reform in England and Wales, 1832–85," 1915.

Regalia are the insignia of royalty, including various articles used at coronations and on state occasions. The most important of these were under the charge of the Abbot of Westminster till the Reformation; they are now preserved in the jewel office at the Tower of London. In 1649 the crowns were broken to pieces; new ones were made for the coronation of Charles II, and have been used ever since.

C. Davenport, "The English Regalia," 1897.

Regency may exist during the absence or the incapacity of the sovereign through nonage or disease. William I, on his visit to Normandy in 1067, left Odo, Bishop of Bayeux, and William FitzOsbern, Earl of Hereford, joint guardians of his kingdom, though he assigned to each a special province. When the functions of the chief justiciar became defined, the vicegerency of the kingdom was reckoned among them, though the relative rights of this officer and of the members of the royal house were not settled. Henry II, during his absence, caused his authority to be vested in his son, the younger Henry, even before he associated him with himself in the kingship. On the death of Henry II Eleanor acted as regent until the return of her son, and on the fall of the justiciar Longchamp, while Richard was on the crusade, the barons recognized John as the vicegerent of the kingdom. From the time of Henry III it became customary for the king to appoint certain lieutenants, and sometimes his eldest son, though an infant, to act during his absence. Accordingly William III, on leaving England in 1695, Queen Mary being then dead, appointed seven lords justices for that purpose. George I left the Prince of Wales as regent during his first absence from England, but never did so again on any like occasion. The question of the exercise of the royal authority during the absence of the monarch is now of little moment.

As the common law does not recognize incapacity in the sovereign, special provisions have been made as to regency when occasion required. On the accession of Henry III at the age of nine, the barons appointed the Earl of Pembroke as regent with the title *rector regis et regni*, and associated certain councillors with him. When Edward III succeeded his father at the age of fourteen the parliament

nominated a council to advise him. No regent was appointed during the nonage of Richard II, but the magnates in this case nominated the council. On the accession of Henry VI his uncle, the Duke of Gloucester, claimed the regency as next of kin, and by the will of the late king. Both these claims were disallowed by the council, and parliament constituted the Duke of Bedford protector, allowing Gloucester the protectorate during the absence of his brother in France. When the king fell ill in 1454 the Duke of York was appointed protector by the Lords, with the assent of the Commons. On his renewed illness the next year the Lords in again appointing the duke assumed the right of choice, though the assent of the Commons appears in the Act of Ratification. On the death of Edward IV his widow tried to obtain the guardianship of her son, but the Duke of Gloucester was made protector by the council. In 1536 parliament granted Henry VIII authority to name such guardians as he chose, in the event of his leaving a successor under eighteen if a male, or under sixteen if a female. The king accordingly appointed his sixteen executors as guardians of his son Edward VI, constituting them a council of government. In spite of this arrangement these councillors invested the Earl of Hertford with the protectorate.

After the death of Frederick, Prince of Wales, in 1751, parliament provided for a possible minority by enacting that the Princess of Wales should be regent and guardian of the king's person, and by nominating a council of regency to which the reigning king had the right of adding four members. George III, after a severe illness in 1765, wished parliament to allow him the right of appointing any person regent whom he chose. A bill, however, was passed naming the queen, the Princess of Wales, and any descendant of the late king as those from whom a regent might be selected. When the king was deprived of reason in 1788–9, Fox [Regency Bills (3)] asserted that the Prince of Wales had a *right* to the regency, and, though he substituted "legal claim" for "right," maintained that parliament had only to recognize the prince's claim, and could not lay restrictions on his authority. Pitt on the other hand declared that the prince had "no more right to the royal authority than any other subject," and having caused parliament to be opened by commission under the great seal, introduced a bill restricting the power and patronage of the proposed regent. The recovery of the king prevented the settlement of these questions for the time. On a like occasion in 1810 parliament passed a bill imposing restrictions on the regent's authority. The next Regency Bill, passed in 1830, provided that, in the event of the death of William IV before the Princess Victoria was of the age of eighteen, the Duchess of Kent should be regent, no council being appointed. As on the accession of Victoria the King of Hanover became heir presumptive, a Regency Act passed in 1837 provided that, on the decease of her Majesty, the royal function should be discharged by lords justices until the arrival of the king. Another act, passed on the marriage of Victoria in 1840, provided that, should her Majesty leave a successor under age, Prince Albert should be regent, without any council, and with full powers save that he might not assent to any bill for altering the succession, or affecting the rights of the Church of England or the Church of Scotland. When George V came to the throne a Regency Bill was again required, as his eldest son was under age; and Queen Mary was accordingly appointed. From these examples it will be gathered that the right of selecting the person and determining the power of a regent now pertains to the estates of the realm assembled in parliament. [For the various Regency Bills see the next article.] [W. H.]

Regency Bills. "In judgment of law the king, as king, cannot be said to be a minor," says Coke; he has, therefore, by common law no legal guardian, nor has any provision been made for the exercise of the regal authority during his youth or incapacity. It has accordingly been necessary to make special provision as occasion has arisen, and the various measures which have been adopted have been of considerable political importance.

(1) 1751. Upon the death of Frederick, Prince of Wales, an act was passed appointing the Princess of Wales regent in the event of the death of George II before the Prince of Wales was eighteen years old. She was to be assisted by a council of regency nominated in the act, to which the king was empowered to add four others.

(2) 1765. Upon the recovery of George III from his first attack of mental disease it was thought desirable to provide for the regency during any such illness as should incapacitate him, or in case of his death, during the childhood of his children. With his lofty views of royal power, George III was not ready to place the nomination of a regent in the hands of parliament, but proposed that parliament should confer on him the power of appointing any person he pleased as regent. He almost certainly intended to nominate the queen, but the ministers feared lest the Princess of Wales should be nominated, and thus her favourite, Bute, become all-powerful. George so far yielded to his ministers that he consented to the limitation of his choice "to the queen and any other person of the royal family usually resident in England," and a bill was introduced into the House of Lords to this effect. After the doubt as to whether the queen was naturalized, and so capable of acting as regent, had been set at rest by the opinion of the judges that marriage with the king naturalized her, the question arose as to the meaning of the term "the royal family," and most of the ministers, moved by hatred of Bute, declared it did not include the Princess of Wales. Having caused a resolution

introducing her name to be rejected, they persuaded the king to consent to the introduction of a clause limiting his choice to the queen and the descendants of the late king, on the ground that otherwise the Commons would exclude the princess by name. The Commons, however, reinserted her name, and this evidence of the duplicity of his ministers was one of the main causes of the fall of the Grenville ministry. It is to be noticed also that the act nominated a council of regency, consisting of the king's four brothers, his uncle, the Duke of Cumberland, and the great officers of state, and empowered the king, in the event of the death of a brother or of an uncle, to nominate another person in his place.

(3) 1788–9. In 1788 the king, after proroguing parliament, lost his reason, and it became necessary to provide for the regency. Parliament met without royal summons on the day to which it had been prorogued, and, after a fortnight's adjournment, proceeded to discuss the question. Fox laid down that "the Prince of Wales had as clear a right to exercise the power of sovereignty during the king's incapacity as if the king were actually dead, and that it was merely for the two Houses of Parliament to pronounce at what time he should commence the exercise of his right," while the premier, Pitt, declared that "unless by decision of parliament, the Prince of Wales had no more right—speaking of strict right—to assume the government than any other individual subject of the country." The position taken up by the two statesmen is explained by the fact that if the prince had become regent, Fox would at once have been made prime minister; and Pitt was anxious to delay the creation of a regent. In this he was assisted by the opposition, who resisted the proposal to limit the future regent's authority. At last, on February 5, 1789, after parliament had been formally opened by letters patent under the great seal affixed by authority of parliament, the bill, in which, among other limitations, the prince was forbidden to bestow peerages except on royal princes, was introduced in the Commons, and soon sent up to the Lords; but the king's sudden recovery put an end to further proceedings, and, though the king was anxious for some permanent provision for a regency, nothing was done.

(4) 1811. When George III's mind finally gave way the precedent of 1788–9 was followed exactly. The Bill passed the Lords on February 4, and consent was given to it by commission under great seal affixed by authority of parliament.

(5) 1830. The Duchess of Kent was appointed regent, in the event of the Princess Victoria succeeding to the throne before arriving at the age of eighteen. The regent was not to be controlled by a council, as in previous Regency Acts, but was to govern through the ordinary ministers.

(6) 1837. On the accession of Victoria, as the King of Hanover was presumptive heir, an act was passed providing, in the event of the queen's dying while the successor was abroad, for the carrying on of the government by lords justices until his return.

(7) 1840. Upon the marriage of Victoria an act was passed enacting that in the event of any child of the queen coming to the throne under the age of eighteen, Prince Albert should become regent, though without power to assent to any bill for altering the succession, or affecting the worship of the Church of England, or the rights of the Church of Scotland.

(8) 1910. When George V came to the throne his eldest son was under age. An act was therefore passed which appointed Queen Mary as regent. [F. S. P.]

Regicides, The. Those persons who sat in judgment on Charles I, or were instrumental in his death, were all at the Restoration included under this title. The ordinance nominating the High Court of Justice finally appointed 135 persons to judge the king. Not half of these attended the trial. The number present at the opening, counting Bradshaw, the president, was 67, and 67 also were present on January 27, 1649, when sentence was pronounced. Of these 67, 58 and one other person (Ingoldsby) signed the death warrant. At the Restoration the House of Commons ordered that "all those persons who sat in judgment upon the late king's majesty when the sentence was pronounced for his condemnation" should be forthwith secured (May 14). In all the House of Commons placed in the category 84 persons, viz., 67 present at the last sitting, 11 frequently present, 4 officers of the court, and 2 executioners. Out of these the Commons proposed to punish capitally only 12 persons, viz., 7 judges, 3 court officers, and 2 executioners. The House of Lords went farther, and proposed that all those who had been present at the last sitting, or signed the warrant, saving only Colonels Hutchinson, Tomlinson, and Ingoldsby—in all 66 persons—should be punished capitally. But the Commons resolutely opposed the Lords' amendment. In the Bill of Indemnity as it finally passed (August 29, 1660) the penalties of the Regicides were ordered as follows:—(1) Four dead Regicides excepted by posthumous attainder for high treason, viz., Cromwell, Ireton, Bradshaw, and Pride. (2) Twenty dead Regicides excepted as to their estates, to be subject to future fines or forfeiture. (3) Thirty living Regicides (viz., twenty-two judges and eight others) absolutely excepted. (4) Nineteen living Regicides excepted with a saving clause, stating that they might be legally attainted; but that their execution should be suspended "until his majesty, by the advice and assent of the Lords and Commons in parliament, shall order the execution by Act of Parliament to be passed for that purpose." (5) Six more living Regicides were excepted, but not capitally. (6) Two

Regicides excepted, but with the sole penalty of incapacitation for office, viz., Hutchinson and Lascelles. Tomlinson and Ingoldsby escaped without any penalties whatever. The trial of the Regicides took place before a court of thirty-four commissioners (October 1660). Twenty-nine were condemned to death, of whom ten were executed; the remaining nineteen, with six others who had not been tried, were mostly imprisoned till their deaths, though the fate of some is still obscure. There were still nineteen fugitives living in exile, of whom three were subsequently caught in Holland, brought over and executed, and one (Lisle) was assassinated in Switzerland.

Masson, "Life of Milton," vol. vi., 1880; Noble, "Lives of the Regicides," 1798. [C. H. F.]

Registration Act, The (1836), created an elaborate machinery for the registration of births, deaths, and marriages. It regulated the method of registration, the appointment of the necessary officials, and the creation of a central registry office at Somerset House under a registrar-general, who was to present annual reports to parliament. The system then established has remained substantially unaltered till the present day.

"Regium Donum" was the endowment of £1,200 a year granted by William III to the Presbyterian clergy of Ireland to reward them for their activity against James II. In 1695 the lords justices advised the discontinuance of the grant, but William refused consent. From 1711 to 1715 the Irish House of Lords succeeded in preventing its being paid. But on the accession of George I it was revived and increased to £2,000. In 1870, in consequence of the Irish Church Disestablishment Act, it was abolished, but a compensation was granted to all interested parties.

Regnal Years. The importance of extreme accuracy respecting the regnal years of the sovereigns of England is evident from the fact that after the reign of Henry II no other date of a year occurs in public documents than the year of the reign of the existing monarch, and that an error of one day in calculating the beginning of the regnal year may mean an error of one year when the date is translated. Except in the case of a sovereign acceding on January 1, every regnal year contains part of two consecutive Christian years. The following table is calculated according to the common and historical year—i.e., from January 1—but as the civil, legal, and ecclesiastical year for a long period began on March 25 all dates between January 1 and March 25 belong, according to the civil computation, to the year *before* the historical year. January 1 to March 25 of the first year of the reign of William I was in the civil year 1066 and not 1067. Similarly Edward III is sometimes said to have begun his reign on January 25, 1326, instead of January 25, 1327, etc.

William I

1	Dec.	25,	1066	9	Dec.	25,	1074	17	Dec.	25,	1082
	,,	24,	1067		,,	24,	1075		,,	24,	1083
5	,,	25,	1070	13	,,	25,	1078	21	,,	25,	1086
	,,	25,	1071		,,	24,	1079		Sept.	9,	1087

William II

1	Sept.	26,	1087	9	Sept.	26,	1095	13	Sept.	26,	1099
	,,	25,	1088		,,	25,	1096		Aug.	2,	1100
5	,,	26,	1091								
	,,	25,	1092								

Henry I

1	Aug.	5,	1100	13	Aug.	5,	1112	25	Aug.	5,	1124
	,,	4,	1101		,,	4,	1113		,,	4,	1125
5	,,	5,	1104	17	,,	5,	1116	29	,,	5,	1128
	,,	4,	1105		,,	4,	1117		,,	4,	1129
9	,,	5,	1108	21	,,	5,	1120	36	,,	5,	1135
	,,	4,	1109		,,	4,	1121		Dec.	1,	1135

Stephen

1	Dec.	26,	1135	9	Dec.	26,	1143	17	Dec.	26,	1151
	,,	25,	1136		,,	25,	1144		,,	25,	1152
5	,,	26,	1139	13	,,	26,	1147	19	,,	26,	1153
	,,	25,	1140		,,	25,	1148		Oct.	25,	1154

Henry II

1	Dec.	19,	1154	13	Dec.	19,	1166	25	Dec.	19,	1178
	,,	18,	1155		,,	18,	1167		,,	18,	1179
5	,,	19,	1158	17	,,	19,	1170	29	,,	19,	1182
	,,	18,	1159		,,	18,	1171		,,	18,	1183
9	,,	19,	1162	21	,,	19,	1174	35	,,	19,	1188
	,,	18,	1163		,,	18,	1175		July	6,	1189

Richard I

1	Sept.	3,	1189	5	Sept.	3,	1193	10	Sept.	3,	1198
	,,	2,	1190		,,	2,	1194		April	6,	1199

John

1	May	27,	1199	7	May	19,	1205	13	May	12,	1211
	,,	17,	1200		,,	10,	1206		,,	2,	1212
2	,,	18,	1200	8	,,	11,	1206	14	,,	3,	1212
	,,	2,	1201		,,	30,	1207		,,	22,	1213
3	,,	3,	1201	9	,,	31,	1207	15	,,	23,	1213
	,,	22,	1202		,,	14,	1208		,,	7,	1214
4	,,	23,	1202	10	,,	15,	1208	16	,,	8,	1214
	,,	14,	1203		,,	6,	1209		,,	27,	1215
5	,,	15,	1203	11	,,	7,	1209	17	,,	28,	1215
	June	2,	1204		,,	26,	1210		,,	18,	1216
6	,,	3,	1204	12	,,	27,	1210	18	,,	19,	1216
	May	18,	1205		,,	11,	1211		Oct.	19,	1216

Henry III

1	Oct.	28,	1216	21	Oct.	28,	1236	41	Oct.	28,	1256
	,,	27,	1217		,,	27,	1237		,,	27,	1257
5	,,	28,	1220	25	,,	28,	1240	45	,,	28,	1260
	,,	27,	1221		,,	27,	1241		,,	27,	1261
9	,,	28,	1224	29	,,	28,	1244	49	,,	28,	1264
	,,	27,	1225		,,	27,	1245		,,	27,	1265
13	,,	28,	1228	33	,,	28,	1248	53	,,	28,	1268
	,,	27,	1229		,,	27,	1249		,,	27,	1269
17	,,	28,	1232	37	,,	28,	1252	57	,,	28,	1272
	,,	27,	1233		,,	27,	1253		Nov.	16,	1272

Edward I

1	Nov.	20,	1272	13	Nov.	20,	1284	25	Nov.	20,	1296
	,,	19,	1273		,,	19,	1285		,,	19,	1297
5	,,	20,	1276	17	,,	20,	1288	29	,,	20,	1300
	,,	19,	1277		,,	19,	1289		,,	19,	1301
9	,,	20,	1280	21	,,	20,	1292	35	,,	20,	1306
	,,	19,	1281		,,	19,	1293		July	7,	1307

Edward II

1	July	8,	1307	9	July	8,	1315	17	July	8,	1323
	,,	7,	1308		,,	7,	1316		,,	7,	1324
5	,,	8,	1311	13	,,	8,	1319	20	,,	8,	1326
	,,	7,	1312		,,	7,	1320		Jan.	20,	1327

Edward III.

1	Jan. 25, 1327	21	Jan. 25, 1347	41	Jan. 25, 1367		
	„ 24, 1328		„ 24, 1348		„ 24, 1368		
5	„ 25, 1331	25	„ 25, 1351	45	„ 25, 1371		
	„ 24, 1332		„ 24, 1352		„ 24, 1372		
9	„ 25, 1335	29	„ 25, 1355	49	„ 25, 1375		
	„ 24, 1336		„ 24, 1356		„ 24, 1376		
13	„ 25, 1339	33	„ 25, 1359	51	„ 25, 1377		
	„ 24, 1340		„ 24, 1360		June 21, 1377		
17	„ 25, 1343	37	„ 25, 1363				
	„ 24, 1344		„ 24, 1364				

Richard II

1	June 22, 1377	9	June 22, 1385	17	June 22, 1393
	„ 21, 1378		„ 21, 1386		„ 21, 1394
5	„ 22, 1381	13	„ 22, 1389	23	„ 22, 1399
	„ 21, 1382		„ 21, 1390		Sept. 29, 1399

Henry IV

1	Sept. 30, 1399	9	Sept. 30, 1407	14	Sept. 30, 1412
	„ 29, 1400		„ 29, 1408		Mar. 20, 1413
5	„ 30, 1403	13	„ 30, 1411		
	„ 29, 1404		„ 29, 1412		

Henry V

1	Mar. 21, 1413	5	Mar. 21, 1417	10	Mar. 21, 1422
	„ 20, 1414		„ 20, 1418		Aug. 31, 1422

Henry VI

1	Sept. 1, 1422	17	Sept. 1, 1438	33	Sept. 1, 1454		
	Aug. 31, 1423		Aug. 31, 1439		Aug. 31, 1455		
5	Sept. 1, 1426	21	Sept. 1, 1442	37	Sept. 1, 1458		
	Aug. 31, 1427		Aug. 31, 1443		Aug. 31, 1459		
9	Sept. 1, 1430	25	Sept. 1, 1446	39	Sept. 1, 1460		
	Aug. 31, 1431		Aug. 31, 1447		Mar. 4, 1461		
13	Sept. 1, 1434	29	Sept. 1, 1450				
	Aug. 31, 1435		Aug. 31, 1451				

Edward IV

1	Mar. 4, 1461	13	Mar. 4, 1473	21	Mar. 4, 1481
	„ 3, 1462		„ 3, 1474		„ 3, 1482
5	„ 4, 1465	17	„ 4, 1477	23	„ 4, 1483
	„ 3, 1466		„ 3, 1478		April 9, 1483
9	„ 4, 1469				
	„ 3, 1470				

Edward V

1	April 9, 1483		
	June 25, 1483		

Richard III

1	June 26, 1483	3	June 26, 1485
	„ 25, 1484		Aug. 22, 1485

Henry VII

1	Aug. 22, 1485	13	Aug. 22, 1497	21	Aug. 22, 1505
	„ 21, 1486		„ 21, 1498		„ 21, 1506
5	„ 22, 1489	17	„ 22, 1501	24	„ 22, 1508
	„ 21, 1490		„ 21, 1502		April 21, 1509
9	„ 22, 1493				
	„ 21, 1494				

Henry VIII

1	April 22, 1509	17	April 22, 1525	33	April 22, 1541		
	„ 21, 1510		„ 21, 1526		„ 21, 1542		
5	„ 22, 1513	21	„ 22, 1529	37	„ 22, 1545		
	„ 21, 1514		„ 21, 1530		„ 21, 1546		
9	„ 22, 1517	25	„ 22, 1533	38	„ 22, 1546		
	„ 21, 1518		„ 21, 1534		Jan. 28, 1547		
13	„ 22, 1521	29	„ 22, 1537				
	„ 21, 1522		„ 21, 1538				

Edward VI

1	Jan. 28, 1547	5	Jan. 28, 1551	7	Jan. 28, 1553
	„ 27, 1548		„ 27, 1552		July 6, 1553

Mary

1	July 6, 1553	2	July 6, 1554
	„ 5, 1554		„ 24, 1554

Philip and Mary

1	July 25, 1554	5	July 25, 1558
	„ 24, 1555		Nov. 17, 1558

Elizabeth

1	Nov. 17, 1558	17	Nov. 17, 1574	33	Nov. 17, 1590		
	„ 16, 1559		„ 16, 1575		„ 16, 1591		
5	„ 17, 1562	21	„ 17, 1578	37	„ 17, 1594		
	„ 16, 1563		„ 16, 1579		„ 16, 1595		
9	„ 17, 1566	25	„ 17, 1582	41	„ 17, 1598		
	„ 16, 1567		„ 16, 1583		„ 16, 1599		
13	„ 17, 1570	29	„ 17, 1586	45	„ 17, 1602		
	„ 16, 1571		„ 16, 1587		Mar. 24, 1603		

James I

1	Mar. 24, 1603	13	Mar. 24, 1615	21	Mar. 24, 1623
	„ 23, 1604		„ 23, 1616		„ 23, 1624
5	„ 24, 1607	17	„ 24, 1619	23	„ 24, 1625
	„ 23, 1608		„ 23, 1620		„ 27, 1625
9	„ 24, 1611				
	„ 23, 1612				

Charles I

1	Mar. 27, 1625	13	Mar. 27, 1637	21	Mar. 27, 1645
	„ 26, 1626		„ 26, 1638		„ 26, 1646
5	„ 27, 1629	17	„ 27, 1641	24	„ 27, 1648
	„ 26, 1630		„ 26, 1642		Jan. 30, 1649
9	„ 27, 1633				
	„ 26, 1634				

Charles II

1	Jan. 30, 1649	17	Jan. 30, 1665	29	Jan. 30, 1677		
	„ 29, 1650		„ 29, 1666		„ 29, 1678		
5	„ 30, 1653	21	„ 30, 1669	33	„ 30, 1681		
	„ 29, 1654		„ 29, 1670		„ 29, 1682		
9	„ 30, 1657	25	„ 30, 1673	37	„ 30, 1685		
	„ 29, 1658		„ 29, 1674		Feb. 6, 1685		
13	„ 30, 1661						
	„ 29, 1662						

James II

1	Feb. 6, 1685	4	Feb. 6, 1688
	„ 5, 1686		Dec. 11, 1688

William and Mary

1	Feb. 13, 1689	5	Feb. 13, 1693	6	Feb. 13, 1694
	„ 12, 1690		„ 12, 1694		Dec. 27, 1694

William III

7	Dec. 28, 1694	11	Dec. 28, 1698	14	Dec. 28, 1701
	„ 27, 1695		„ 27, 1699		Mar. 8, 1702

Anne

1	Mar. 8, 1702	9	Mar. 8, 1710	13	Mar. 8, 1714
	„ 7, 1703		„ 7, 1711		Aug. 1, 1714
5	„ 8, 1706				
	„ 7, 1707				

George I

1	Aug. 1, 1714	9	Aug. 1, 1722	13	Aug. 1, 1726
	July 31, 1715		July 31, 1723		June 11, 1727
5	Aug. 1, 1718				
	July 31, 1719				

George II

1	June 11, 1727	17	June 11, 1743	29	June 11, 1755		
	„ 10, 1728		„ 10, 1744		„ 10, 1756		
5	„ 11, 1731	21	„ 11, 1747	33	„ 11, 1759		
	„ 10, 1732		„ 10, 1748		„ 10, 1760		
9	„ 11, 1735	24	„ 11, 1751	34	„ 11, 1760		
	„ 10, 1736		„ 10, 1752		Oct. 25, 1760		
13	„ 11, 1739						
	„ 10, 1740						

George III

1	Oct. 25, 1760	25	Oct. 25, 1784	45	Oct. 25, 1804		
	„ 24, 1761		„ 24, 1785		„ 24, 1805		
5	„ 25, 1764	29	„ 25, 1788	49	„ 25, 1808		
	„ 24, 1765		„ 24, 1789		„ 24, 1809		
9	„ 25, 1768	33	„ 25, 1792	53	„ 25, 1812		
	„ 24, 1769		„ 24, 1793		„ 24, 1813		
13	„ 25, 1772	37	„ 25, 1796	57	„ 25, 1816		
	„ 24, 1773		„ 24, 1797		„ 24, 1817		
17	„ 25, 1776	41	„ 25, 1800	60	„ 25, 1819		
	„ 24, 1777		„ 24, 1801		Jan. 29, 1820		
21	„ 25, 1780						
	„ 24, 1781						

GEORGE IV

1	Jan. 29, 1820	9	Jan. 29, 1828	11	Jan. 29, 1830
	„ 28, 1821		„ 28, 1829		June 26, 1830
5	„ 29, 1824				
	„ 28, 1825				

WILLIAM IV

1	June 26, 1830	5	June 26, 1834	7	June 26, 1836
	„ 25, 1831		„ 25, 1835		„ 20, 1837

VICTORIA

1	June 20, 1837	25	June 20, 1861	49	June 20, 1885
	„ 19, 1838		„ 19, 1862		„ 19, 1886
5	„ 20, 1841	29	„ 20, 1865	53	„ 20, 1889
	„ 19, 1842		„ 19, 1866		„ 19, 1890
9	„ 20, 1845	33	„ 20, 1869	57	„ 20, 1893
	„ 19, 1846		„ 19, 1870		„ 19, 1894
13	„ 20, 1849	37	„ 20, 1873	61	„ 20, 1897
	„ 19, 1850		„ 19, 1874		„ 19, 1898
17	„ 20, 1853	41	„ 20, 1877	64	„ 20, 1900
	„ 19, 1854		„ 19, 1878		Jan. 22, 1901
21	„ 20, 1857	45	„ 20, 1881		
	„ 19, 1858		„ 19, 1882		

EDWARD VII

1	Jan. 22, 1901	9	Jan. 22, 1909	10	Jan. 22, 1910
	„ 21, 1902		„ 21, 1910		May 6, 1910
5	„ 22, 1905				
	„ 21, 1906				

GEORGE V

1	May 6, 1910	9	May 6, 1918	15	May 6, 1926
	„ 5, 1911		„ 5, 1919		„ 5, 1927
5	„ 6, 1914	13	„ 6, 1922	16	„ 6, 1927
	„ 5, 1915		„ 5, 1923		

J. E. W. Wallis, "English Regnal Years and Titles," 1921.

Regni, THE, were a British tribe whose chief town was Regnum, the modern Chichester.

Regulating Act, LORD NORTH'S (1773), was the first important intervention of the British government in the direct administration of British India. The difficulties of the East India Company drove them in 1772 to seek a loan from parliament, and the ministry in consequence brought in a bill for the better government of India, which was carried in spite of the opposition of the India House. Its provisions were that the administration of Bengal should be vested in a governor-general and four councillors, and that this government should be supreme over the other presidencies; that the first governor-general and councillors, who were nominated in the act, should hold office for five years, and be irremovable except by the Crown on representation of the court of directors; that vacancies should be supplied by the court subject to the approbation of the Crown; that a Supreme Court of Judicature should be established at Calcutta to consist of a chief justice and four puisne judges to be nominated by the Crown and paid by the company; that the qualification for a vote in the India House should be the possession of £1,000 stock, and that the possession of more should entitle to a plurality of votes in a fixed proportion; that the directors should be elected for four years, and that one-fourth of the entire number should be renewed annually; that all the company's correspondence relating to civil and military affairs, the government of the country, or the administration of the revenues, should be laid before one of his Majesty's secretaries of state, and that no servant of the Crown or company should receive presents. The Regulating Act was revised in 1783 by Fox's India Bill, which, however, failed to become law, and by Pitt's India Bill of 1784.

Remonstrance, THE GRAND. In the first week after the Long Parliament met, it was moved by Lord Digby "to draw up such a remonstrance to the king as should be a faithful and lively representation of the state of the kingdom." In the following August it was resolved that this proposal should be adopted, and the Remonstrance was brought forward on November 8, finally discussed on the 22nd, and passed by 159 votes to 148. It was presented to the king on December 1, ordered to be printed on the 15th, and answered by Charles on December 23. In aim and substance the Remonstrance was "an appeal to the nation rather than address to the Crown." It stated the case of the Commons against the king, described the condition in which they had found the nation, what reforms they had already effected, what they proposed for the future, and what difficulties they had to struggle against. The preamble explained the causes which made a remonstrance necessary. Clauses 1 to 104 traced the history of the king's misgovernment from his accession to the meeting of the Long Parliament. Clauses 105 to 142 described the abuses abolished and the reforms effected and prepared by the parliament. Clauses 143 to 180 enumerated the obstructions to the work of reformation, evil counsellors and slanderers, the army plots, and the Irish rebellion. Clauses 181 to 191 explained and defended the scheme of the parliamentary leaders for the reform of the Church. The last fourteen clauses (192 to 206) pointed out the remedial measures the Commons demanded: the establishment of certain safeguards against the Roman Catholic religion; securities to be given for the better administration of justice; the king to choose for ministers and agents such persons as parliament "might have cause to confide in." The earlier clauses, which merely set forth the king's past misgovernment, were adopted without opposition, but the ecclesiastical clauses met with an able and vigorous opposition from Hyde, Colepepper, and others. The final debate also was long and excited, and the two questions whether the Remonstrance should be printed, and whether the minority might enter their protestations, nearly led to a personal struggle. It was the fact that it was a party manifesto which led to this opposition, and brought the Civil War nearer.

J. Forster, "The Grand Remonstrance," 1860.

[C. H. F.]

Remonstrants, THE. In 1650 a schism took place amongst the Scottish Presbyterians. Warned by the defeat of Dunbar (September 3), and the attempt of Charles II to join the Scottish Royalists, Argyll and his followers

determined to unite with the Royalists to oppose Cromwell. Against this policy two leading divines, James Guthrie and Patrick Gillespie, with Johnston of Warriston, and the chiefs of the rigid Presbyterians of the south-west, presented to the committee of Estates "a remonstrance of the gentlemen commanders and ministers attending the forces in the west" (October 30, 1650). Those who joined in this opposition were called Remonstrants or Protesters.

P. Hume Brown, "History of Scotland," 1911.

Repeal Agitation. [IRISH REPEAL AGITATION.]

Repingdon, PHILIP (*d.* 1424), was one of the chief supporters of Wyclif at Oxford, but subsequently being alarmed at the progress of Lollardy he became one of its strongest opponents. In 1404 he was made Bishop of Lincoln and in 1408 cardinal by the pope, but in 1419 he resigned the see, perhaps because of the irregularity of his acceptance of the cardinalate. He seems to have lived in obscurity for the rest of his life.

Representation. [ELECTIONS; PARLIAMENT.]

Representation of the People Act, THE (1918), was introduced as a bill by Mr. Walter Long on May 15, 1917, after the report of a Speaker's conference established in 1916 to deal with the question of electoral reform. It was designed to prohibit the exercise by anyone of more than two votes, and to accord a parliamentary vote to all women of 30 and over who were entitled to the municipal franchise. The bill passed its second reading by 329 votes to 40, reached the Lords in December, and became law on February 6, 1918. The strong desire of the Lords to insert a clause providing for porportional representation (q.v.) resulted in a compromise, whereby not more than 100 members might be elected by proportional representation if constituencies so desired. The act in its final form made occupation as owner or tenant for six months the basis of the municipal franchise for men and women of 21 and over; and accorded a parliamentary vote to women of 30 and over eligible to vote in local government elections and a second vote to holders of University degrees. Plural voting was restricted to two votes, and receipt of poor relief was made no longer a disqualification. The maximum amount of election expenses also was fixed—at 7d. per elector in counties and 5d. in boroughs. The act added 13,000,000 new voters to the register. [REFORM BILLS.]

Representative Peers are those peers of Scotland and Ireland selected by their order to represent them in the House of Lords. By the Act of Union with Scotland (1707) it was enacted that Scotland should be represented in the British House of Lords by 16 peers chosen by the whole body of the Scottish nobility (at that time numbering 154). The proportion of Scottish to English members of parliament had been fixed at one to twelve, and the same proportion was observed in the House of Lords. The representative peers were to be elected for each parliament by open voting, and proxies of absent nobles were allowed. No fresh Scottish peerages were in future to be created. In 1711 the House of Lords denied the right of Scottish non-representative peers who had been given English peerages to sit among them. This, however, did not prevent the conferring of English titles on the eldest sons of Scottish peers, and after a decision of the judges in 1782 the Crown recommenced to grant patents of peerage in Great Britain to Scottish peers. More than half the Scottish peers are now also peers of England, and ultimately only 16 will remain without an hereditary right to sit, and these will perhaps be made hereditary peers of parliament. It may be added that one of the proposals of the Peerage Bill of 1719 was to substitute 25 hereditary for 16 elected peers from Scotland.

By the Act of Union with Ireland (1800), 28 Irish representative peers were added to the House of Lords: these, however, were to be elected for life, and not, as in Scotland, for one parliament only. A new Irish peerage was to be created only when three became extinct. But when the number fell to 100 it was to be kept at that figure by the creation of one new peerage whenever a peerage became extinct, or an Irish peer became a peer of Great Britain.

"Lords' Report on the Dignity of a Peer."

Requests, THE COURT OF, was an offshoot of the council in its judicial capacity. Its origin has often been assigned to an order of 13 Richard II requiring the keeper of the privy seal and a certain number of the council to meet between eight and nine o'clock a.m. in order to examine and dispatch the bills of people of lesser charge. Actually it appears to have been a much later development, although the jurisdiction which it exercised was of great antiquity. A special committee was appointed by Henry VII to hear the petitions of poor persons, and in 1516 or 1517 this was permanently housed by Wolsey in Whitehall. The name Court of Requests does not appear before 1529. The court was finally abolished, together with the Star Chamber, by the Long Parliament. There were also local tribunals, known as Courts of Request or Courts of Conscience, for the recovery of small debts, limited at first to sums under 40s., and afterwards under £5. The first of these was established by act of parliament in 1625; and similar courts were soon afterwards set up by act of parliament in various parts of the kingdom. They proved, however, very inadequate, and were suppressed by the County Court Act of 1846.

J. S. Leadam, "Select Cases in the Court of Requests."

Rescissory Act, THE, was an act passed by the Scottish parliament in 1661.

It rescinded or cut off from the body of the law all the statutes passed in the parliament of 1640 or subsequently. This withdrew from the statute-book all legislation later than the year 1633, for the parliament of 1639 passed no statutes. It was proposed by Sir Thomas Primrose with the object of annulling the acts establishing Presbyterianism in Scotland. It was brought in and passed in one day (March 28), and immediately approved by Lord Middleton, the high commissioner, without waiting for leave from the king. Burnet dubs it "a most extravagant thing, only fit to be concluded after a drunken bout."

Burnet, "History of His Own Time," ed. O. Airy, 2 vols., 1897–1900.

Resolutioners was the name given to the supporters of the coalition between the Scottish Royalists and the Presbyterian party proposed by the Argyll government in the autumn of 1650. In the kirk commission, which met at Perth, a resolution was passed (November 4) empowering the government to relax the Act of Classes (q.v.) and allow the Royalists to take part in the war. Those who supported this policy were called Resolutioners.

Responsibility of Ministers. [Ministerial Responsibility.]

Restoration, The, of 1660, was merely the completion of a process which had begun as far back as 1653 with the establishment of the Protectorate of Oliver Cromwell. The monarchical principle, disavowed in 1649, was thus early readmitted into the constitution, and what was restored in 1660 was rather the Stuart dynasty, the Lords, and the Church than the institution of monarchy itself. The first expedient adopted by the army after the retirement of Richard Cromwell in 1659 was the recall of the Rump Parliament, to which were added in January 1660 such of the members "secluded" in 1648 as were still available. In February General Monck and the army of Scotland entered London, and next month the reconstituted Long Parliament dissolved itself, after having appointed Monck commander-in-chief of the forces in England, Scotland, and Ireland, and provided for the election of a convention to settle the government. On April 14 Charles issued from Breda his famous Declaration (q.v.), and eleven days later the Convention Parliament assembled and passed a resolution to the effect that "according to the ancient and fundamental laws of the kingdom, the government is, and ought to be, by King, Lords, and Commons." On May 8 Charles was proclaimed, and three weeks later he entered London amid wild rejoicings. In the course of the next year the settlement of the country was carried through by the Convention (now declared a true parliament), in accordance with the terms of the Declaration of Breda. An Act of Indemnity and Oblivion was passed in August 1660, from which only the regicides and four others were excluded. A land settlement was effected on the basis of the restoration of all Church and Crown lands and of confiscated Royalist estates; and the army was disbanded with the exception of a few troops reserved to Charles as a bodyguard. In addition, an annual revenue of £1,200,000 was assigned to the king for life; and certain of the measures of the Interregnum (including the Navigation Ordinance of 1651 and the ordinance abolishing feudal tenures of 1656) were re-enacted. The settlement of the Church was reserved for the new parliament which assembled in April 1661, and was given statutory expression in the series of enactments popularly known as the Clarendon Code (q.v.). The fact that no attempt was made in 1660 to exact from the restored monarch any specific pledges of constitutional government is significant of the spirit in which the Restoration was effected. The theory upon which it rested—viz., that Charles had reigned from the day of his father's execution—was in itself a vindication of the doctrines of divine right in their completest form. On the whole, however, it may be said that the main achievements of the first session of the Long Parliament were preserved; and that the rehabilitation of the royal authority at the end of Charles's reign was as much the result of accident as of the defects inherent in the Restoration Settlement. [Charles II; Convention Parliament.]

C. H. Firth, "Last Years of the Protectorate, 1656–8," 2 vols. 1909; S. R. Gardiner, "Select Documents of the Puritan Revolution."

[H. M. C.]

Resumption Bill (1700). At the time of the conquest of Ireland by William III a bill had been introduced providing for the application to the public service of forfeited Irish lands. This bill, however, had not been carried through, and William had freely disposed of the forfeitures—some 1,700,000 acres in all. Of this a quarter was restored to the Catholics in accordance with the Articles of Limerick; sixty-five other great proprietors were reinstated by royal clemency; and a part was bestowed on persons who had commanded in the war, among them Ginkel and Galway. But the greater part was lavishly granted to courtiers and favourites, chief among them Woodstock, Albemarle, and Lady Orkney. In 1699 the Commons "tacked" to a Land Tax Bill a clause nominating seven commissioners to examine into forfeitures. The majority report of these commissioners, with its exaggeration of the value of the grants and bitter attacks upon the government for favouring Catholics, was welcomed by the Commons, who finally passed a Resumption Bill, appointing trustees, in whose hands the lands were to be vested. This they again tacked to the Land Tax Bill. The Lords were inclined to resist, but the country was on the side of the Commons, and the peers were induced to yield (April 10).

Burnet, "History of His Own Time," ed. O. Airy, 2 vols. 1897–1900.

Revenue. [Taxation.]

Revolution, The (1688–9), is the name usually given to the series of events by which James II was expelled, and William and Mary established on the throne. Two events precipitated James's fall—the trial of the Seven Bishops (q.v.) and the birth of the Prince of Wales. So long as the clergy could expect that in a few years James would be succeeded by the Princess Mary, they were able patiently to bear reverses. But the prince would be brought up a papist, and take the leading place, surrounded by papist counsellors. So necessary was it to the success of James's plans that Mary of Modena should have a son, that the majority of the people sincerely believed the Jesuits had schemed a great imposture. The whole nation, Whig and Tory, were anxious to be saved from the rule of a Catholic prince, however parties might differ as to the means to be employed.

Such was the state of things when, on June 30, 1688, an invitation was sent to William of Orange to come to England at once with an armed force. It was signed by seven persons of influence—the Earl of Devonshire, one of the chiefs of the Whig party; the Earl of Shrewsbury; the Earl of Danby; Compton, Bishop of London; Henry Sidney, brother of Algernon Sidney; Lord Lumley, and Edward Russell. The Prince of Orange at once determined upon action. The birth of the young prince destroyed the hopes which he had built upon the probability of his wife's accession to the English throne. If he could succeed in dethroning James, he might expect to gain far more power than that of a king-consort; if he could bring the power of England into the confederation against Louis XIV his pre-eminence among the allies would be assured. But there were almost insuperable difficulties in the way. The magistrates of Amsterdam had long been opposed to the Orange princes and attached to France; the opposition of one town would be sufficient to prevent the States-General from consenting to the expedition to England, and if it did not altogether stop it, might cause a dangerous delay. If Louis determined to begin the impending war by an attack upon Holland, William's troops must be retained at home to defend their country. And, finally, if only James could induce his English troops to fight one battle against the Dutch invaders, whatever its issue might be, national feeling would be enlisted upon his side, and he might be able to retain his throne. But the revocation of the Edict of Nantes and the recent alterations in the French tariff had destroyed the French party in Amsterdam, and all the states and towns of the republic were enthusiastic in support of Orange. The preparations which were being made in Holland did not escape the observation of the French ambassador, and his master did what he could to save James. A French envoy was sent to London to offer naval assistance. But James petulantly declared he would not be patronized; the French envoy could gain no answer to his message; and the European powers were informed that the close alliance of England and France was a mere invention on the part of Louis. In anger Louis left James to his fate; he determined to open the war by an invasion of Germany, and William could venture for a while to leave Holland unprotected. In his negotiations with Catholic powers William was able to represent his undertaking as one which had little to do with religion, and his expedition certainly had the good wishes of the sovereign pontiff. And the folly of James in bringing Irish troops into England, and William's wise policy of putting forward his English supporters on every occasion when a conflict seemed likely to occur, threw national sympathy on the side of the Prince of Orange, and removed his most formidable difficulty.

Before the expedition started, a declaration was drawn up and published. It set forth that the fundamental laws of England had been violated, illegal measures had been taken to favour Catholics, prelates venturing to petition their sovereign had been imprisoned, judges had been dismissed, and preparations were being made to bring together a packed parliament. Moreover, just doubts were entertained as to the birth of the Prince of Wales. For these reasons, it was declared, William was about to enter England with an army in order to assemble a free parliament, to whose decision all the questions in dispute should be referred.

James was terrified when at last he heard of the impending storm. A formidable fleet was put under the command of Lord Dartmouth, and troops were brought from Scotland and Ireland. All the dismissed magistrates and deputy-lieutenants were replaced, and a proclamation was issued announcing the king's intention to abandon the attempt to repeal the Test Act, and his desire to carry out the Act of Uniformity. Witnesses were brought before the privy council to prove the birth of the young prince; and at the request of the bishops the Court of High Commission was abolished and the borough charters restored. But these concessions were too evidently dictated by fear to be of use, and James still obstinately refused to give up the Dispensing Power.

On October 19 William set sail from Helvoetsluys with a force of some 14,000 men, the fleet being wisely placed under the command of the Englishman Herbert. He was driven back by a gale, but set out again on November 1. A favouring breeze carried the fleet into the Channel, while it held Dartmouth in the Thames; on the 5th William landed unmolested at Torbay. Thence he proceeded to Exeter, where he began to be joined by the neighbouring gentry. Soon the defections from James became numerous; very significant was the desertion of Clarendon's son, Viscount Corn-

bury, doubtless prompted by Churchill. James at once set out for Salisbury, but here Churchill and Grafton left him, and no longer daring to trust his army, the king returned to London. On his way he was abandoned by Prince George and Ormondê, and when he reached the capital he found that the Princess Anne had taken flight. In desperation the king yielded to the advice of the council, and issued writs for a parliament. Halifax, Nottingham, and Godolphin were appointed commissioners to treat with William, but this negotiation, as James told Barillon, was only a feint to gain time. Meanwhile the prince had advanced to Hungerford, and there, on December 8, the commissioners met him. William's terms were scrupulously moderate; all questions should be referred to a parliament, and in order that its deliberations might be free, neither army should come within 40 miles of the capital, though James and William were each to be allowed to visit Westminster with a bodyguard. These terms were arranged on December 9; on the 10th Mary of Modena and the young prince were sent out of the country under the care of the Count of Lauzun, and next day James himself took flight. Such peers as were in London met in the Guildhall under the presidency of Sancroft, and drew up a declaration that now that the king had left the country they had determined to join with the Prince of Orange, and until his arrival would act as a provisional government. But greatly to the vexation of William, James was stopped in his flight, and returned to London. It now became William's object to terrify him into again leaving the country. Remaining himself at Windsor, William sent Dutch troops to occupy Whitehall, and peremptorily insisted that James should remove to Ham. Again meditating flight, James proposed Rochester instead, and to this Orange readily consented. Next day, December 19, William entered London, and on the 22nd James fled from Rochester, and this time succeeded in reaching France.

William had already called together the Lords and the members of Charles II's parliaments, together with the City magistrates. These advised the prince to assume the administration provisionally, and summon a parliamentary convention. The Convention Parliament (q.v.) met on January 22, 1689. One party, especially among the clergy, were in favour of negotiating with James and restoring him upon conditions, but they could scarcely venture to propose this when James was himself issuing manifestos declaring all their grievances imaginary. Another party, headed by Sancroft, proposed that the royal title should be left to James, but that the government should be put into the hands of William with the title of regent. A third but smaller section, the chiefs of which were Danby and Compton, urged that by the flight of James the throne had been vacated, that judgment must go by default against the claims of the young prince, and that Mary was already *de jure* queen. But Mary refused to exclude her husband from the throne, and William himself declared that he would not remain merely as his wife's usher. The Whigs, meanwhile, were unanimous in proposing to confer the crown on William and Mary together, and to put the executive into the hands of the prince, and after long discussions this was agreed to by both Houses. The principal resolution of the Commons accepted by the Lords ran thus: "King James the Second, having endeavoured to subvert the constitution of the kingdom by breaking the original contract between king and people, and by the advice of Jesuits and other wicked persons having violated the fundamental laws, and having withdrawn himself out of the kingdom, has abdicated the government, and the throne has thereby become vacant." Of this resolution, as Macaulay justly says, the one beauty is its inconsistency; "There was a phrase for every subdivision of the majority. The mention of the original contract gratified the disciples of Sidney. The word abdication conciliated politicians of a more timid school. There were, doubtless, many fervent Protestants who were pleased with the censure cast on the Jesuits. To the real statesman the single important clause was that which declared the throne vacant; and, if that clause could be carried, he cared little by what preamble it might be introduced." On February 13 the crown was offered to William and Mary, accompanied by the Declaration of Rights. This they accepted, and the same day were proclaimed king and queen.

The same general plan had been followed in Scotland. There the withdrawal of troops had left the ground clear for the Whig lords. While the Covenanters rose in the west, and carried out a violent ecclesiastical change, the leading peers went to London, and advised William to call a Convention of Estates. This was done, and upon its advice the Estates were summoned for March 14. After an easily balked attempt of the Jacobite minority to hold a rival convention, a declaration was drawn up almost in the same terms as in England, with the addition that prelacy was an insupportable grievance. In Ireland, Londonderry and Enniskillen declared for William, but the rest of the country under Tyrconnel's administration remained firm in its allegiance to James, and not till the Irish had been crushed in war was the Revolution settlement accepted by them.

Burnet, "History of His Own Time," ed. O. Airy, 1897–1900 (criticized in Ranke, "English History," vi, and compared with the Dutch Reports); G. M. Trevelyan, "England Under the Stuarts."

[W. J. A.]

Reynolds, Walter, Archbishop of Canterbury 1313–27, was a man of humble origin. He was a clerk in the household of Edward I, who is said subsequently to have made him preceptor to Prince Edward, of whose wardrobe

Salisbury Cathedral and became the spiritual he later became keeper. He obtained a considerable influence over the prince, and on Edward II's accession Reynolds was made treasurer, and Bishop of Worcester. In 1310 he was made chancellor. On the death of Winchelsey the king obtained from the pope his nomination to the archbishopric, although the chapter had elected Thomas de Cobham. After some months Reynolds resigned the great seal. Later on he sided with the queen against his benefactor. He crowned Prince Edward, and preached the coronation sermon. It has been said that few archbishops of Canterbury have been less fit for their work, yet Reynolds made some effort to remedy ecclesiastical abuses, and zealously upheld the rights of his see.

Rhé, Expedition to, 1627. In 1627 a rupture took place between England and France, and Charles I resolved to defend the independence of the French Protestants, and maintain his own claim to the mastery of the sea. For both these objects the possession of the island of Rhé, lying in face of Rochelle, and commanding the commerce between France and Spain, would be valuable. The English fleet, commanded by the Duke of Buckingham, sailed on June 27, and a landing was made on the island on July 12. St. Martin's, the capital, was besieged from July 17 to October 29. The destruction by a storm of the expedition destined to reinforce the besiegers, and the failure of an assault attempted on October 27, combined with the landing of a French force in the island, compelled the duke to raise the siege. These French troops, to the number of 6,000, commanded by Marshal Schomberg, had gradually been collected at the fort of La Prée, which Buckingham had neglected to take immediately after his landing. They now assailed the English during their retreat, and inflicted a very heavy loss on them.

Lord Herbert of Cherbury, "The Expedition to the Isle of Rhé." [C. H. F.]

Rhode Island. [American Colonies.]

Rhodes, Cecil John (1853–1902), having completed his education at Oxford, went to South Africa, and by his astute direction of diamond mines at Kimberley acquired a large fortune. Turning to politics, he soon became a member of the Cape government—that of Sir T. Scanlon. When the Sprigg ministry fell in 1890 he became premier, and held the office until early in 1896, when, as a result of Dr. Jameson's abortive raid into the Transvaal, he resigned. For his share in promoting the raid he was severely censured by the House of Commons Inquiry Committee in July 1897. As director of the British South Africa Company, he, in 1893, conducted the campaign against the Matabele. He died in 1902. He was a business man of genius, a politician of a robust understanding, and an imperial statesman of an unscrupulous comprehension. His great idea was to encourage the spread of the Anglo-Saxon race, especially in South Africa. He advocated a complete occupation of Africa south of the Zambezi, the exploitation of its resources, and a native policy of segregation with a civilization voting test. From his youth he had devised wills bequeathing his all to the British Empire, and at his death his famous house was to go to the premier of a united South Africa and funds were provided for Rhodes scholars to proceed to the University of Oxford. The Union of South Africa and the commercial prosperity of Southern Rhodesia are his real contributions to the development of the empire.

B. Williams, "Cecil Rhodes," 1921; Sir Thos. Fuller, "Cecil Rhodes," 1910; Sir Lewis McChell, "Life of Cecil Rhodes," 2 vols. 1910; Philip Jourdain, "Rhodes' Private Life," 1911; Vindex, "Cecil Rhodes, His Political Life and Speeches," 1900.

Rhodesia. [East Africa, British Dominions in.]

Rhuddlan Castle. A fortress was first built at Rhuddlan, a position of considerable military importance commanding the vale of Clwyd, by Llewelyn ap Sitsyll early in the eleventh century. Upon the rebellion of Prince Gruffyd, in 1063, Harold marched upon him at Rhuddlan; Gruffyd escaped to the sea about two miles distant, but Harold burnt the castle. It was rebuilt, and afterwards conquered by a nephew of Hugh Lupus. Edward I caused a stately castle to be erected near the site of the former one; here Queen Eleanor gave birth to a daughter; and here a baronial assembly was held, by the advice of which, in 1284, the "Statute of Wales" was drawn up, assimilating the administration of the country to that of England. The castle was captured by the Parliamentary general Mytton in 1646, and dismantled.

Ribbon Society, The, was a secret Irish confederacy, consisting of small farmers, cottiers, labourers, and in the towns small shopkeepers and artisans, which appeared about 1820 (the name "Ribbon" not being attached to it till about 1826) and gained great strength from 1835 to 1855. "In Ulster it professed to be a defensive or retaliatory league against Orangeism. In Munster it was at first a combination against tithe proctors. In Connaught it was an organization against rack-renting and evictions. In Leinster it often was mere trade-unionism, dictating by its mandates, and enforcing by its vengeance the employment or dismissal of workmen, stewards, and even domestics." To belong to a Ribbon Society was declared illegal by the Westmeath Act of 1871.

Rich, Edmund, St., Archbishop of Canterbury 1231–40, was born at Abingdon, studied at Oxford and Paris, and later became one of the most popular teachers of theology and philosophy in the former university. Between 1219 and 1222 he was appointed treasurer of

adviser of the Countess of Salisbury, widow of King John's half-brother. Upon the death of Archbishop Richard le Grand some dispute arose as to the election of a successor, and Pope Gregory IX induced the monks who had gone to Rome to elect Rich upon their return, a measure to which the king's consent was readily obtained. But Edmund was not disposed to act as a tool of king or pope, though the latter had written urging him to persuade the English to overcome their prejudices against the aliens. Immediately after his consecration he visited the king, insisted on the reform of abuses and the dismissal of foreign ministers, especially Peter des Roches, and threatened him with excommunication if he refused. Henry yielded, and Peter and his creatures were dismissed. Edmund was a bishop of the type of Anselm, with somewhat of the spirit and practical instincts of Langton; but he lived in an unhappy period for the display of either class of qualities under a pope whom he knew only as a taskmaster, and under a king whose incapacity and want of firmness made it as hard to support as to resist him. To diminish his influence Henry III applied to the pope to send a legate to England, and Edmund had to struggle during the rest of his life against Otho's efforts to obtain benefices for foreigners in England. The archbishop also came into conflict with Henry in the matter of the marriage of Simon de Montfort to the king's sister Eleanor, widow of the earl marshal, whom he refused to free from her vow of perpetual widowhood. In 1238 Edmund visited Rome to obtain papal support in his attempt to enforce discipline in the monasteries of Canterbury and Rochester. But the pope, in revenge for his action in the matter of the alien clergy, treated him with studied insult, and decided all the appeals against him. At last in despair Edmund retired to the abbey of Pontigny in France, and died at the neighbouring priory of Soissy in 1240. The popular belief in his sanctity and the miracles reported from his tomb forced Innocent IV, much against his will, to consent to his canonization in 1248.

[W. J. A.]

Rich, Henry, 1st Earl of Holland (1590–1649), was a younger son of Robert, 1st Earl of Warwick. He served in the Dutch wars, and on his return to England attracted the favourable notice of James I, who heaped honours upon him. In 1639 he was made lord general of the horse in the Scottish War, but seceded two years later to the Parliament. He rejoined the king in 1643, and fought with considerable bravery in the first battle of Newbury; but, finding himself coldly received by Charles, he quickly deserted to the enemy. He took part in the abortive Royalist rising of 1648, was captured by the Parliamentary troops, tried before the High Court of Justice in 1649, and executed.

Rich, Richard, 1st Baron Rich (1496 ?–1567), who "brought a greater strain upon the bar of England than any member of the profession," was in 1533 made solicitor-general. He took a prominent part in the trial of Sir Thomas More, giving as evidence an untrue version of a private conversation held with More in the Tower on June 12, 1535, and so securing his conviction. He was rewarded in 1536 by being recommended to the office of Speaker, and during the rest of the reign of Henry VIII was a ready agent of the court in the prosecution alike of Protestants and Roman Catholics. Under the will of Henry VIII Rich was appointed a councillor to assist in the government during the minority of Edward VI, and in October 1548 succeeded Paulet as lord chancellor of England. In 1549 he drew up the articles charging Lord Seymour of Sudeley with treason, and subsequently joined the Earl of Warwick, taking an active part in the proceedings against his former patron Somerset. In 1551 he resigned the chancellorship, and remained prominent only as a persecutor.

J. Sargeaunt, "History of Felsted School," 1889.

Richard I, King (*b.* September 8, 1157, *s.* July 1189, *d.* April 6, 1199), was the second son of Henry II and Eleanor of Aquitaine. He was destined by his father to rule his mother's possessions in the south of France, and when still quite young was entrusted with the government of Aquitaine, where he speedily joined in the great conspiracy of 1173 against his father. Pardoned at the suppression of the revolt, he passed several years in a series of chivalrous and brilliant exploits among the wild feudal nobles of Guienne and Poitou. His success made his elder brother so envious that he insisted on Richard doing homage to him, and on his refusal a war broke out between the brothers (1183). In alliance with Bertrand de Born, Richard's great enemy, Henry and Geoffrey reduced Richard to such straits that Henry II had to go to his assistance. The death of the younger Henry concluded the war, but in 1184 another quarrel between Richard and his father ensued on the former's refusal to gratify the latter by surrendering a portion of Aquitaine to his brother, John. Richard's restless temper was constantly involving him in wars with his neighbours, from which nothing but his father's influence could extricate him. Yet in 1189 he inspired that last successful revolt in the midst of which the old king died.

Despite his constant revolts Richard secured the succession without difficulty. He hurried to England, not with the view of taking possession of the government so much as to secure means to embark on the projected crusade, into which he threw all his energy. He held a great council at Pipewell, in which he displaced Henry's old ministers, sold a large number of places, and made arrangements for the government during his absence. About three months after his coronation he left England.

The history of Richard's reign naturally

divides itself into two main subjects—the personal adventures of the king in Palestine, Germany, and finally in France, and the government of the country during his absence. The brilliant and chivalrous spirit of the king, and that martial prowess which gave him the name of *Cœur de Lion*, were nowhere better displayed than in his adventures in the east. After some delays in France, Richard and Philip Augustus landed in Sicily in September 1190. After rescuing his sister from the hands of the usurper, Tancred, and incurring the French king's hostility by repudiating the latter's sister, Alice (to whom he had been long contracted in marriage), in favour of Berengaria of Navarre, Richard set out for Palestine, conquering Cyprus on his way, and bestowing it on the Templars, by whom it was later sold to Guy of Lusignan. He arrived in Palestine in time to save Acre, but the return home of Philip Augustus, and the quarrel of Richard with the Duke of Austria, made the barren victories against the Saracens of little avail in effecting the deliverance of the Holy City. At last in 1192 Richard was glad to conclude a three years' truce with Saladin, which saved the remnants of the Frankish kingdom, and gave pilgrims free access to Jerusalem. On his way home he was imprisoned by his old enemy the Duke of Austria, and handed over to the Emperor Henry VI, who, as the representative of the Hohenstaufen, was glad to get hold of the uncle and protector of Otto the Guelf. Henry compelled his prisoner to acknowledge himself his vassal for the kingdom of England, bestowing on him in return the titular kingship of Arles.

Meanwhile the soundness of the administrative system which Henry II had established was being thoroughly tested in England. Despite the incompleteness of Richard's arrangements, despite the intrigues of Earl John, England remained in a prosperous condition during the whole of the period. Four successive justiciars ruled the land as practically independent sovereigns, burdened only by the heavy tribute which the absent king exacted. The first, William Longchamp, Bishop of Ely, was unpopular as a foreigner, and Earl John profited by this to excite the baronage against him. In 1191 the Archbishop of Rouen, Walter of Coutances, arrived with a commission from Richard to supersede him. His government, which lasted till 1193, was disturbed by the unsuccessful rebellion of John, in connexion with an attack of Philip on Normandy, and by the exertions necessary to raise the enormous ransom of £100,000, which the emperor required for the release of Richard. At the end of 1193 he was succeeded by Hubert Walter, Archbishop of Canterbury, whose administration continued until 1198. The latter at once contrived to suppress John's revolt. When Richard paid his second and last visit to his kingdom in the spring of 1194 the land was in profound peace. At a great council at Nottingham the accomplices of John were punished, the sheriffs removed, and money raised by all possible means. A second coronation at Winchester was a solemn declaration that, whatever humiliation Richard had been subjected to in his captivity, his royal dignity remained unimpaired. As soon as he had got all he could Richard hurried to France, where he spent the rest of his life in a constant petty warfare against Philip of France, until he met his death in 1199 while besieging the obscure castle of Chaluz. Meanwhile Hubert Walter (q.v.) administered England with success. The judicial *iter* of 1194, and the first germs of the offices of coroner and conservator of the peace, showed that he not only maintained, but also developed, the system of Henry II. In 1198 the refusal of a royal demand for money by the great council led to his resignation. His successor, Geoffry FitzPeter, had not long entered upon his office when the king died.

Richard I is the most un-English of our kings. He knew and influenced England, where he hardly ever lived either before or after his accession, less than any other prince. Yet, besides his fame as a knight-errant, he had no inconsiderable talent for rough-and-ready statesmanship. But he was a bad king, careless, extravagant, and neglectful of all his duties. The main interest of his reign in English history is its story of quiet administrative routine and constitutional development.

Kate Norgate, "Richard the Lion Heart," 1924; also Hoveden, "Chronicles and Memorials of Richard I" (Rolls Series). [T. F. T.]

Richard II, King (*b.* January 1367, *r.* June 22, 1377—September 1399, *d.* February 14, 1400 (?), was the son of Edward the Black Prince and Joan of Kent. Soon after his father's death he was created Prince of Wales, and recognized as heir to the throne. During the early years of his reign he was in tutelage, but the boldness and presence of mind which he showed during the Peasants' Revolt (1381—q.v.), seemed to augur a successful and prosperous career. He appears to have been suspicious of the designs of his uncle, Gloucester, and to have determined to surround himself with ministers of his own choosing, and it must be admitted that they were selected with judgment, and (with perhaps the exception of de Vere) they hardly deserve to be stigmatized as favourites. But they were not successful administrators, and the heavy taxes which were imposed afforded an opportunity to Gloucester and his associates to denounce them. In 1386 Richard's minister, Michael de la Pole, Earl of Suffolk, was attacked in parliament, deprived of the chancellorship and imprisoned; and the king was compelled to agree to the appointment of a commission of regency, consisting of the Dukes of Gloucester and York and eight other lords and prelates. In the following August (1387) Richard procured from the judges a declaration that the commission was illegal. But Gloucester entered London with a large force; and the king, unable to resist, was obliged to give way and to allow his

chief advisers to be appealed of treason (December 1387). The parliament of 1388, the "Merciless Parliament" (q.v.), condemned Vere, Suffolk, and six others to death; and though the two chief personages escaped, the sentence was carried out in four cases. The power of Gloucester lasted till 1389, when Richard suddenly declared that he was old enough to manage his own affairs, and dismissed the council of regency. But he did not resort to his former methods of government; on the contrary, he was reconciled to Gloucester and his associates, and was content to admit them to a share in the government. For some years nothing happened to disturb the harmony between the king and the nobles, and the first symptoms of a revival of troubles was in 1395, when Richard proposed to marry Isabella of France and form a firm alliance with that country. This was strongly opposed by Gloucester, who renewed his former factious behaviour and was suspected by the king of treasonable designs. Finally, in 1397, he was arrested and sent to Calais to await his trial, but died before it came on, murdered, there can be little doubt, by the king's orders. It has been suggested that Richard was panic-stricken by current rumours of a plot against his life, and determined to resort to the most arbitrary measures to secure his position. The evidence points, however, to a more deliberate and premeditated cause of action. At any rate a complete change came over his conduct. The pardons granted to the barons in 1388 were annulled; two of the most prominent were appealed of treason. Arundel was executed, and his brother, the archbishop, banished. The proceedings of the "Merciless Parliament" were rescinded, and the unassailability of the royal prerogative was reasserted. Thus Richard seemed to have established his absolute power; but still there were rumours of conspiracies. The Duke of Hereford (Henry of Bolingbroke, son of John of Gaunt), and Thomas Mowbray, Duke of Norfolk, accused each other of treason and were sentenced to banishment, the latter for life, the former for six years. Richard now resorted to various arbitrary methods of raising money, and he had already alienated the people from him, as well as the leading nobles, when, in 1399, he committed two acts of reckless folly which were the immediate cause of his downfall. He had promised Hereford that if during his exile his father should die, the Lancastrian estates should be secured to him. Nevertheless, on Gaunt's death, he seized the whole of his domains into his own hands. This gave an excuse to Hereford (or Lancaster, as he had now become) to return to England to claim his patrimony; and the circumstances were most auspicious for him, for Richard had gone upon an expedition to Ireland, leaving the Duke of York as regent in England. Henry of Lancaster landed in England, declared that he came simply to obtain his lawful inheritance, was joined by many of the great nobles, and not opposed by the Duke of York; so that when Richard returned from Ireland he found the kingdom was lost. Discovering his true position, Richard offered to resign the crown. The abdication was accepted by parliament, which drew up articles of accusation against him, enumerating all the illegal and despotic acts of which he had been guilty. Henry challenged the vacant throne and was accepted as king. After this, Richard disappears from history, and nothing is known for certain of the time, manner, or place of his death. According to one account, he was murdered at Pontefract by Sir Piers Exton, while the official story was that he starved himself to death. It seems most probable that he died of malnutrition and systematic privation.

The revolution of 1399 was not a popular movement, but was brought about by a series of circumstances to a considerable extent unconnected with each other, but which all combined to produce one result—a change of dynasty. The Church was opposed to Richard on account of his supposed Lollard tendencies and his treatment of Archbishop Arundel; the nobles hated him because he had refused to govern according to their views, and had endeavoured to curb their independence. The people supported Henry as being the representative of Thomas of Lancaster, and having been unjustly defrauded by Richard; while many asserted that Richard was not the son of the Black Prince, but a supposititious child, and others maintained that Henry was the true heir to the throne as the representative of Edmund Crouchback, who it was said was in reality the elder brother of Edward I. The extravagance and foreign manners of the court were extremely distasteful, and the war party strongly resented the French marriage. Among the charges alleged against Richard by parliament the most important are these:—The tampering with the judges in 1387; the revocation of the pardons of the Appellants; the murder of Gloucester; the ill-treatment of Lancaster and Arundel; arbitrary taxation; alienation of Crown lands; excessive power of the household courts; and rash words asserting his own absolute authority. The truth probably is that Richard attempted to do what Edward IV and Henry VII were able to effect later on—to crush the power of the nobles, rule by means of ministers, avoid expensive foreign wars, and keep the Church in submission. Like them, he worked by means of parliament, and thus obtained a legal sanction to his most unconstitutional acts. The chief reasons why they succeeded where he failed were, that by the time of Edward IV the strength of the baronage had been utterly broken by the Wars of the Roses, the Church had lost its power, and the nation was anxious for peace under a strong government.

In Richard's own character there was much that is attractive. He is to be compared rather to Edward III, the chivalrous, mag-

nanimous king who left him heir to difficulties which he could not overcome, than to the feeble and worthless Edward II. If his theory of kingship was too lofty for the age, it was at least an intelligible one, and he seems to have kept before him with steadiness of purpose the idea of a despotic but reforming monarchy. Though his fate was immediately caused by his own deeds, the misfortunes of his career were in great part due to the events and policy of his grandfather's reign. "In personal appearance," it has been said, "he was handsome. There was a delicate beauty in his features which corresponded with a mode of life too luxurious for the age. He was a lover both of art and literature; the patron of Froissart, Gower, and Chaucer, and the builder of Westminster Hall. But he was thought too fond of show and magnificence, and some of his contemporaries accused him of too great love of pleasure. Yet of positive immorality we have no real evidence, and his devotion and tenderness to both his queens (child as the second was) is a considerable presumption to the contrary." Richard was twice married, first in 1382 to Anne of Bohemia, daughter of the Emperor Charles IV, and secondly in 1396 to Isabella, daughter of Charles VI of France. He left no issue.

H. Wallon, "Richard II," 1864; De Lacy O'Leary, "England Under Richard II," 1908; E. Curtis, "Richard II in Ireland, 1394–5," 1927. [S. L.]

Richard III, King (*b.* October 2, 1452, *s.* June 26, 1483, *d.* August 22, 1485), was the son of Richard, Duke of York, who was killed at Wakefield, and brother to Edward IV, and George, Duke of Clarence. Born at Fotheringay in 1452, he was early inducted into state affairs. In 1461 he was recalled from Flanders, where he had been sent for safety, and created Duke of Gloucester and lord high admiral. He held faithfully to his brother during his reign, and showed himself a wise counsellor to him, a good soldier, and a vigorous administrator in the capacity of warden of the Scottish Marches and other posts. In 1470, on the outbreak of Warwick's insurrection, Richard left the kingdom with Edward, and returned with him to take part in the battle of Barnet (April 1471). Immediately afterwards he engaged in the campaign of the West, and contributed to the victory of Tewkesbury. In 1472 he married Anne Neville, the widow of Prince Edward, and in consequence became involved in a violent quarrel with his brother Clarence about the inheritance of the Earl of Warwick. The rivalry between the two brothers was keen, but it is not certain how far Richard was responsible for Clarence's downfall, or for his murder, if he was murdered. During the remainder of Edward's reign Gloucester was much occupied with Scottish affairs, and the management of the Border. In April 1483 he left the North, and on the 30th of the month got possession of the young king, Edward V, as he was being taken to London. In May Richard was appointed protector, and immediately entered upon the functions of government. A violent quarrel broke out between Richard and the queen's party in the council, which was headed by Lord Hastings. In June, Richard, at a sitting of the council, charged the queen and her friends with a plot against his life. Hastings was seized and beheaded without trial. Lords Grey and Rivers, the queen's relations, were beheaded, and the young prince, Richard of York, was surrendered to the custody of the protector. On June 22 Dr. Shaw, in a sermon at Paul's Cross, asserted the claim of Richard to the crown, on the ground that Edward V and his brother were illegitimate; and on June 24 Buckingham, joined by a crowd of the citizens of London, urged Richard to accept the crown. This Richard did on June 26, and on July 6 he was crowned. Richard now adopted a policy of conciliation, but there was considerable disaffection against him, especially in southern England. The young princes disappeared soon after, and though nothing certain has ever been discovered about their fate, it was believed, and it is extremely probable, that Richard had them put to death. The recent attempt of Sir Clement Markham to clear Richard of the charge and to fasten the guilt upon Henry VII does not carry conviction. The rumours of the fate of the young princes increased the feeling against Richard, and meanwhile a *rapprochement* took place between the queen's party and the Lancastrians, headed by Henry of Richmond, Richard's chief supporter, Buckingham, joined the conspiracy. In October Buckingham headed a rising in the West of England which came to nothing. The duke was captured and put to death without trial. But the conspiracy was not crushed, and active preparations were made by the Lancastrians during the next year. Meanwhile Richard was becoming thoroughly unpopular in England. His finances were in disorder, and he was obliged to have recourse to the raising of money by benevolences, though he had himself passed a bill through parliament the previous year to put an end to that system. In August 1485 Richmond landed at Milford Haven. The Welsh were in his favour, for they looked upon him as a national leader; the old nobility were alienated from Richard, and the new nobles disliked him; his own chief followers, the Stanleys, were in correspondence with the enemy; and the people were indifferent or favourable to the invaders. Richard met them at Bosworth (August 22, 1485). In the crisis of the battle Lord Stanley, with his troops, suddenly joined Richmond. The king was killed fighting desperately.

Richard has been represented as a monster of iniquity by Sir Thomas More and other historians who wrote under the Tudors. Unscrupulous, cruel, and violent as Richard was, he was, however, probably no worse than contemporary princes and statesmen; no worse, certainly, than his brother or his successor. His capacity was undoubted, and he

seems to have made an effort at the beginning of his reign to govern well. He attempted to restore order, to check the tyranny of the nobles, and to develop commerce. He, however, lacked the astuteness which enabled Henry VII to accomplish in a great measure the work he had attempted.

J. Gairdner, "Life and Reign of Richard III," 1878 and 1898; C. A. Halstead, "Richard III," 2 vols. 1844; J. H. Jesse, "Richard III," 1862 and 1901; and biography by Sir C. R. Markham, 1906.

[S. L.]

Richard, Archbishop of Canterbury 1174–84, was prior of St. Martin's, Dover, and three years after the murder of Becket was chosen by the bishops, in opposition to the chapter, to fill the vacant see. His appointment was strongly opposed by the young king, Henry, and did not receive the papal confirmation until 1174. His great work was the rebuilding of Canterbury Cathedral, which had been destroyed by fire previous to his enthronement. He was unpopular with the extreme clerical party representing the Becket tradition; but it was probably well for both Church and State that he preferred a moderate to an heroic policy and kept on good terms with the king.

Richard, Duke of York (1472–83), was the second son of Edward IV. In 1478 he was married to Anne, daughter and heiress of John Mowbray, Duke of Norfolk. Soon after Edward IV's death his mother fled into sanctuary with him, but was subsequently induced to let him join his brother in the Tower, where he was probably murdered by his uncle's orders. [Richard III.]

Richard, Earl of Cornwall (1209–72), was the second son of John by his wife Isabella of Angoulême. He quarrelled with his brother, Henry III, and for a time led the opposition against the foreign favourites with whom the court was filled. In 1240 he led a crusade to the Holy Land, and succeeded in securing very favourable terms for the Christians by a treaty with the Sultan of Krak. His marriage in 1243 with Sanchia of Provence (q.v.), sister of Henry's queen, now bound him to the interests of the court. In 1252 he was offered, but declined, the crown of Sicily; in 1257 he was elected and crowned King of the Romans, but was never crowned emperor. During the long years of dispute between Henry III and his barons Richard tried to act the part of a mediator, but when war broke out he sided with his brother and commanded the left wing at the battle of Lewes, where he was taken prisoner, and he did not recover his liberty till after the battle of Evesham. He married first Isabel, daughter of William Marshal; secondly Sanchia, daughter of René of Provence; and thirdly Beatrice of Falkenstein. It is very difficult to obtain a true view of Richard's character, as, with scarcely an exception, all the contemporary writers are on the baronial side, and strongly prejudiced against him, but he must have been, on any showing, a man of much more enterprise and energy than his brother Henry. His influence in Germany was never great, and at no time extended beyond the Rhineland.

Richborough (Rutupiæ) was a Roman town and citadel guarding the eastern entrance to the Wantsum—an inlet of sea between Thanet and the mainland. Richborough was the chief port for commerce with Gaul, and the starting-point for the great high road to Kent through Canterbury and Rochester to Dover. The fortress was the head-quarters of the legion protecting the Saxon shore (q.v.).

Richmond, Henry Fitzroy, 1st Duke of (1519–36). [Fitzroy.]

Ridings is the name applied to the three divisions of Yorkshire, and with the arrangement of the country appears to be of Scandinavian origin. The four *things* into which Iceland was partitioned were divided into thirds, *thrithungar*; and the *fylker*, or petty kingdoms, of South Norway were similarly divided. As such a partition of the land is in England only found in Yorkshire and Lincolnshire (for Lindsey, one of the three "parts" of Lincolnshire, was at the time of Domesday divided into ridings, though the name afterwards dropped out of use), it seems natural to attribute it to the Danish occupation. The loss of the *th* of thrithing may be due to misdivision of the compound words "north-thrithing," etc. At the time of the Conqueror the ridings of Yorkshire and Lincolnshire seem to have had their own moots, though these do not appear later; at present each riding in Yorkshire has its own lord-lieutenant, and is treated as a distinct county for poor-law purposes. By the reform Bill of 1832 two members each were given to the east and north ridings and four to the west; this arrangement was modified in 1867, while under the act of 1885 the west riding returns nineteen members, the north four, the east three.

Stubbs, "Constitutional History," i, ch. v; Robertson, "Scotland under its Early Kings," vol. ii; Worsaae, "Danes and Northmen,"; Cleasby and Vigfusson, "Icel. Dictionary," s.v. *thing* and *thrithungr*; Skeat, "English Dictionary"; "Victoria County History: Yorkshire," vol. ii.

[W. J. A.]

Ridley, Nicholas, Bishop of London (1500?–1555), was educated at Pembroke Hall, Cambridge, where he gained a fellowship. After studying theology for a couple of years at Paris and Louvain, he returned to Cambridge, and became proctor and public orator. His learning and energy commended him to the notice of Cranmer, whose chaplain he became in 1537, and who speedily obtained for him the mastership of Pembroke (1540) and a royal chaplaincy (1541). In 1547 he became Bishop of Rochester, and took a considerable part in the preparation of Edward VI's first Prayer

Book, and in carrying out the changes which accompanied it. Upon Bonner's deposition by the privy council, Ridley was translated to London (April 1550). In the same year he vainly attempted to convince Joan Bocher of her errors, and assisted in the trial of Gardiner. As in Rochester Cathedral so in St. Paul's, he caused the altars to be destroyed; in St. Paul's he substituted a table for the high altar, and in 1557 placed it in the nave before the screen, setting it with its sides north and south. Like Cranmer and Latimer, he was disgusted by the violence of the council, and in a sermon before the king in 1552 spoke strongly of the distress caused by the seizure of the gild revenues. His fear lest Mary might restore the old worship led him to join in the attempt to secure the throne for Jane Grey, and on July 9, 1553, he preached at Paul's Cross that Mary and Elizabeth were bastards, and therefore without right to the throne. As soon, however, as Northumberland and the council had declared for Mary, he set out to meet the princess to obtain pardon, but he was taken prisoner at Framlingham, and sent to the Tower. Here he remained some eight months. Bonner meanwhile regained his bishopric. In April 1554 he was sent to Oxford, with Cranmer and Latimer, and committed to the charge of one of the aldermen. After being made to appear in a disputation, wherein he denied transubstantiation, and after being in consequence excommunicated, he was remitted to custody, and nothing more was done till September 1555, when he was tried for heresy before three bishops, commissioned by Pole as legate. On October 16 he was executed, together with Latimer, in front of Balliol College. One of the most careful modern investigators of the period writes:—"Ridley has left few remains to vindicate the reputation for theological learning which has been demanded for him by modern biographers, but he was a learned man; in his way he was a moderate man, and certainly he was a man of great resolution. His decision of character supported the primate; the gravity of his manners commended him to all who knew him, and he rose into notice at a very opportune time for the credit of the Reformation. But his temper had a vehemence which sometimes betrayed him into rashness, and in his nature there was something of severity, and even of hardness" (Dixon).

Ridley, "Works" (Parker Society); J. C. Ryle, "Bishops Latimer and Ridley," 1925.

Ridolfi Conspiracy, The (1571), so-called from one of the chief agents, Robert Ridolfi, a Florentine banker residing in London, was a plot formed by the Catholic party in England for the deposition of Elizabeth, the elevation of Mary Stuart to the throne by the help of Spain, and her marriage to the Duke of Norfolk. The chief conspirator was Leslie, Bishop of Ross, who was in communication with most of the Catholic nobles, whilst the Duke of Norfolk was involved in the scheme apparently against his will. During 1571 frequent negotiations were carried on between Mary Stuart, Philip II, the Duke of Alva, and the pope. Ridolfi was sent to Madrid to request the aid of Philip, which was at once promised. On his way he had an interview with the Duke of Alva in Brussels, but the messenger conveying the news was arrested at Dover in possession of a packet of treasonable letters. For these letters, however, the Bishop of Ross contrived, by the connivance of Lord Cobham, the warden of the Cinque Ports, to substitute others of a comparatively innocent nature, and although the messenger confessed on the rack that he had received the letters from Ridolfi, and although the Bishop of Ross was arrested, and Mary severely cross-examined, nothing definite was discovered. Suspicion had, however, been aroused, and in September 1571 the whole of the plot was discovered through the instrumentality of a Shrewsbury merchant, who had been employed by Higford, Norfolk's secretary, to convey money and letters. Several of the leading conspirators, including the Bishop of Ross, the Earls of Arundel and Southampton, and Lord Lumley, were at once arrested. The bishop made a full confession, and Norfolk, as the centre of the plot, was executed (June 1572).

Rigby, Richard (1722–88), was the son of a Bedford linen-draper, who had made a fortune as factor to the South Sea Company. He attached himself in early life to the Prince of Wales, but quarrelled with him before long. The Duke of Bedford became his patron, and on becoming lord-lieutenant in 1758 took him to Ireland as his private secretary. Next year Rigby became master of the rolls of that country. On returning from Ireland the duke procured the return of Rigby as member for Tavistock; and when the duke became president of the council in 1768 he procured for his faithful henchman the most lucrative of all offices—the paymastership of the forces. In 1765 he had acquired the sinecure office of vice-treasurer of Ireland. When county meetings were being held on all sides in 1769, to protest against the rejection of Wilkes by parliament, "Rigby made a summer tour through the east of England, and, by the admission of his opponents, checkmated the party of action in at least three counties." After his patron's death he succeeded in maintaining his position as "boatswain of the Bloomsbury crew," according to one of the lampoons of the day; and still lived on his sinecure offices. He was, however, disturbed for a moment by being accused in 1778 of appropriating public money as paymaster-general, though as Lord North's administration had strong reason for not inquiring too deeply into cases of peculation, the matter was allowed to drop. Again, in 1782, when he opposed with imprudent warmth a motion for reconciliation with America, Pitt rebuked him sharply, and told him that the nation was tired

of paying him. He lived till 1788, drawing money from the revenues of Ireland and England alike, and building up for himself a lasting reputation as the most notable placeman of the age.

Sir G. O. Trevelyan, "Early History of C. J. Fox," 1880.

Right, The Claim of, passed by the Scottish Estates in April 1689, declared that James VII had forfeited the crown for various offences committed against the constitution of the kingdom and the privileges of the subjects, and that no papist could ever in the future rule over Scotland; it further declared the necessity of frequent parliaments, and condemned prelacy as "a great and insupportable grievance." It was, in fact, a statement of the terms on which the Scottish crown was offered to William of Orange. [Convention of Estates.]

P. Hume Brown, "History of Scotland," 1911.

Right, The Petition of, was the manifesto drawn up by the House of Commons in 1628, in the form of a petition to the king, stating the principles of the constitution which Charles had broken. The events leading up to the Petition of Right may be briefly summarized. Charles I had dissolved his first two parliaments before they had granted any supplies, and, as he was determined to retain his minister, Buckingham, and to carry out his policy of war with France and Spain, he was obliged to have recourse to a loan. Those persons who refused to subscribe were imprisoned, but five of them, of whom one was Sir Thomas Darnel, demanded their habeas corpus. The Crown lawyers fell back upon the king's prerogative power to imprison without showing cause whenever he deemed it necessary, and this doctrine was accepted by the judges. When, therefore, a new parliament met in 1628 it at once began to discuss the recent forced loan and the arbitrary imprisonments. Wentworth, at this time leader of the Commons, proposed that a short bill should be drawn up merely reciting and confirming Magna Carta, De Tallagio, etc., with the addition of a clause confirming Habeas Corpus; but the king objected so strongly even to this moderate proposal that it was resolved, upon the motion of Coke, that a Petition of Right should be drawn up. Not only would such a petition receive an immediate answer, instead of being sent up at the end of the session and almost certainly rejected by the king when he had gained supplies, but it would contain a definite statement that the king had broken the law. As finally drawn up, the petition demanded "that no man hereafter be compelled to make or yield any *gift, loan, benevolence, tax, or such like charge,* without common consent by act of parliament"; that no one should be imprisoned without cause shown, and that if imprisoned they should be entitled to their habeas corpus; that soldiers and sailors should not be billeted upon private persons without their consent; and that martial law should be abolished. Of these clauses the first two were by far the most important, and it is clear that, however Charles may have abused his power, his predecessors had without remonstrance exercised the right of imprisonment without showing cause. The Lords accepted the measure, after in vain searching for a formula which should allow the king to imprison in cases of real emergency. Meanwhile Denbigh had been unsuccessful at Rochelle, and the king needed supplies. He demanded from the judges "whether, if the king grant the Commons' petition, he did not thereby exclude himself from committing a subject for any time or cause whatsoever without showing a cause." They answered that every act had its exposition, which can only be by the courts of law as each case occurs, "and, although the petition be granted, there is no fear of conclusion as is intimated in the question." Thereupon the king went to the House, and instead of the usual form of assent, read a meaningless declaration that the statutes should be duly executed. The Commons were bitterly annoyed, and proceeded to attack Buckingham. Charles at last yielded, and gave his assent in the accustomed formula (June 7, 1628). In the next session the Commons renewed the struggle on the ground of tunnage and poundage (q.v.), which had been levied, although no act had as yet granted it to Charles. Its levy was, they declared, in violation of the Petition of Right. But the words of the petition, interpreted by the usage of the day, certainly did not carry that meaning. The question became involved with that of religion, and the struggle on these two points led to the dissolution of 1629.

S. R. Gardiner, "History of England"; F. H. Relf, "Petition of Right," 1917. [W. J. A.]

Rights, The Bill of. A committee appointed by the Commons in the Convention of 1689, to consider what measures should be taken to protect liberty against future sovereigns, recommended that the main constitutional principles violated by James II should be solemnly declared to be the ancient rights of the nation, and also that several new laws should be enacted. It was easy to carry out the former proposal; the latter would be a work of considerable difficulty, and might occupy years. After much discussion, therefore, it was resolved to fill the throne at once, but to insert in the instrument which conferred the crown on William and Mary a declaration of the fundamental principles of the constitution; all questions of further reform were postponed till a more suitable opportunity. Accordingly a committee, presided over by Somers (q.v.), was appointed to draw up a Declaration of Rights, which, when framed, was accepted by the Lords with some unimportant amendments. On February 13, 1689, this declaration was read before William and Mary, and the crown tendered to them; William, in accepting it, assured the two Houses that his conduct should be governed by those laws

which he had himself vindicated. In the December of the same year, the Convention having meanwhile been declared by statute to be a parliament, the Declaration of Rights was confirmed in the form of a bill, with certain additions. The Bill of Rights, as finally adopted, was arranged as follows :—

Its first section recited the Declaration of Rights. It began by stating the various acts by which James did "endeavour to subvert and extirpate the Protestant religion, and the laws and liberties of this kingdom," and then, almost in the same words, proceeded to declare : That the pretended power of suspending of laws and the execution of laws, by regal authority without consent of parliament, is illegal ; That the pretended power of dispensing with laws by regal authority, as it hath been assumed and exercised of late, is illegal ; That the commission for creating the late court of commissioners for ecclesiastical causes, and all other commissions and courts of the like nature, are illegal and pernicious ; That levying of money for or to the use of the Crown, by pretence of prerogative without grant of parliament, for longer time or in any other manner than the same is or shall be granted, is illegal ; That it is the right of the subjects to petition the king, and that all commitments or prosecutions for such petitions are illegal ; That the raising or keeping a standing army within the kingdom in time of peace, unless it be with consent of parliament, is against law ; That the subjects which are Protestants may have arms for their defence suitable to their condition, and as allowed by law ; That election of members of parliament ought to be free ; That the freedom of speech and debates, or proceedings in parliament, ought not to be impeached or questioned in any court or place out of parliament ; That excessive bail ought not to be required, nor excessive fines imposed, nor cruel and unusual punishments inflicted ; That juries ought to be duly empanelled and returned, and that jurors which pass upon men in trials for high treason ought to be freeholders ; That all grants and promises of fines and forfeitures of particular persons, before conviction, are illegal and void ; And that for redress of all grievances, and for the amending, strengthening, and preserving of the laws, parliament ought to be held frequently.

The second section declared the resolution of Lords and Commons that William and Mary should become king and queen, to be succeeded by their lawful issue if there were any such ; in default of that by the issue of the Princess Anne, etc. The third contained the new oaths of allegiance and supremacy. The fourth recorded the acceptance of the crown by the prince and princess ; who (v) were pleased that the Lords and Commons should continue to sit and make provision for the settlement of the religion, laws, and liberties of the country. Parliament, therefore, now again (vi) declared the above to be the indubitable rights of the English people ; recognized (vii) that James having abdicated, William and Mary had become their sovereign lord and lady, and fixed (viii) the succession as above. The ninth section contains an important addition : as it has been found by experience inconsistent with the safety and welfare of this Protestant kingdom to be governed by a popish prince, or by any king or queen marrying a papist, it is enacted that all persons who shall hold communion with the Church of Rome, or shall marry a papist, shall be excluded from the throne, and the crown shall descend to the next heir. Every king or queen therefore (x), on the first day of their first parliament, shall subscribe and audibly repeat the declaration mentioned in the statute 30 Charles II, i.e., the Test Act (a declaration against transubstantiation, adoration of the Virgin, and the sacrifice of the Mass). Finally in the twelfth section it is declared that no dispensation by *non obstante* of or to any statute shall be allowed, except such dispensation be allowed in the statute, or shall be specially provided for by one or more bills to be passed during the present session of parliament. The Lords had already softened the article of the Declaration of Rights against the dispensing power by the insertion of the words "as it hath been exercised of late," and now this last section was added to provide for cases where it might be desirable that the dispensing power should be used. Though, however, in the next parliament, the judges were ordered by the House of Lords to draft a bill for this purpose, the matter dropped. [Revolution.]

C. Grant Robertson, "Select Statutes, Cases and Documents," 4th edn., 1923. [W. J. A.]

Rinuccini, Giovanni Battista (1592–1653), Archbishop of Fermo, was sent to Ireland in 1645 as the pope's nuncio, with a supply of arms and money. He opposed Glamorgan's treaty (q.v.) in 1645, and the Dublin treaty of 1646 (q.v.). In 1648 he opposed Lord Inchiquin's armistice, and after an unsuccessful tenure of office as president of the Kilkenny council, fled to Owen Roe O'Neill, and then to Galway. He was recalled in 1649.

A. Hutton, "The Embassy in Ireland," 1873.

Riot Act, The (1715), was passed at a time when there were apprehensions of Jacobite risings. It declared that if twelve persons or more continued together for one hour after a proclamation bidding them disperse had been made to them by the magistrate, they were guilty of felony. The magistrate was required to apprehend persons refusing to disperse, and those who acted at his orders were indemnified for any injury which they might commit. This practically meant that an hour after the proclamation the military might be ordered to fire on the mob, or charge them. The question afterwards arose as to the legality of military interference without the order of a magistrate. It was decided by Lord Mansfield in a case arising out of the Gordon Riots (q.v.) in 1780, that it is the duty of every subject to resist

persons engaged in treasonable or riotous conduct, and that this duty is not less imperative upon soldiers than upon civilians. This decision was confirmed in 1831 in a case arising out of the Bristol Riots.

C. Grant Robertson, "Select Statutes, Cases and Documents," 4th edn. 1923.

Ripon, Earl and Marquis of. [Robinson.]

Ripon, The Treaty of (1640), concluded the second Bishops' War. After the successful invasion of the northern counties the council of peers, assembled at York by Charles I, resolved, on the motion of Lord Bristol, to appoint sixteen commissioners to treat with the Scots (September 24). The first negotiations lasted from October 2 to 16. A cessation of arms was agreed upon, the two northern counties remaining in the possession of the Scots, who were to receive from the contributions of the inhabitants £850 a day for their maintenance. Further negotiations were removed to London, where peace was concluded on August 10, 1641.

P. Hume Brown, "History of Scotland," 1911.

Rivers, Earls. [Woodville.]

Rizzio, David (1533 ?–1566), a native of Turin, became musician to Mary, Queen of Scots, in 1561, and soon afterwards her private secretary. The queen's favour quickly rendered its recipient odious to the Scottish nobles, who banded themselves together against him, aided by Darnley, who had become jealous of the Italian. On March 9, 1566, Holyrood Palace, where Rizzio was at the time, was surrounded by an armed force under Lord Morton. Others of the conspirators, chief of whom was Lord Ruthven, entered the queen's apartment at the instigation of Darnley, and dragged her favourite from her presence. He was dispatched in Darnley's room, and with Darnley's sword, though not by his hand. His body received fifty-six wounds. It is extremely improbable that Rizzio was, as Darnley coarsely insinuated, the queen's paramour, or that he was any more than a confidential friend and faithful servant. His worst faults, in the eyes of the conspirators, were his arrogance and his religion.

Biography by A. F. Stewart, 1922 ; and see authorities for Mary, Queen of Scots.

Robert I (Bruce), King of Scotland (*b.* 1274, *s.* 1306, *d.* 1329), was the grandson of Robert de Bruce, the rival of John Baliol. In 1296 he joined the national party under William Wallace (q.v.) and laid waste the lands of Edward I's adherents. Later, however, he returned to his allegiance to the English king until 1298, when he again joined the national party in Scotland, and was chosen one of the guardians of that kingdom. In 1304 he entered into a secret alliance of mutual support with Lamberton, Bishop of St. Andrews, the friend of Wallace. In 1305 he attended the parliament in London, but hearing that the king, owing to some information that he had obtained from Comyn, intended to put him to death, he fled to Scotland. Having stabbed Comyn at Dumfries in a quarrel, he determined to assert his right to reign over Scotland as the representative of David of Huntingdon. He was accordingly crowned at Scone (March 27, 1306) by the Countess of Buchan, of the house of Macduff. Edward I at once procured from the pope the excommunication of Bruce, and was on his way to avenge the death of Comyn when he died at Burgh-on-the-Sands, in 1307. Before this, however, Bruce had been twice defeated (at Methven and Dulay). It is to this period of his life that the marvellous stories told by the Chroniclers about him mainly refer. There is no doubt that Bruce had to conceal himself in the fastnesses of the mountains, and to support himself as best he could. He withdrew for a time to the island of Rachrine, returning thence to Arran in the spring of 1307. In May he to some extent retrieved his fortunes at the battle of Loudon Hill. In 1308 he routed his old enemy, the Earl of Buchan, at Inverury and harried Lorne ; and in 1310 he received additional support by a declaration of allegiance on the part of the clergy. A feeble incursion into Scotland, undertaken by Edward II in 1310, was avenged by Bruce in the two following years, when he invaded England and laid Durham waste. In 1313 Bruce ravaged Cumberland, and laid siege to the castle of Stirling, the attempted relief of which by the English led to the Scottish victory of Bannockburn in 1314, a battle in which Bruce displayed as much generalship and valour as he afterwards did moderation in the use he made of his victory. His attempts to bring about peace were, however, unsuccessful. In 1316, when he left Scotland for a time to aid his brother Edward in Ireland, his absence was made the occasion of many unsuccessful inroads by the English. An attempt at mediation on the part of the pope (John XXII) having failed, Bruce in 1318 took Berwick, and harried Northumberland and Yorkshire. The next year Edward II tried unsuccessfully to recover Berwick, only drawing down on his kingdom retaliatory raids on the part of Bruce, who, in 1322, entered into negotiations with the rebel Earl of Carlisle. At length, on March 30, 1323, a truce was concluded at Thorpe, in Yorkshire, for thirteen years, and was ratified by Robert Bruce at Berwick. The peace was, however, soon broken, and in 1326 Bruce again ravaged the north of England, evading the English army, which he reduced to great straits by destroying all its provisions. In 1328, another treaty very favourable to Scotland was made at Northampton, by which Robert's son David married Joanna, daughter of Edward II. "The good King Robert" died at Cardross, June 7, 1329, and by his patriotism, wisdom, and courage left behind him the character of a good man. He married, first, Isabella, daughter of the Earl of Mar, and, secondly, Elizabeth de Burgh, daughter of the Earl of Ulster.

Fordun, "Scotichronicon" ; Barbour's great poem, "The Bruce," which is the fullest account of Bruce's

exploits, and is valuable as being the work of a nearly contemporaneous writer; Walsingham, "Hist. Anglic."; P. Hume Brown, "History of Scotland," 1911; C. S. Terry, "History of Scotland," 1920; biographies by Sir H. E. Maxwell, 1897; A. H. Millar, 1908; R. L. Mackie, 1913.

Robert II, King of Scotland (*s.* 1371, *d.* 1390), the first of the Stuart dynasty, was the son of Walter, lord high steward of Scotland, and Marjory, daughter of Robert Bruce. On the death of David II without children, Robert, then 55 years old, succeeded to the throne unopposed. In early life, as steward of Scotland, he had done good service against the English; had been present at the battle of Halidon Hill (q.v.), and had long acted as regent of Scotland. He married first Elizabeth Mure of Rowallan and secondly Euphemia Ross. In 1375 an act of parliament settled the crown on the king's sons by his first wife, a measure rendered necessary by the fact that these children were by ecclesiastical law illegitimate. England at this time was not in a position to be aggressive, and, although the usual border raids continued, Robert's reign was on the whole a peaceful one. A close alliance with France at the beginning of the reign, however, led in 1385 to a French army being sent to Scotland with the intention of attacking England from the north. The usual course of border devastation followed; but the French, dissatisfied with their reception by the Scots, soon returned home and Richard II exacted a heavy vengeance, burning Edinburgh, Perth, and Dundee. In 1388 an invasion of England was planned, resulting in the defeat of the English under the Percys at Otterburn. In 1390 Robert died, "leaving the character of a peaceful ruler over a quarrelsome people."

P. Hume Brown, "History of Scotland," 1911; C. S. Terry, "History of Scotland," 1920.

Robert III, King of Scotland (*s.* 1390, *d.* 1406), was a man of weak and indolent character, ill fitted to cope with the turbulent spirits of the age. The early years of his reign were disturbed by quarrels amongst the Highland clans and by lawlessness in the Lowlands to such an extent that in 1398 the Scottish parliament appointed the Duke of Rothesay, his eldest son, lieutenant of the kingdom. In 1400 Henry IV of England invaded Scotland with the intention of exacting homage from Robert; he failed, however, to take Edinburgh Castle, and retreated without effecting anything. An invasion of England by the Scots was repelled by the Percys at Homildon Hill (1402). On the capture of his surviving son, Prince James, by the English, March 1406, Robert died, it is said of a broken heart.

P. Hume Brown, "History of Scotland," 1911; C. S. Terry, "History of Scotland," 1920.

Robert (1054?–1134), Duke of Normandy, called Curthose on account of his short stature, was the eldest son of William the Conqueror. He was betrothed to the heiress of Maine, which was to be held as a fief of Anjou, but her death prevented the completion of the match. In 1077 he rebelled against his father and demanded the duchy of Normandy. War ensued between father and son; after the siege of Gerberoi in 1079 peace was made, and the succession to Normandy secured to Robert. On the death of his father he claimed the English throne, but William Rufus's prompt action disconcerted him, and he was obliged to make a treaty by which the survivor was to succeed to the other's dominions if either died without heirs. In 1094 Robert again made war upon William, but shortly afterwards, being eager to join the first Crusade, he pledged Normandy to his brother for the sum of 10,000 marks. In the Holy Land Robert fought with great bravery, and was offered but refused the crown of Jerusalem. Soon after his return he learnt that William was dead, and determined to enforce his claims to the throne. He invaded England in 1101, but was induced by Henry to make a compromise whereby he resigned the crown of England and contented himself with the full possession of Normandy and 3,000 marks a year. Quarrels soon broke out again between the brothers, Henry complaining that the rebellious English nobles found a shelter in Normandy. A war ensued in which Henry won the battle of Tenchebrai in 1106 and took Robert prisoner. He was imprisoned in various castles and died in captivity at Cardiff in 1134. By his marriage with Sibyl, daughter of the Count of Conversana, Robert had one son, William le Clito.

E. A. Freeman, "Norman Conquest," 1867–71.

Robert of Jumièges, Archbishop of Canterbury 1051–2, was a Norman who, after having been prior of St. Ouen's at Rouen, became abbot of Jumièges in 1037. Edward the Confessor formed a close friendship with him during his stay in Normandy, and two years after his return (1044) conferred upon him the bishopric of London—the first occupation of an English see by a foreigner since the Conversion. He at once became the leader of the French party at Edward's court, and the great enemy of Godwin and his family. In 1050, upon the death of Archbishop Eadsige, the monks of Christ Church elected in his place Ælfric, a kinsman of Godwin. The king, however, nominated Robert of London, and henceforth the latter's one object was to bring about the fall of Godwin, whose opposition to the French party had been embittered by this frustration of his kinsman's hopes as well as by Robert's refusal to consecrate the Englishman Spearhafoc to the see which he himself had left vacant. The archbishop claimed for the Church certain lands held by the earl, and even renewed the old accusation against him of complicity in the murder of Edward's brother, Alfred. The attack of the men of Dover upon the escort of Eustace of Boulogne and Godwin's refusal to punish them gave Robert his opportunity. By his advice Godwin was summoned before the witan to answer charges old and new. With Godwin's

outlawry the archbishop's triumph seemed complete (September 1051). Spearhafoc was deposed and a Norman became Bishop of London; and, what was still more important, William of Normandy was invited to England. But in September 1052 Godwin returned, and the nation declared in his favour. Robert dared not remain in England, and with Ulf, Bishop of Rochester, fled to the continent. He was outlawed by the witan and deprived of his archbishopric. He died at Jumièges.

"Political History of England," vol. ii.

[W. J. A.]

Roberts, Frederick Sleigh, 1st Earl Roberts of Kandahar and Waterford (1832–1914), was the son of General Sir A. Roberts. Entering the Bengal Army in 1851, he greatly distinguished himself in the Indian Mutiny, and gained the Victoria Cross. After further service in Abyssinia and in South-East Bengal, he successfully commanded the Kurum Valley column in the Afghan War of 1878. In his second campaign (1879–80) he made his celebrated march upon Kandahar, covering over 300 miles in twenty days. For this he was created a baronet and G.C.B. In 1885 he became commander-in-chief in India, was elevated to the peerage in 1892, resigned his command in 1893, and was appointed commander-in-chief in Ireland, with the rank of field-marshal, in 1895. In 1900 he commanded the army in South Africa. He was made commander-in-chief in 1901, created earl, and received the Garter. In 1905 he became head of the National Service League. He died on a visit to the western front in 1914, and was buried in St. Paul's.

Lord Roberts's autobiography, "Forty-one Years in India," 1897; biographies by Sir G. W. Forrest, 1914; W. Jerrold, 1914; H. G. Groser, 1914; H. F. B. Wheeler, 1915.

Robertson, Sir William Robert (*b.* 1860), entered the army as a private in 1877, and saw service in India, in the Chitral Expedition, 1895, and in the Boer War. In 1913 he became director of military training at the war office. He served under Lord French in France in 1914–15, returned to the war office as chief of staff in December 1915, and in May 1918 became commander-in-chief in Great Britain. From April 1919 to March 1920 he commanded the British troops in the Rhineland.

G. A. Leask, "Sir William Robertson," 1917.

Robin Hood, the hero of a cycle of popular ballads, according to tradition an outlaw commanding a band of freebooters in Sherwood Forest in the reign of Richard I. John Stow, writing in 1590, and doubtless giving the popular story, tells us that "he suffered no woman to be oppressed . . . . poor men's goods be spared, abundantly relieving them with that which by theft he got from the abbeys, and the houses of rich old carles." It is, however, doubtful at what time he lived, or, indeed, whether he existed at all. No contemporary historian mentions him: he is first alluded to in "Piers the Ploughman," and the earliest chronicle which speaks of him is the "Scotichronicon" (of the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries). An inscription is said to have been found on a tomb at Kirklees in Yorkshire in which he is called Earl of Huntingdon, and the date of his death is given as 1247; but this is apocryphal. Thierry thought he was chief of a Saxon band warring against the Norman oppressor; Grimm that he was purely mythical. He has been identified with a "Robyn Hod" who served as "porteur" to Edward II in 1223, but the evidence is very weak. The earliest ballads concerning him date from Edward III; Wynkyn de Worde published the "Lytel Geste of Robin Hood" in 1495.

Robin of Redesdale. [Conyers, Sir John (*fl.* 1469).]

Robinson, Frederick John, Viscount Goderich and 1st Earl of Ripon (1782–1859), was the second son of Thomas, 2nd Baron Grantham. Entering parliament as member for Ripon in 1807, he received office under Portland as under-secretary for the colonies, but retired with Castlereagh in 1809. He subsequently became a lord of the admiralty in 1810, a privy councillor in 1812, a lord of the treasury in 1812, paymaster-general in 1813, and in 1818 president of the board of trade. Created chancellor of the exchequer in 1823, he assisted Huskisson in his free-trade measures, was made secretary for the colonies and Viscount Goderich in 1827, and was for a few months prime minister after Canning's death (August–December 1827). From 1830 to 1833 he was again colonial secretary, becoming in the latter year lord privy seal and Earl of Ripon. Though he afterwards became president of the board of trade under Peel, he had ceased to be of any political importance.

Robinson, George Frederick Samuel, 1st Marquis of Ripon (1827–1909), succeeded to the earldom of Grey and Ripon in 1859, and was created Marquis of Ripon in 1871. From 1859 to 1863 he was secretary for war and (for a short time) for India, from 1863 to 1866 war secretary, and from 1868 to 1873 president of the council. He was governor-general of India 1880 to 1884, first lord of the admiralty for a few months in 1886, and colonial secretary from 1892 to 1895. He was lord privy seal and leader of the House of Lords from 1906 to 1908.

Wilfrid Blunt, "India under Ripon," 1909.

Robinson, Sir Hercules George Robert, 1st Baron Rosmead (1824–97), son of Admiral Hercules Robinson, of Westmeath, became president of Montserrat in 1854, lieutenant-governor of St. Christopher's in 1855, governor of Hong Kong in 1859, of Ceylon in 1865, of New South Wales in 1872, of New Zealand in 1879, and of the Cape in 1880. In 1881 he presided over the commission which settled affairs in the Transvaal, and acquired such popularity, both with the Boers and in Cape Colony, that, although he had retired in 1889,

he was prevailed upon to return to South Africa as high commissioner and governor of the Cape in 1895. The skill and firmness with which he dealt with the crisis arising out of the Jameson raid were generally admired. He was created Lord Rosmead in 1896, and retired from office in 1897.

Robinson, John (1650–1723), Bishop of Bristol, and afterwards of London, went in 1680 as chaplain to the English embassy in Sweden, where he stayed more than a quarter of a century and filled the posts, during the absence of the ambassador, first of resident and afterwards of envoy extraordinary. Anne rewarded his political services and good churchmanship with the deanery of Windsor and the bishopric of Bristol. Upon the accession to office of the Tory ministry (1711), and the sudden deaths of the Duke of Newcastle and the Earl of Jersey, to whom the privy seal had been offered, the vacant place was given to Robinson, the last churchman to hold political office. Next year he was appointed English plenipotentiary, together with the Earl of Strafford, at the Congress of Utrecht, and signed the treaty on April 11, 1713. On the death of Compton, 1714, he became Bishop of London.

Biography by W. H. Burgess, 1920.

Robinson, Sir Thomas, 1st Baron Grantham (1695–1770), was a politician of little ability, who, having been minister at Vienna for twenty years, and being acceptable to George II on account of his sympathy with the king's German policy, was chosen by the Duke of Newcastle, on the death of his brother Henry Pelham, to act as leader of the House of Commons, with the office of secretary of state. "The duke," said Pitt to Fox, "might as well send his jack-boot to lead us." In 1755 Robinson retired to his former office of master of the wardrobe with a pension of £2,000 on the Irish establishment. In 1761 he was raised to the peerage as Lord Grantham.

Rob Roy (1671–1734). [MacGregor, Robert.]

Robsart, Amy or Anne (1532 ?–1560), the daughter of Sir John Robsart, married in June 1550 Lord Robert Dudley, afterwards Earl of Leicester, by whom she is said to have been murdered at Cumnor, near Oxford, on September 8, 1560. The charge against her husband cannot be proved, and it is probable that the crime was committed by some of the earl's friends, who thought to derive benefit from his marriage with Queen Elizabeth, which, it was believed, would at once take place were he free.

W. Rye, "The Murder of Amy Robsart," 1885; A. Harris, "Romance and Reality of Amy Robsart," 1924.

Rochelle, Expeditions to. In 1625 Rochelle, the chief stronghold of the Huguenots in the south of France, had rebelled against Louis XIII, but had made terms in the beginning of 1626. James I, who understood that Richelieu represented not the principle of religious intolerance, but that of national union, had promised to lend a certain number of English ships to assist in the attack. But on the accession of Charles I an attempt was made to escape from this promise, and though the English government were outwitted, and the ships were actually used against the town, the French king was annoyed by Charles's action. The dismissal of Henrietta Maria's attendants, and the attitude of protector of the Protestants assumed by Charles in his proposals of mediation, led to a declaration of war between England and France. In 1627 Buckingham commanded an expedition to Rhé, where he landed in July. [Rhé.] In May of the next year another English fleet was sent, under Denbigh, to attempt the relief of the town, which was now blockaded by land and sea. But the English ships were unable to break through the barrier of palisades and vessels, and returned in May. In spite of the death of Buckingham another attempt was made in September. But there was no enthusiasm in the fleet, and the commander, Lindsey, could do nothing. Charles declared he would renew his efforts, but the Rochellese were now starving, and capitulated on October 18.

Kemmerer, "Histoire de l'île de Ré," 1888.

Roches, Peter des (*d.* 1238), Bishop of Winchester (1205), was a Poitevin friend of John, appointed justiciar of England on the death of Geoffrey Fitz-Peter, in 1213. In 1216 he was associated with the Earl of Pembroke and Gualo the legate in the control of the person of the young king, Henry III. On the death of Pembroke (1219) Peter des Roches seems to have continued as guardian of the royal person; but he soon showed that his policy was at variance with that of Pembroke, for he steadily set himself to support the foreign influence which Langton and the regent had opposed so vigorously. He was soon looked upon as the head of the party of the strangers, and persuaded its members to resist the resumption of the royal demesne that the justiciar Hubert de Burgh was striving to accomplish. But in this he was unsuccessful, and in 1221 was glad to go abroad on the pretext of a crusade. Three years later his power was still further reduced by the fall of the great mercenary leader, Falkes de Breauté (q.v.), but only for a time. The young king continued under the tutelage of Peter des Roches till 1227, when he announced his intention of ruling himself, and his late governor departed once more on a crusade, from which he did not return till 1231. But on the Bishop of Winchester's reappearance all his old influence revived; the king, at his instigation, dismissed his old ministers on the plea of peculation, and Hubert de Burgh suffered imprisonment and forfeiture. The new councillor, however, was soon overthrown; the barons, headed by Richard, Earl of Pembroke, refused to meet him, and a formidable revolt ensued. On the death of the marshal, Edmund Rich, Archbishop of

Canterbury, put himself at the head of the national party, and declared himself ready to excommunicate even the king unless the Poitevins were expelled; and then Henry at last gave way. Peter des Roches was confined to his spiritual duties, and his friends fell with him (1234). He died at Farnham four years later.

H. W. C. Davis, "England Under the Normans and Angevins," 1915.

Rochester early gained importance, during the Roman occupation, as commanding the point where the main high road of south-eastern England, that from Richborough to London, passed the Medway. So strongly was it fortified that the Jutes seem not to have ventured upon attacking it until they had conquered the rest of Kent. It is possible that Rochester was the capital of a West Kentish kingdom dependent upon the King of East Kent, a relation reflected in the dependence of the Bishop of Rochester on the see of Canterbury. The dedication of the church of Rochester to St. Andrew may possibly be due to the fact that it was from the monastery of St. Andrew at Rome that Augustine came. The town walls were strong enough to resist Ethelred when in 986 he attempted to punish the bishop, Ælfstan, with whom he had quarrelled; and also withstood an attack of the Danes. The cathedral was rebuilt by Bishop Gundulf, in the reign of Rufus, and, in spite of later additions, remains one of the smallest of English cathedral churches. Within the town walls, upon a cliff overlooking the Medway, had very early risen a fortress of earthwork and timber, and here Gundulf built for Rufus a castle of stone. It was probably the earliest fortress which was occupied by Odo of Bayeux when in 1088 he declared for Robert of Normandy against Rufus. The keep, which was built by Archbishop Walter of Corbeuil in the reign of Henry I, is one of the finest examples of Norman military architecture, and was in vain besieged in 1215 by John, and in 1264 by de Montfort. It was, however, taken by the peasantry in the revolt of 1381.

E. A. Freeman, "William Rufus," vol. i, p. 54, 1886, for map; E. Harris, "Sieges of Rochester," 3 vols., 1902. [W. J. A.]

Rochester, Lawrence Hyde, Earl of (1641–1711). [Hyde.]

Rochford, George Boleyn, Viscount (*d.* 1536). [Boleyn.]

Rockingham, Charles Watson-Wentworth, 2nd Marquis of (1730–82). [Wentworth.]

Rockingham, The Council of (February 25, 1095), was held to discuss the question whether Anselm could acknowledge Urban II as pope in spite of the refusal of Rufus to recognize either of the contending pontiffs. Anselm himself had asked that a council should meet to decide whether obedience to Urban was consistent with allegiance to William; if it decided against him, he declared he would leave the kingdom. Rufus consented to summon a council of magnates, which met in the castle of Rockingham, in Northamptonshire. But when it had come together, the king's party, including most of the bishops, led by William of St. Calais, carefully evaded the real point at issue, and persisted in treating Anselm as a person on trial. Anselm rejected their advice to submit entirely to the king, and, greatly to the disgust of Rufus, who had been promised by his bishops that Anselm would easily be crushed, the laymen present distinctly showed their sympathy with the archbishop. Rufus vented his spite upon the prelates by demanding that they should abjure all obedience to Anselm, and those who would not go farther than to abjure such obedience as was claimed by the pope's authority could only re-win the royal favour by heavy bribes. Finally the king yielded to the proposal of the lay lords, and the discussion was adjourned till May 20. But before that date the legate, Walter of Albano, had induced Rufus to acknowledge Urban, and to agree to a reconciliation with the archbishop. [W. J. A.]

Rodney, George Brydges, Lord (1719–1792), entered the navy when very young, and in 1742 attained the rank of captain. In 1747 he commanded the *Eagle* in the action off Cape Finisterre. Two years later he was appointed governor of Newfoundland. On the outbreak of war with France in 1757 he served under Hawke and Boscawen on the French coast. In 1759 he was promoted to be rear-admiral of the blue, and made a most daring and successful raid upon the stores which had been collected in Havre with a view to the invasion of England. In 1761 he was on the West India station. On the conclusion of the war he was made a baronet, and in 1765 became governor of Greenwich Hospital. In 1768 he was returned to parliament for Northampton, but his resources were so crippled that he had to retire to France to retrench. While residing there, according to a very doubtful story, offers were made by the French to tempt him to desert his country; but he rejected them. On his return in 1778 he was promoted admiral, and in the following year served as commander on the Leeward Isles station. On his way to that station he conducted a convoy of supplies to Gibraltar, which was then in the midst of its long siege. While in charge of this convoy he captured off Cape Finisterre, on January 16, 1780, a valuable fleet of Spanish merchantmen on their way to Cadiz, and a week later encountered a powerful Spanish fleet, which he totally defeated. On his return to England he was elected with Fox to parliament for Westminster. Early in 1781 he was ordered to the West Indies, and captured St. Eustatius; but, failing to induce the French admiral, de Grasse, to try an engagement, he returned to England. Being appointed vice-admiral of Great Britain, he shortly afterwards sailed again for the West Indies. At length, on

April 5, 1782, he obtained his long-wished-for opportunity of meeting de Grasse, who sailed out in the hope of effecting a junction with the French and Spanish fleets at Hispaniola. Rodney pursued, and, after a partial engagement, succeeded in overhauling the French fleet between Guadeloupe and Dominica. The fight on April 12 resulted in a decisive British victory. Rodney returned to England, to receive the title of Baron Rodney and a pension of £2,000 per annum. He survived his accession to these honours ten years.

Munday, "Life of Rodney," 1830; D. Hannay, "Rodney," 1889.

Roebuck, John Arthur (1802–79), was born at Madras, and in 1831 was called to the bar at the Inner Temple. Soon afterwards he entered the first reformed parliament as member for Bath, quickly making his mark as an incisive though often bitter debater. He several times lost and regained his seat, until in 1849 he was elected for Sheffield, which he represented with but one break (1868–74) up to his death. His greatest political achievement occurred when, on January 26, 1855, by a majority of 157, and in spite of the opposition of the Aberdeen government, he carried a motion for a committee to inquire into the conduct of the Crimean War, and was appointed its chairman. An advanced Radical, he always maintained his independence, and eventually diverged widely from the rest of his party.

R. E. Leader, "Life and Letters of Roebuck," 1897.

Roger, Bishop of Salisbury, was a poor priest of Caen, who, winning the favour of the Atheling Henry by the rapidity with which he performed Mass, became his chaplain and private adviser. When Henry gained the English throne Roger became chancellor, in 1107 Bishop of Salisbury, and at the same time justiciar. Under his guidance, whether as chancellor or as justiciar, the whole administrative system was remodelled, and the jurisdiction of the Curia Regis and Exchequer carefully organized. He swore to the succession of Matilda, though, according to the account he afterwards gave, only on condition that she should not be married to any foreigner without consent of the magnates. Stephen had little difficulty in gaining his support and the royal treasure which he guarded. But in a short time the king began to be jealous of his great minister. Roger and his family monopolized all the important offices in the administration. His son Roger was chancellor, his nephew Nigel was Bishop of Ely and treasurer, and a grandnephew, Alexander, was Bishop of Lincoln. Moreover, Roger and his nephews had been building great castles in their dioceses, the most important being those of Roger at Sherborne and Devizes. In June 1139 Stephen caused Roger and other members of the family to be arrested at Oxford, and they were not released until the castles had been surrendered. This action on the part of Stephen led at once to the break-up of the administration, and was one of the main causes of the king's later difficulties. Roger died in December 1139.

"Dialogus de Scaccario," i; William of Newburgh, i, 6. [W. J. A.]

Rohilkhand was so called from the Afghan Rohillas, who took possession of the country under Ali Mohammed Khan in the first half of the eighteenth century. About 1770 the Rohillas were unable to pay the Vizir of Oudh some forty lacs, for which he had become security to buy off the Mahrattas. The vizir gained the loan of a British force from Warren Hastings, with which the country was conquered. In 1801 a large part was ceded to Great Britain, instead of the tribute which the vizir had bound himself to pay. Rohilkhand is now a commissionership in the United Provinces.

Sir J. Strachey, "Hastings and the Rohilla War," 1892.

Rolls Series is the name usually given to the collection known officially as "Chronicles and Memorials of Great Britain and Ireland during the Middle Ages." As early as 1822 the House of Commons urged, in an address to George IV, the advisability of publishing "a complete edition of the ancient historians of this realm." But nothing resulted from this address till 1857, when the government accepted a scheme laid before them in that year by the master of the rolls, Lord Romilly. The plan of the volumes is summed up in Lord Romilly's proposal "that each chronicle and historical document should be edited in such a manner as to represent with all possible correctness the text of each writer . . . and that no notes should be added except such as were illustrative of the various readings . . . that the preface to each work should contain a biographical account of the author . . . and an estimate of his historical credibility and value." The series includes many works and collections of a miscellaneous character, besides editions of the chief mediæval chroniclers of England.

Rolls, The Master of the. The Master of the Rolls was originally the keeper of the rolls of Chancery—that is to say, of the administrative records belonging to that office. The first known keeper was John Langton, so described in 1286. At first the keeper, or master as he came in time to be called, was merely the chief clerk of Chancery. As such he normally had custody of the great seal during the absence of the chancellor from court. When the work of Chancery grew more judicial than administrative, the functions of the keeper of the rolls as judge became more important than his duties as clerk. The first lay keeper of the rolls was Thomas Cromwell. Early in the fourteenth century the almost deserted House of Converts (for Jews), in what is now Chancery Lane, was found to be a suitable place of storage for Chancery records. From 1307 the keeper of the rolls of Chancery was often, therefore, also keeper of the House of Converts, until in 1377

the mastership of this house was permanently annexed to his office. In modern times the duties of the Master of the Rolls, still a lawyer and a judge, and now president of the Court of Appeal, have been defined by an act of 1838, and by the Supreme Judicature Acts of 1873 and 1875. The first of these acts entrusted to the care of the master not only Chancery records, but also all the records of the Crown then in various places in London and Westminster. To accommodate them the present Public Record Office was built on the site of the House of Converts. The master's obligations as custodian are discharged by a deputy keeper of the records. [D. M. B.]

Sir H. C. Maxwell-Lyte, "Notes on the Great Seal."

Roman Roads, The, constitute, perhaps, the most durable of the memorials which the Romans left behind them in Britain. The method of their construction varied greatly with the nature of the ground traversed, but they were usually raised above the surface of the neighbouring land, and ran in a straight line, almost regardless of hills, from station to station. The more important lines of communication were very elaborately constructed, with a foundation of hard earth, a bed of large stones, sometimes two or more layers of stones and mortar, and of gravel, lime, and clay, and on the top of all a causeway often certainly paved with stone. The study of the Roman road system in Britain has been much complicated by the persistence of the mediæval tradition of the four great privileged roads—Foss Way, Watling Street, Icknield Street, and Ermine Street—and much misdirected effort has been expended in the attempt to fit the actual Roman roads into a category of four main highways. Recent research has, however, demonstrated that the roads of Roman Britain fall in reality into three groups, radiating out from the centre of London, and differing markedly from the alleged *Chimini Regis*. One of these groups runs westward from London to Silchester, where it divides into branches running to Winchester, Bath and Exeter, Leicester, Gloucester and South Wales. A second series runs north-west from London past the municipality of Verulam to Wroxeter and Chester; while the third runs either from London or from Colchester to Lincoln, and is supported by a subsidiary line from the second route through Leicester. The purpose of these roads was orginally military and their course may be taken as indicating the line upon which the conquest of south and eastern Britain was planned and effected in the first century A.D. Subsequently they served as highways of commerce, linking up the flourishing towns of the romanized south and east.

T. Codrington, "Roman Roads in Britain," 1918; F. J. Haverfield, "Romanization of Roman Britain," 1923, and "The Roman Occupation of Britain," 1924; R. G. Collingwood, "Roman Britain," 1923; O. G. S. Crawford, "Man and his Past," 1921.

Romans in Britain. Direct intercourse between the Romans and Britons began with the two expeditions of Julius Cæsar in 55 and 54 B.C., but he rather prepared the way for future conquest, by exacting the submission of the tribes of the south-east, than began the conquest himself. Though British kings sought the protection of Augustus, it was reserved for Claudius to add Britain to the empire. The campaign of Aulus Plautius in A.D. 43, the emperor's own conquest of the stronghold of Cunobelin, Ostorius Scapula's completion of the conquest of the south and east and capture of Caratacus (50), Suetonius Paulinus's great campaign against the Ordovices of North Wales (60), and suppression of the revolt of the Iceni after the inactive governments of Aulus Didius and Veranius, the partial reduction of the Brigantes by Petilius Cerealis (71–74), and the final submission of the Silures to Julius Frontinus (c. 77), prepared the way for the final triumphs of Julius Agricola (78–85). That great general successively defeated the Ordovices and the Brigantes, and, advancing to the north, ravaged the district as far as the Tay, fortified the isthmus between the Forth and Clyde, visited the western Highlands, and finally, after a three years' war, defeated the Caledonians at "Mons Graupius." But these northern districts were never really subdued, and the building by Hadrian of the first Roman Wall between the Tyne and the Solway (c. 120) marks the northern limit of the organized province. But in 140–141 Lollius Urbicus, the governor for Antoninus Pius, built a second wall, or rather an earthen rampart, between the Forth and the Clyde, which now became the ultimate although not the effective northern boundary of the Roman dominions. A series of incursions of the northern barbarians necessitated the repair and strengthening of Hadrian's Wall early in the third century by Severus, from whom it sometimes takes its name. One remarkable feature in the later history of the province is the constant tendency of the legions in Britain to set up emperors of their own, such as Carausius, who governed the province from 286 to 293, when he was slain by Allectus, while Britain was reconquered in 296 by Constantius Chlorus. That prince effected important reforms in the government, and fought successful campaigns against the Picts, as the inhabitants of the unconquered north now began to be called. In 369 Theodosius restored the province, after it had been ravaged by Picts and Scots, Saxons and Attacots. In 383 the revolt of Maximus, and his unfortunate attempt to win for himself the whole empire, led to the withdrawal of the army, and to fresh barbarian inroads on the unprotected land. In 396 Stilicho sent a single legion to help the struggling provincials, but its withdrawal in 402 led to fresh invasions. In 406 Stilicho again restored the army, but the successive usurpations of Constantine and Gerontius showed the feeble Honorius that the army in Britain was a danger rather than an assistance to his struggling empire. In 410, in answer to a request for help, he bade the provincials

defend themselves. Thereupon the Britons rose, expelled the civil governors, and set up some form of provincial government. The unity of the state rapidly disappeared, and Roman institutions were submerged by a wave of resurgent Celticism. But the imperial tradition was not forgotten, and many years later we find the Britons still claiming to be regarded as Roman citizens.

The nature of the rule which thus lasted for more than three centuries has given rise to much speculation and debate. The older school of historians, obsessed by analogies of British rule in India, and fortified by the negative evidence of law and philology, regarded the Roman rule in Britain as purely military in character. "A series of military posts, connected by a magnificent system of highways, a few commercial and mining centres, an occasional urban settlement, were all that could really be called Roman in Britain." The researches of the late Professor Haverfield, however, have profoundly modified opinion as to the character and extent of Roman influence in this country. His contention, based mainly on the evidences of archæology, is that the romanization of Britain, though smaller in scale than, was similar in trend to the romanization of other western provinces of the empire, such as Gaul and Spain. Although admittedly the uplands of the north and west remained throughout the Roman period an almost purely military district, the south-eastern plain, bounded on the north by York, on the west by Wroxeter and Caerwent, and on the south by Exeter, was, he maintains, thoroughly permeated by Roman culture. The great roads, constructed originally for military purposes, became, under the beneficent influence of the *pax romana*, highways of commerce, along which sprang up towns planned on the established Roman model with fora, basilica, and public baths. In the rural districts farms and country houses were erected, and the Roman villa system of agriculture took root and flourished, even if it did not completely oust the older Celtic systems. Such fragmentary evidence as we possess tells the same tale with regard to administration There were in Britain at least five municipalities of the privileged Italian type; while, although the old tribal organization was allowed to persist, it was given, as in northern Gaul, a Roman complexion. Inscriptions found at Venta Silurum show that the tribe or canton was organized around an old tribal centre, which became a *civitas* governed on the Roman plan by *duoviri* and a senate. The problem of language is one less easily solved by archæology, yet even here a body of evidence is accumulating to prove that Latin was not merely the official language of Britain, but the speech of ordinary conversation. Casual scribblings of amatory messages or tags from the Latin poets, found upon tiles and pottery, suggest that even the artisan classes must have been able to write as well as to speak and read the Latin tongue.

But if the romanization of Britain was so far complete, how comes it that the traces of Roman culture which have persisted are, apart from material remains, so few? The comparative immunity of the language of both the Celtic and the Anglo-Saxon inhabitants of post-Roman Britain from the influence of "imperial" Latin, and the absence of any conclusive evidence of institutional survival, have furnished the anti-romanizing" school with its strongest arguments. Yet even to these objections Professor Haverfield supplies an answer. The impermanence of Romano-British civilization he ascribes firstly to the existence outside the narrow limit of the fully-romanized area of a broad fringe of almost virgin Celticism which easily engulfed the enfeebled remnant of the Romano-Celtic population; and secondly to the peculiarly thorough nature of the Anglo-Saxon conquest—the work of a people untouched by Roman influences and proceeding to settlement only after a long period of purely destructive warfare.

It remains to speak of the military and political organization of the province of Britain. During the zenith of the Roman power by far the greater number of the troops were massed along the northern wall, the marches of modern Wales, and on the south-east coast, which was so exposed to the assaults of Saxon pirates. The sixth legion had its head-quarters at York, the twentieth at Chester, the second at Caerleon, for a time on the Wall, and afterwards at Rutupiæ (Richborough). Troops of nearly every known nation were comprised within their numbers. The practice of the same legion being stationed for a long time at the same place must have led to a good deal of intercourse between the Britons and their conquerors. Not infrequently the soldiers married native women, and settled down, when their term of service was expired, upon the lands allotted to them in their adopted country. The Roman soldiers took a prominent part in road-making, building dykes, working mines, and in the other great engineering operations which marked the Roman rule. The chief towns—most of which, such as York, London, Chester, Lincoln, Bath, Colchester, have continued to be centres of population—frequently owed their original importance to their position as military stations.

The system of government of the province more than once was radically changed. The province as a definite administrative district was begun under Aulus Plautius. Its exposed position naturally caused it to be an imperial rather than a senatorial province, and its governor was the legate. Its great extent and the difficulty found in properly defending it led to its division into two districts by Severus, which Dio calls Upper and Lower Britain. Their relative situations are not certainly known. Diocletian's reorganization of the empire involved the division of Britain into four provinces—Britannia Prima, Britannia Secunda, Maxima Cæsariensis, and Flavia

Cæsariensis—the positions of which are quite undetermined. In 369 a fifth province, called Valentia, the result of Theodosius's victories, was added. The two latter were consular, the three former each under a *præses*. The whole were under the *Vicarius Britanniarum*, and he was subject to the *Præfectus Prætorio Galliarum*. The troops were under the command of the *Dux Britanniarum* and the *Comes Litoris Saxonici*.

During the latter part of the Roman occupation Christianity crept silently into Britain. Before the legions left, it was the religion of the Roman State; but the Britons seem only to have been partially converted, and the traces of an organized British Church are few, though distinct. But the Roman Church in Britain depended on Gaul almost as much as, after Diocletian's reforms, the governors of Britain necessarily did.

F. J. Haverfield, "The Romanization of Roman Britain," 1923, and "The Roman Occupation of Britain," 1924; R. G. Collingwood, "Roman Britain," 1923; Sir C. W. C. Oman, "England Before the Norman Conquest"; T. Hodgkin, "Political History of England to 1066"; R. W. Chambers, "England Before the Norman Conquest," 1926.

Romans, King of the. [Richard, Earl of Cornwall.]

Rom-feoh, or Rome-scot. [Peter's Pence.]

Romilly, Sir Samuel (1757–1818), the son of a jeweller of French extraction, was born at Westminster. He was called to the bar in 1783, but was at first much impeded by nervous diffidence. When he had overcome this difficulty he rose rapidly, and by 1797 he had come to be recognized as a brilliant leader of the bar. In 1800 he was made a king's counsel, and in 1806 was appointed solicitor-general by Fox, being returned to parliament for Queenborough. In this position he was one of the managers of the impeachment of Lord Melville, and also took an active part in procuring the abolition of the slave trade. When he had been successful in accomplishing this object he turned his attention towards the reform of the penal code; and though he was prevented from carrying out his reforms as he desired, he succeeded in mitigating some of its severity. In 1812 he was defeated at Bristol, but, being returned for Arundel, he continued to support every measure which tended to improve the condition of the people. He was returned for Westminster in 1818, but did not live long enough to take his seat. His wife died on October 29, and within four days he committed suicide. "Year after year," says Sir Erskine May, "he struggled to overcome the obduracy of men in power. The Commons were on his side; Lords Grenville, Lansdowne, Grey, Holland, and other enlightened peers supported him; but the Lords, under the guidance of Lord Eldon, Lord Ellenborough, and their other judicial leaders, were not to be convinced. He did much to stir the public sentiment in his cause; but little, indeed, for the amendment of the law."

"Memoirs of Romilly," 1818; Sir W. J. Collins, "Life and Work of Romilly," 1908; C. Phillipson, "Three Criminal Law Reformers," 1923.

Rooke, Sir George (1650–1709), entered the navy at an early age, and in 1690 became rear-admiral of the red. He took part in the battle off Beachy Head (q.v.), was made vice-admiral of the blue in 1692, and commanded under Russell at La Hogue (May 23–4). For the skill with which he led a night attack upon a part of the French fleet which had escaped into the harbour out of reach of the English ships, he was rewarded with knighthood and the post of vice-admiral of the red. Upon peace being made with France in 1697, Rooke gained a seat in parliament for Portsmouth, and supported the Tory party. In 1702 he was created by Anne vice-admiral and lieutenant of the admiralty under Prince George. When war was renewed Rooke took command of the English fleet, stormed Vigo, and in August 1704 took Gibraltar. In the same year he fought a great but indecisive battle off Malaga. On his return to England he found himself treated with coldness by the Whig government, and retired to his country seat in Kent, where he died. His Journal was published in 1897 by the Navy Records Society.

Root and Branch. This phrase was derived from a petition asking that episcopacy might be destroyed "root and branch," signed by 15,000 citizens of London, and presented on December 11, 1640, by Alderman Pennington. The party in the Commons which supported this petition was called from it the Root and Branch party. "Of the chief leaders," says Clarendon, "Nathaniel Fiennes and young Sir H. Vane, and, shortly after, Mr. Hampden (who had not before owned it) were believed to be for root and branch, which grew shortly after a common expression, and discovery of the several tempers, yet Mr. Pym was not to that mind, nor Mr. Hollis, nor any of the northern men, or those lawyers who drove on most furiously with them." The Root and Branch Bill was drawn by St. John, and then through Vane, Cromwell, and Haselrig handed to Sir Edward Dering, who brought it in on May 27, 1641. It was read a first and second time on the same day, and passed the second reading by 139 to 108 votes. The bill proposed to appoint in each diocese a number of commissioners, half lay, half clerical, to exercise ecclesiastical jurisdiction in place of the bishops. It was dropped in August 1641.

Rosamund Clifford (*d.* 1175?). [Clifford.]

Rosebery, Archibald Philip Primrose, 5th Baron (*b.* 1847). [Primrose.]

Roses, The Wars of the, is the name commonly given to the dynastic civil war in the fifteenth century, which may be considered to

begin with the first battle of St. Albans in 1455, and to end with Bosworth Field in 1485, though there were long intervals of peace. The name was given on account of the badges worn by the representatives of the houses of York and Lancaster, the Yorkists taking as their cognizance the white rose, the Lancastrians the red rose. The ostensible cause of the wars was the rival claims to the throne of the families of York and Lancaster, both descended from sons of Edward III; the former could show strict hereditary right, while the latter had possession and parliamentary title. But there were other causes, without which it may fairly be said that the struggle would never have occurred. It was not till some years after the first battle of St. Albans that York put forward his claims, and even then such a compromise as was come to in 1460 might very fairly have been adhered to, but the other causes which were at work prevented this, and the controversy was decided by the sword. The House of Lancaster had in great measure lost its hold on the sympathies of the people; the loss of France, the marriage with Margaret of Anjou, her haughty and overbearing spirit, the suspicious death of the popular favourite Gloucester, all combined to estrange the people from the Lancastrian dynasty. The two ministers of the latter part of Henry VI's reign, Suffolk and Somerset, were unfortunate and unpopular, and the one strong man who seemed at all able to restore good government to the country was the Duke of York. The nobles who for so many years had been ranging over France now found themselves cooped up in England, and mutual jealousies arose which made them only too ready to take part in a civil war, while the birth of Prince Edward in 1453 perpetuated the Lancastrian claims, and so rendered any compromise impossible. The "bastard feudalism" of livery and maintenance, itself largely a heritage from the wars with France, supplied their necessary following, and contributed to the general disorder and "lack of governance" which characterized the period. With regard to the character of the two parties: since the time of Richard II and earlier there had been some branches of the royal house which were opposed to the reigning branch; and the opposition princes usually found it convenient to associate themselves with the party in the country that cried out for reform and good government, as Thomas of Lancaster had done under Edward II, and Thomas of Gloucester and Henry of Lancaster under Richard II. In Henry VI's reign, besides the opposition branch of the royal house, the York princes who were naturally antagonistic to the rival Lancasters and Beauforts, there existed the great family of the Nevilles, which had absorbed the territorial possessions of the Beauchamps, and now held a semi-royal position in the country. They were allied by marriage with the family of the Duke of York. In the north of England the Nevilles were great rivals of the powerful family of the Percys; and since the latter were firmly Lancastrian, this alone would almost have sufficed to make the Nevilles Yorkist. The war was mainly a quarrel among these and the other great houses —the "over-mighty subjects" of whom Sir John Fortescue writes. But it is possible to find certain geographical and political issues. There was general discontent with the government of Henry VI, its failures abroad, and its close connexion with the clerical party; and on this account York was hailed as the champion of reform, and was very popular in the towns and among the mercantile population of the southern counties. The Lancastrians, more closely connected with the Church and the nobility, excluding a few of the great families, were stronger in the north, where feudalism was strong, trade undeveloped, and reforming ideas had made little headway.

The effects of these wars upon our history were very great. They did much to destroy the old nobility, and so paved the way for the absolutism of the Tudors, for the new nobility owed its rise entirely to the Crown, and so was extremely servile. The people had no leaders, and were moreover glad of a strong government to preserve them from the horrors of another civil war. The Church, too, which had rested on the support of the barons, became greatly weakened, and was unable to resist the Crown. The commercial classes and the great towns had taken but little part in the wars, but had steadily increased in power and influence, and with this goes the gradual rise of the House of Commons as one of the great powers of the realm, no longer to be dependent on the nobles, but, though at first apparently considerably weakened, in reality a gainer by having to stand alone. The following is a chronological list of the battles fought during the wars; a description of each of them will be found in its place.

First Battle of St. Albans	May 22, 1455
Battle of Blore Heath	Sept. 23, 1459
Battle of Northampton	July 10, 1460
Battle of Wakefield	Dec. 30, 1460
Battle of Mortimer's Cross	Feb. 2, 1461
Second Battle of St. Albans	Feb. 17, 1461
Skirmish at Ferry Bridge	Mar. 1461
Battle of Towton	Mar. 29, 1461
Battle of Hedgeley Moor	April 25, 1464
Battle of Hexham	May 15, 1464
Battle of Edgecote	July 26, 1469
Battle of Losecoat Field	Mar. 19, 1470
Battle of Barnet	April 14, 1471
Battle of Tewkesbury	May 4, 1471
Battle of Bosworth	Aug. 22, 1485

R. B. Mowat, "The Wars of the Roses," 1914; J. Ramsay, "Lancaster and York, 1399–1485," 1899; K. H. Vickers, "England in the Later Middle Ages"; J. Gairdner, "The Houses of Lancaster and York," and "Introduction to the Paston Letters," 1904; H. T. Evans, "Wales and the Wars of the Roses," 1915. [F. S. P.]

Rosmead, Sir Hercules Robinson, Baron (1824–97). [Robinson.]

Ross, John Macdonald, 11th Earl of (*d.* 1498). [Macdonald.]

Ross Dependency. [New Zealand, Dominion of.]

Ross, Sir James Clark (1800–62), entered the navy in 1812, under his uncle, Sir John Ross, with whom he continued to serve in the Baltic, the White Sea, and on the coast of Scotland. He accompanied his uncle, as a midshipman, in his first voyage in search of the North-west Passage. Subsequently, from 1819 to 1825, he was engaged with Captain Parry in his three voyages, being promoted during his absence in 1822 to the rank of lieutenant. He again accompanied Captain Parry in 1827, and on his return was appointed commander. He also joined his uncle, Captain John Ross, from 1829 to 1833, on his second voyage in search of a North-west Passage, and on his return was elevated to the rank of a post-captain in recognition of his valuable services, among which was the discovery of the magnetic pole. He was afterwards employed by the admiralty in a magnetic survey of Great Britain and Ireland. In 1839 he was appointed to the command of an expedition in the *Erebus* and *Terror* to the Antarctic Seas, the chief purpose in view being magnetic investigations. This voyage occupied four years. In 1844 he was knighted, and in 1847 published the results of his discoveries and researches. In January 1848 he made a voyage in the *Enterprise* to Baffin's Bay in search of Sir John Franklin, but was unsuccessful.

Rotherham, Thomas, Archbishop of York 1480–1500, had been keeper of the privy seal to Edward IV, and in 1468 became Bishop of Rochester. In 1471 he was translated to Lincoln, and in 1474 was made lord chancellor. He held the great seal till 1483, when he was obliged to resign it by the Duke of Gloucester. He was imprisoned by Richard for some little while, and after his release does not seem to have taken any prominent part in public affairs. In 1480 he had been created Archbishop of York.

Rothes, John Leslie, 7th Earl of (1630–81). [Leslie.]

Rothesay, David, Duke of, the eldest son of Robert III of Scotland, was a man of great charm but of profligate and idle habits; in 1399 he was appointed lieutenant of the kingdom by the Scottish parliament, and a year afterwards successfully defended the castle of Edinburgh against the English; the same year he married Marjory, daughter of Archibald, Earl of Douglas. Soon afterwards he was seized at the instigation of his uncle, the Duke of Albany, and imprisoned in Falkland Castle, where he is said to have died of starvation (March 1402).

Rothschild's Case (1847). Mr. Lionel N. de Rothschild, a Jew (1808–79), was returned as one of the members for the City of London in 1847. His return was perfectly legal, but he was unable to take the oath because it contained the words, "on the true faith of a Christian." He therefore sat below the bar for four sessions in expectation of relief from the legislature. Being disappointed, he resolved to try his rights by the existing law. He therefore, in 1850, presented himself to be sworn. After some discussion he was allowed to be sworn on the Old Testament, but omitted the words, "on the true faith," etc. He was immediately directed to withdraw, and after a learned discussion it was resolved that he could neither sit nor vote till he had taken the oath in the usual manner. In consequence, he was prevented from sitting until 1858, when the disability was removed. [Jews in England; Oaths, Parliamentary.]

"Commons Journal"; "Hansard," 3rd ser., cxiii, 297, 396, 486, 769.

Rotumah, a dependency of Fiji (q.v.).

Roundhead. The name of Roundhead took its rise at the same time as the name of Cavalier (q.v.), in the tumults which occurred during the discussion of the Bishops' Exclusion Bill at the end of 1641. Like Cavalier, it referred originally to the external characteristics of the men, whose party name it afterwards became. "These people, or citizens," says Lilly, "used to flock unto Westminster, were, most of them, men of a mean, or a middle quality. . . . They were modest in their apparel, but not in their language; they had the hair of their heads very few of them longer than their ears, whereupon it came to pass that those who usually with their cries attended at Westminster, were by a nickname called Roundheads." According to Rushworth the word was first used on December 27, 1641, by David Hide, a disbanded officer, who in one of the riots drew his sword, and swore to "cut the throats of those round-headed dogs that bawled against bishops," "which passionate expression of his, as far as I could ever learn, was the first mentioning of that term or compellation of Roundheads, which afterwards grew so general." "From these contestations," says Clarendon of the tumults, "the two terms, Roundhead and Cavalier, came to be received in discourse, and were afterwards continued for the most succinct distinction of affections throughout the quarrel." A different story of the origin of the name is given by Baxter. "Some say it was because the queen at Strafford's trial asked who that round-headed man was, meaning Pym, because he spoke so strongly." The name did not go out of use till after the Revolution.

Clarendon, "History of the Rebellion"; Rushworth, "Historical Collections"; Baxter, "Life"; Lilly, "Monarchy or no Monarchy." [C. H. F.]

Round Robin, The (February 1789), was an engagement in writing between twenty Irish peers and thirty-seven commoners, with the Duke of Leinster at their head. It bound all who signed it to make government impossible if the viceroy punished any one of them by loss of office or pension for their conduct on the regency question. Lord Buckingham encountered them by an increase of the pension list, and the majority being frightened consented to give up their engagement. The Duke of

Leinster and the Ponsonbys, however, held out and lost their places.

Rowan, Archibald Hamilton (1751–1834), was a gentleman of fortune who became a United Irishman. In the year 1794 he was apprehended for sedition, sentenced to pay a fine of £500, and imprisoned. William Jackson, a French spy, corresponded with him. Rowan, however, made his escape from Newcastle as soon as he heard of Jackson's apprehension, and fled to America. He was sentenced to death in his absence, but his estates were saved; and in 1803 Castlereagh got him a pardon, and he then lived quietly in Ireland till his death.

Rowena is said to have been the daughter of Hengest, and to have become the wife of Vortigern. But there is absolutely no authority for her existence, and her name is certainly not Teutonic. The legend of Rowena and Vortigern is told by Geoffrey of Monmouth.

Rowton Heath, The Battle of, was fought during the Civil War (September 24, 1645). After Naseby Charles I took refuge in Wales, where he strove to collect fresh troops. In the middle of September he formed the plan of marching northwards to join Montrose, and raising the siege of Chester on his way. The king himself, with part of his forces, succeeded in entering Chester, which was not completely invested. The besiegers under Sir William Brereton were reinforced by a body of Yorkshire horse under Colonel Poyntz. Sir Marmaduke Langdale, who commanded the troops charged with the duty of raising the siege, attacked rashly, and was taken between the forces of Brereton and Poyntz and utterly routed. He lost 300 killed and wounded, and 1,000 prisoners. This defeat, and the news of Montrose's defeat at Philiphaugh (September 13), obliged the king to abandon his plan.

Phillips, "Civil War in Wales."

Roxburgh, one of the four burghs, was surrendered to the English (1174) as security for the fulfilment of the Treaty of Falaise, being restored to Scotland by Richard I (1186). In 1216 it was burnt by John. In 1296 it was given up to Edward I. In 1312 it was surprised by the Black Douglas, and having been regained by the English, was in 1342 stormed by Sir Alexander Ramsay. In 1346 it was retaken by the English, who, although the town was destroyed in the reign of James I, held the castle until 1460, when it fell into the hands of the Scots after a severe siege, in which James II was killed by the bursting of a cannon. The abbey of Roxburgh was destroyed by the Earl of Hertford (1545).

A. Jeffrey, "History of Roxburghshire," 4 vols., 1857–64.

Royal Exchange. [Gresham, Sir Thomas.]

Royal Society, The, grew out of two small groups of friends who met occasionally in London and Oxford to discuss scientific questions as early as 1645. These were organized into a definite society in 1660; in July 1662 it was granted a charter by Charles II, and incorporated as the Royal Society. The king, as well as his brother James, placed their names in the list of members. Its early meetings took place in Gresham College, and afterwards in Arundel House (1666–1710) and Crane Court (1710–80). They were transferred in 1780 to Somerset House, and to Burlington House in 1857.

Royal Society Transactions from 1665; Sprat, "History of the Royal Society," 1667; Weld, "History of the Royal Society," 1847.

Rudyerd, Sir Benjamin (1572–1658), was elected for Portsmouth in the parliament of 1621, after having recently been appointed surveyor of the Court of Wards (q.v.). He was one of "that band of politicians who hoped to reconcile a stirring foreign policy with the fullest devotion to the Crown." In 1623 he was put forward as the exponent of Buckingham's new policy of war with Spain, and in subsequent parliaments was "the usual mouthpiece of the government." At the beginning of the Long Parliament (1640) he was so far convinced of abuses in the government that he proposed the removal of evil counsellors from the king, though without punishing anyone; and when the Bishops' Exclusion Bill was being discussed he advocated in a vague way a return to primitive episcopacy. He seems to have been a well-meaning dealer in useless commonplaces, without any force of character.

Manning, "Memoirs of Rudyerd," 1841.

Rullion Green, The Battle of (November 1666), resulted in a defeat of the insurgent Covenanters under Colonel Wallace at the hands of the royal troops led by General Dalziel. Rullion Green is a valley dividing the Pentland Hills.

Rumbold, Richard (1622 ?–1685), was an officer in Cromwell's regiment. He guarded the scaffold at Charles I's execution, and was present at Dunbar and Worcester. After the Restoration he settled down at the Rye House, near Hoddesdon in Hertfordshire. Here, in conjunction with others, he planned the assassination of Charles II and the Duke of York (1682). The conspiracy was discovered, and Rumbold had to flee. In 1685 he took part in Argyll's invasion, and was captured and put to death. Surrounded by cowardly and factious associates, he had, through the whole campaign, behaved himself like a soldier trained in the school of the great Protector, had in council strenuously supported the authority of Argyll, and had in the field been distinguished by tranquil intrepidity. [Rye House Plot.]

Rump. [Long Parliament.]

Runes, or Runic characters, comprise the early alphabet used by the Teutonic nations, and especially by the Scandinavians and the Anglo-Saxons. There were in the older form

of the Runic alphabet twenty-four letters, sixteen in the newer. They are said to have been revealed to mankind by the god Odin. It has been suggested that they were introduced by Phœnician traders to the people living on the Baltic coast, and were copied from the inscriptions on Greek and Roman coins.

Runnimede was the name of the small island in the Thames near Staines, on which John set his seal to the Great Charter, June 15, 1215. [MAGNA CARTA.]

Rupert, PRINCE (1619–82), was the third son of Frederick V, Elector Palatine, and Elizabeth, daughter of James I. Upon the outbreak of hostilities between king and parliament Rupert received the command of the Royalist cavalry, and took part in all the important engagements of the first Civil War. He showed impetuous courage, but little judgment, and to this defect the Royalist defeat at Marston Moor was chiefly due. His surrender of Bristol on September 11, 1645, caused Charles to deprive him of his command. In 1648, however, he was given command of the Royalist fleet, and showed considerable skill in eluding Blake. At last, in 1651, Blake inflicted on him a crushing defeat and destroyed most of his vessels. With the remnant Rupert escaped to the West Indies, where he carried on a buccaneering warfare against English merchantmen till 1653, when he managed to reach France. After the Restoration he again obtained high naval command, and did good service under Monck in the war against the Dutch. The later years of his life were spent in scientific researches, and he took the greatest interest in the proceedings of the Royal Society (q.v.), of which he was a leading member.

Biographies by Eliot Warburton, 1849, E. Scott, 1899, and Beatrice Erskine, 1910.

Russell, THE FAMILY OF, was one of the most ancient in Dorsetshire. In 1506, during his brief stay on the coast of Dorsetshire, where he was compelled to put in by stress of weather, Philip of Austria made the acquaintance of John Russell, and recommended him for employment to Henry VII. Russell received an appointment in the privy chamber, and was henceforth constantly employed in the public service. In 1539 he was created Baron Russell, and in 1549 Earl of Bedford, receiving large grants of the confiscated lands of the abbeys of Woburn and Tavistock. In May 1694 William, 5th earl, was created Duke of Bedford and Marquis of Tavistock.

Russell, EDWARD, EARL OF ORFORD (1653–1727), nephew of William, 1st Duke of Bedford, was a naval officer, but withdrew from active service when his kinsman was beheaded, and was one of the seven men who signed the invitation to William III. On the accession of William he was placed on the privy council. He began in 1691 to intrigue with James, and complained bitterly to William of the neglect of the Whigs. In May 1692 he fought the battle of La Hogue (q.v.). James had imagined that the English fleet was friendly to him, and trusted the assurances of Russell. But the ill-timed declaration of the exiled king, and the queen's spirited letter to the fleet, had quite changed the mind of the admiral. He went from ship to ship encouraging the crews, who fought bravely and won a great victory. He was temporarily superseded in his command, but soon recalled, made first lord of the admiralty, and sent to the Mediterranean with most of the English and Dutch ships (1693). On the accession of the Whig Junto to power in 1696 Russell again became first lord of the admiralty, and in 1697 Earl of Orford and Viscount Barfleur. In 1701 he was impeached, together with Portland, Somers, and Montagu, by the victorious Tories, and charged with complicity in the crimes of Captain Kidd (q.v.), an accusation so absurd that it soon fell to the ground. During the reign of Anne he was excluded from office until 1709, when he became first lord of the admiralty till 1710. On the accession of George I he was again placed at the head of the admiralty commission, but henceforth he took but little part in politics.

Burnet, "History of His Own Time," ed. O. Airy, 2 vols., 1897–1900.

Russell, FRANCES CROMWELL, LADY (1638–1721). [CROMWELL.]

Russell, FRANCIS, 2ND EARL OF BEDFORD (1527–85), was one of Elizabeth's most trusted counsellors in the early part of her reign. In 1561 he was sent on a special embassy to the court of France, and three years later to Scotland in conjunction with Sir Thomas Randolph. He subsequently commanded the Northern army at Berwick, and in 1566 was sent to represent Elizabeth at the baptism of James VI. In the course of his negotiations in Scotland he managed to incur the displeasure of the queen, who accused him of taking part with the Scottish lords against Mary, whose marriage with the Duke of Norfolk he subsequently opposed.

"Burghley Papers."

Russell, FRANCIS, 4TH EARL OF BEDFORD (*d.* 1641), was the only son of Lord Russell of Thornhaugh, and on the death of his cousin, the 3rd earl, in 1627, succeeded to the earldom of Bedford. He was one of the chief promoters of the great work of draining the Great Level, afterwards, in his honour, known as the Bedford Level. In politics he occupied a moderate position. He was a personal friend of Pym, but was desirous of devising a *modus vivendi* between king and parliament. He was the head of the commissioners who negotiated the Treaty of Ripon (q.v.) with the Scots in 1640, and in the early part of the next year, when Charles conceived the idea of forming a ministry from the more moderate of the opposition leaders, he offered Bedford the post of lord treasurer and practically that of prime minister. This scheme, which seemed to promise success, was frustrated

by the sudden death of the Earl of Bedford from small-pox. Clarendon sums up his character thus :—" He was a wise man, and would have proposed and advised moderate courses ; but was not incapable, for want of resolution, of being carried into violent ones if his advice was not submitted to ; and therefore many who knew him well thought his death not unseasonable, as well to his fame as his fortune."

Clarendon, " History of the Rebellion," 1702–4.

Russell, John (*d.* 1494), was frequently employed in affairs of state by Edward IV, and in 1476 was made Bishop of Rochester. He was translated to Lincoln in 1480, and was one of the executors of Edward's will. In 1483 Gloucester appointed him chancellor, which office he held till 1485, when Richard, suspecting him of treachery, took the great seal from him. Russell was employed by Henry VII on various diplomatic missions, but the later years of his life were spent in the affairs of his bishopric.

Russell, John, 1st Earl of Bedford (*d.* 1555), was a gentleman of Dorsetshire attached to the court of Henry VIII. He obtained considerable grants out of the monastic spoils, and thus laid the foundation of the wealth of his family. In 1536 he co-operated energetically with the Duke of Suffolk in repressing the first seeds of discontent in Lincolnshire. Later on in his career Russell again distinguished himself by the complete suppression of the revolutionary outbreak of 1549 in the western counties. Defeating the insurgents in a pitched battle at St. Mary's Clyst, he succeeded in relieving the city of Exeter, which had just previously been hard pressed by the rebel forces, and in entirely destroying their hopes in Cornwall and Devonshire, which were at once placed under martial law. In the council Russell, after these events, took part with Warwick against Somerset, and materially contributed to the Protector's fall. For his services on this occasion Russell, who had been made a peer in 1539, was now, in 1550, created, by Northumberland's influence, Earl of Bedford. On the death of Edward VI he thought it prudent to conform to the Catholic mode of worship. He continued accordingly under Mary to enjoy the royal favour, and he was employed by her on several embassies of importance.

Russell, John, 8th Earl and 4th Duke of Bedford (1710–71), succeeded to the dukedom in 1732. Ten years later he took an active part against Sir Robert Walpole. In 1744 he was appointed a lord commissioner of the admiralty, and a member of the privy council. He was soon afterwards appointed first lord of the admiralty. In 1748, on the resignation of Lord Chesterfield, he was appointed secretary of state for the Southern department, but resigned in 1751, on the dismissal of Lord Sandwich. Five years later he was sent to Ireland as lord-lieutenant. In that office he did not succeed, and exasperated the Irish by asking for his sister-in-law a pension on the Irish establishment. His principle of government was to silence opposition by donatives : nor did he forget his friends, especially Rigby, in the general distribution of Irish money. In 1761 he resigned on Bute's accession to power. In the following year he went to Paris as plenipotentiary to negotiate for peace. In the Grenville ministry he became president of the council. He seems to have acted an independent part in the king's closet, and to have insisted as firmly as Grenville himself on the dismissal of Lord Bute, to whom he was now thoroughly opposed. He was in advance of his age in the knowledge of political economy, and incurred the most violent hatred by opposing a bill to impose duties on foreign silks. In 1765 he was summarily dismissed from office along with Grenville, and, refusing the overtures alike of Lord Chatham and the Duke of Grafton, remained for the rest of his life out of office. But he continued to take an active part in politics, and in 1769 proposed to resuscitate a statute of Henry VIII in order to dispense with juries in the American colonies. Walpole calls the duke " a man of inflexible honesty and good-will to his country," but says that " his manner was impetuous." To this unfortunate trait was probably due his almost universal unpopularity. His portrait has been drawn by Junius, exaggerated and distorted by the rancour of personal animosity.

" Bedford Correspondence " ; " Chatham Correspondence " ; Sir G. O. Trevelyan, " Early History of C. J. Fox," 1880 ; " Letters of Junius."

Russell, Lord John, 1st Earl (1792–1878), was the third son of John, 6th Duke of Bedford. He was educated at Edinburgh, and entered parliament in 1813 as member for Tavistock in the Whig interest. In December 1819 he took up the question of parliamentary reform and moved four moderate resolutions, henceforth specially associating himself with the reform movement, and annually moving a resolution on the subject. In February 1828 he carried a motion for the repeal of the Test and Corporation Acts, and a bill was subsequently passed to that effect. In 1830 he became paymaster of the forces under Lord Grey, and was entrusted with the presentation of the Reform Bill to the House (March 31, 1831). His reputation was greatly increased by the ability which he displayed in the passage of the bill ; and when Peel gained office Russell was recognized as leader of the opposition. In 1835 he became home secretary under Melbourne, and in 1839 secretary for war and the colonies. At the general election of 1841 he was returned for the City of London, a seat which he retained for twenty years. In 1845 he declared himself in favour of the repeal of the Corn Laws, in the letter of November 22 to his constituents, and in July 1846 he became prime minister. Four years later, in 1850, he made the great mistake of countenancing the No-Popery agitation by his " Letter to the Bishop of Durham " upon the creation of a Catholic episcopate in England,

and by his Ecclesiastical Titles Bill, which, however, remained a dead letter. At the end of 1851 he quarrelled with and dismissed Palmerston, who in the next year brought about the fall of the Russell ministry. In Aberdeen's ministry Russell was at first foreign secretary and afterwards president of the council; in 1855 he resigned, and came back to the foreign office under Palmerston in 1859. In 1861 he was created Earl Russell, and became again prime minister on Palmerston's death in 1865. He was defeated in 1866 on the second Reform Bill, and resigned. He never afterwards held office, though he continued to take an active part in politics, and in 1869 introduced a bill empowering the Crown to confer life-peerages. Earl Russell was a voluminous writer, and edited himself selections from his speeches and dispatches (1870).

Biography by Spencer Walpole, 1889; "Early Correspondence," ed. Rollo Russell, 1913; "Later Correspondence," ed. G. P. Gooch, 1925; S. J. Reid, "Lord John Russell," 1895.

Russell, William, 5th Earl and 1st Duke of Bedford (1614–1700), was the son of the 4th Earl of Bedford. He was an opponent of the arbitrary policy of Charles I and Strafford, and a moderate supporter of the Parliament. When the Civil War broke out he joined the Parliamentary standard with a body of horse, and took part in the battle of Edgehill; but he separated from the Parliament in 1643, and joined the king. He was present at the battle of Newbury, on the Royalist side, and greatly distinguished himself. His estates were confiscated, but he succeeded in making his peace with the Parliament and getting them restored. He took some part in the Restoration, and was a prominent supporter of William of Orange at the Revolution of 1688, after which event (in 1694) he was created Duke of Bedford.

Russell, William, Lord (1639–83), third son of William, 5th Earl of Bedford, was one of the leaders of the opposition towards the close of the Long Parliament of Charles II. He began the attack upon the Duke of York which led up to the Exclusion Bill, by moving an address in the House of Commons, on November 4, 1678, that the duke should be removed from the royal councils. So popular was he in the country that at the general election in 1679 he was chosen for two counties—Bedfordshire and Hampshire. He was nominated a member of the privy council as reorganized by Temple, but it was impossible that a council containing such discordant elements should work smoothly, and the Whig leaders speedily sought their dismissal. During the Exclusion Bill debates Russell was practically leader of the House, and it was he who took the bill up to the Lords (November 19, 1680). But the court was victorious, and in 1683 took revenge by accusing Russell of participation in the Rye House Plot (q.v.), though it is almost certain that he and his friends had merely discussed the possibility of a popular agitation for a new parliament, and did not contemplate the employment of force. He was tried for high treason at the Old Bailey on July 13, 1683, found guilty, and executed on the 21st, refusing to the last, in spite of the arguments of Tillotson and Burnet, to assent to the doctrine of non-resistance.

Biography by Lord John Russell, 1820; Cobbett's "State Trials," vol. ix, 1811.

Russia, Relations with. During the Middle Ages there were practically no relations between England and the barbarous kingdom of the Tsars. The English captain, Chancellor, began in 1553 both commercial dealings by his voyage to the White Sea and diplomatic intercourse by bearing to Moscow a letter from Queen Mary to Ivan the Terrible. In 1568 this mission bore fruit in Ivan's proposal for a commercial treaty giving exclusive rights to English merchants, and a political alliance against Poland and Sweden; but neither of these was ever executed. In 1645 Alexis Mikhailovitch sent Gersim Doktourof to England; but on finding the king to whom he was accredited a prisoner of his own subjects, the envoy withdrew in disgust, and the execution of Charles was followed by the expulsion of English merchants from Russia. After the Restoration the embassy of Lord Carlisle restored diplomatic relations (1663); but nothing of any importance happened until Peter the Great's famous visit to England in 1697. The distant friendship of the two nations was readily broken in 1717 by the coalition of Peter with Charles XII and Alberoni, with the intention, among other objects, of depriving Hanover of Bremen and Verden, and of helping the Pretender to the English throne. But these projects soon passed away, and on the whole friendly relations between the two countries were maintained for the greater part of the eighteenth century. The close alliance of Russia and Austria, the notion that the development of Russia would help in keeping down France and its northern ally Sweden, the common policy of maintaining the Cap faction in power in the latter country, and the importance of the trade between the two nations, all helped to establish their alliance. In 1748 the advance of a Russian force secured for Great Britain and her allies the Peace of Aachen. But in the Seven Years' War Russia did her best to overthrow Great Britain's ally, Prussia. Yet Chatham always maintained the policy of the Russian alliance, and in 1769 Great Britain assisted the fleet of Alexis Orlof in its long voyage from the Baltic to the aid of the revolted Greeks, and an Englishman conducted the fire-ships which destroyed the Turkish fleet in the Bay of Tchesme. Less justifiable was the acquiescence of Great Britain in the first partition of Poland in the year 1772; which was ill requited by Catherine II's abandonment, in the latter part of her reign, of the British alliance in favour of a connexion with France. Thus, in 1780, Catherine joined the Armed Neutrality (q.v.). Little less offensive to Great Britain

was her close alliance with Joseph II, whose policy in the Netherlands was diametrically opposed to that of the British. The younger Pitt was the first British statesman who took up the position of hostility to Russia which in later times became so general. While Fox eloquently pleaded for a continuance of the old connexion, Pitt formed an alliance with Poland, Prussia, and Sweden against the "Colossus of the North"; but his threats were unable to prevent Russia's triumph in the Turkish war and the inglorious defeat of Gustavus III of Sweden. The struggle against revolutionary France brought back, however, the old relations. Catherine in her old age was content with denouncing the Revolution. Paul I joined the Second Coalition, and in 1799 British and Russian troops joined to fight an unsuccessful campaign in Holland which led to mutual jealousies and recriminations. As a result Paul formed a close connexion with his hero Napoleon, and established a second Armed Neutrality in the north. After Paul's murder, Alexander I joined the next coalition, but from 1807 to 1812 his alliance with Napoleon isolated Great Britain and allowed the establishment of the Continental System. After 1815 the Tory government kept up a friendship with the instigator of the Holy Alliance. The judicious policy of Canning of joining with Russia to obtain the liberties of Greece was followed with much reluctance, however, by the Wellington ministry which called Navarino (q.v.) an untoward event. The triumph of Liberalism in Great Britain, the sympathy excited by the Polish insurgents, the antagonism of interest in the Levant, and, before long, in Asia as well, gradually produced a settled divergence between the two countries.

[T. F. T.]

[The presentation of the Russian demands at Constantinople for a protectorate over the Christian subjects of the Porte and for a dominant influence in the Straits led to a period of stormy negotiations culminating in the Crimean War (q.v.). The Russian pretensions suffered at the Peace of Paris in 1856, but fifteen years later the preoccupation of Europe in the Franco-Prussian War enabled the Tsar summarily to abrogate the clauses of that treaty which had neutralized the Black Sea. A more acute situation arose in 1878 after the Treaty of San Stefano, when Disraeli, pursuing Palmerston's policy of resolute opposition to Russia, sent troops to Malta to emphasize his demand for a congress of powers. War was averted, however, and the crisis dissolved by the Treaty of Berlin (q.v.). Lord Salisbury subsequently reversed the pro-Turkish policy of Disraeli, and the Liberals revived Canning's policy of watchful co-operation with Russia. Relations remained unsatisfactory for several years, nevertheless. By 1900 Great Britain and Russia were at loggerheads in India [PANJDEH], Persia, Tibet, Afghanistan, and elsewhere. The Anglo-Japanese alliance of 1902 served only to aggravate the differences, and the North Sea outrage of 1905 (q.v.) tended in the same direction. Not until 1907, following the Franco-Russian alliance of 1894 and the Anglo-French entente of 1904, did the Pact of Petersburg resolve all outstanding Anglo-Russian differences and establish the Triple Entente (q.v.). Tension in the East was relieved. During the Great War the two governments were in active co-operation, Great Britain launching the Dardanelles Expedition of 1915 (q.v.) in an endeavour to relieve pressure on the Russian front. But the Union of Socialist Soviet Republics (established in March 1917 on the fall of the Tsardom) remained unrecognized by Great Britain until the advent of Mr. Ramsay MacDonald's first Labour government in 1924, though a Trade Agreement was concluded in 1921. Russia, however, remained antagonistic to the League of Nations, and the continued growth of Bolshevik propaganda in England led to a rupture of relations in May 1927.

R. N. Bain, "Slavonic Europe, 1447–1796," 1908; C. R. Beazley and others, "Russia, from the Varangians to the Bolsheviks," 1918; A. N. Rambaud, "Histoire de la Russie," 1918; Oscar Browning, "Peter the Great," 1898; A. W. Kinglake, "Invasion of the Crimea," 1863–87; Sir D. M. Wallace, "Russia," revised edn., 1912; Baron S. A. Korff, "Russia's Foreign Relations during the Last Half-Century," 1922.

[A. C. F. B.]

Ruthven, ALEXANDER (1580 ?–1600) (the Master of Gowrie), conspired, with his brother John, 3rd Earl of Gowrie, to kidnap King James VI at Gowrie House, and to convey him by sea to Fast Castle (1600). Ruthven, having prevailed upon the king to visit his brother's castle, attacked him there, but was himself slain. This affair is known as the Gowrie Conspiracy (q.v.).

Andrew Lang, "James VI and the Gowrie Mystery," 1902; S. Cowan, "Gowrie Conspiracy," 1902.

Ruthven, JOHN, 3RD EARL OF GOWRIE (1578 ?–1600), son of William Ruthven, 1st Earl of Gowrie (q.v.), joined with his brother in the Gowrie Conspiracy of 1600 (q.v.), to kidnap King James VI. In the struggle which ensued he was killed by Sir Thomas Erskine, a retainer of the king. He was provost of Perth, and very popular with the citizens, who threatened to make the "king's green coat pay for their provost."

See authorities for Ruthven, Alexander.

Ruthven, PATRICK, EARL OF BRENTFORD (*d.* 1651), having served in many foreign armies, joined the Royalist troops, and was at once made a field-marshal by Charles I. He had an important command at the battle of Edgehill, and on the death of the Earl of Lindesay was made commander-in-chief of the forces. He was created Earl of Forth, and subsequently Earl of Brentford, by the king, who had a high opinion of his military ability. He was severely wounded in the second battle of Newbury, and obliged to resign his command, being succeeded by Prince Rupert. Clarendon remarks that, "both by reason of his age and his extreme deafness he was not a man of counsel or words; hardly

conceived what was proposed, and as confusedly and obscurely delivered his opinion."

Clarendon, "Great Rebellion," vol. viii.

Ruthven, William, 1st Earl of Gowrie (1541?–1584), was the leader in the plot to capture James VI known as the Raid of Ruthven (1582), for which act of violence he obtained an indemnity. On the defeat of his party, 1583, he was induced by false promises of pardon to write a letter to the king confessing his guilt. On this evidence he was executed at Stirling, May 1584.

Ruthven, The Raid of (August 1582), was the name given to a plot formed against Lennox and Arran, the favourites of James VI, and carried out by seizing the young king and conveying him to Castle Ruthven, and committing him to the charge of the conspirators, chief of whom were the Earls of Mar and Gowrie and the Lords Lindsay and Boyd. In 1582 an Act of Indemnity was passed in which the thanks of the nation were voted to the Earls of Gowrie, Mar, and Glencairn for their rescue of the king from his obnoxious ministers. In 1583, however, James defeated the Ruthven party; Mar and Glamis fled from Stirling, and Gowrie was executed.

P. Hume Brown, "History of Scotland," 1911.

Rutland, Dukes and Earls of. [Manners.]

Ryder, Dudley, 1st Earl of Harrowby (1762–1847), entered public life in 1784 as M.P. for Tiverton. He was a strong supporter of Pitt, under whom he held many offices in succession, till he succeeded to the peerage in 1803. The following year he was appointed foreign secretary, and in 1805 was dispatched to Berlin, Vienna, and Petersburg with a view to forming an offensive alliance against Bonaparte. The battle of Austerlitz, however, put an end to all hopes of uniting Europe against Napoleon, and Harrowby returned home. Three years later he became president of the board of control, and was created an earl (1809). In 1812 he became president of the council, an office which he continued to hold for sixteen years. In the days of the first Reform Bill he was requested to form a cabinet, but declined to undertake so responsible a duty, and it consequently devolved on the Duke of Wellington. On the question of reform he became leader of that section of the peers known by the title of "the Waverers," who, though disapproving of the new measures, felt that obstinate resistance to so popular a movement would entail disaster. From this time he took little part in politics.

Rye House Plot, The (1683), is the name given to a conspiracy formed by some of the extreme Whigs late in Charles II's reign, after the failure of the Exclusion Bill. Its object was the murder of the king and the Duke of York on their return from Newmarket in April. The king was to have been murdered at a place called the Rye House, near Hoddesden, in Hertfordshire; but the plot never came to anything. It was postponed, and ultimately revealed to the court in June by traitors among those concerned in it. It is improbable that the prominent Whig leaders were privy to this scheme, which was formed chiefly by Richard Rumbold and some of the more violent and obscure members of the party, notably Colonel Ramsey, Robert Ferguson, Walcot, West, Goodenough, and Shepherd. But William, Lord Russell, Algernon Sidney, and the Earl of Essex were arrested for complicity in it. Essex died in the Tower, probably by his own hand; Russell was condemned on the evidence of one witness and executed, together with Sidney (July 21, 1683), at whose trial unpublished writings of his own were admitted as evidence against him.

"Memoirs of William, Lord Russell."

Rymer, Thomas (1641–1713), was born at Yafforth, and educated at Sidney Sussex College, Cambridge. In 1692 he received the appointment of historiographer royal, but he died in poverty. Rymer's chief interest to the student of English history is his connexion with the work called "Fœdera." Early in the seventeenth century began the publication upon the continent of general collections of treaties. Such works became very popular, and the "Codex Juris Gentium Diplomaticus" of Leibnitz (1693) seems to have suggested to Halifax and Somers the advisability of publishing a similar collection for England at the national expense. The government accepted the proposal, and entrusted the work to Rymer. Fifteen volumes appeared during his lifetime, and five subsequently, covering the period 1101–1654. The work contains an immense number of treaties, charters, etc.

It is necessary carefully to distinguish the various editions:—(i) *Original*, 15 vols., ed. Rymer (1704–1713), the later volumes departing from the original plan, and including a large number of documents which touch only domestic affairs; 16th vol. (1715), prepared from Rymer's papers by his assistant, Sanderson, who edited the remaining volumes; 17th (1717), the last two being still more miscellaneous in the character of their contents. An 18th vol. appeared first in 1726, but was withdrawn on account of the remonstrances of the Commons against the breach of privilege committed by printing part of their "Journal"; it was recalled and reissued (1731). Two more volumes were published in 1732 and 1735. Churchill published the first 17 vols.; Tonson the last three. (ii) *Tonson's* (1727–1729), a reprint of the first 17 vols. (ed. Holmes), published by Tonson through subscription. (iii) *Hague* (1737–1745), an edition of the first 17 vols., with Holmes's corrections and of Sanderson's three last vols., published in 10 vols. at The Hague, with an important abridgment by Rapin. (iv) *Record Commission* (1816–1830), 3 vols. in 6 parts, and a portion of 4th vol. covering the period down to 1383, with additions. To these must be added: (v) *Syllabus of Fœdera*, in English, by Sir Thos. Hardy, 2 vols. (1869–1872), for Record Commission. In the prefaces to this most valuable work a full account and criticism is given of the various editions. [W. J. A.]

Ryswick, The Treaty of (September 21, 1697), terminated the war which had begun in 1689 between France and the coalition composed of the Empire, Spain, England, Brandenburg, and Holland. Louis XIV had opened negotiations in 1696, but the other powers had

broken them off. At length, in March 1697, the French plenipotentiaries assembled at The Hague, and those of the coalition at Delft, and conferences were opened at Ryswick in May. But, impatient of delay, Louis and William appointed Marshal Boufflers and the Duke of Portland to hold private meetings together. Terms of peace were concluded (July 6). Spain and the emperor refused to agree to them; but Spain soon gave way, and on September 21 three treaties was concluded between France, Holland, Spain, and England. The terms were that France should acknowledge William as King of England, and Anne as his successor, and that all assistance should be withdrawn from James II. France also surrendered all conquests made since the Treaty of Nimeguen, and placed the chief fortresses of the Low Countries in the hands of Dutch garrisons. In November a treaty was concluded between Louis and the emperor. France restored all towns captured since the Treaty of Nimeguen, with the exception of Strassbourg, together with Freiburg, Breisach, Philipsburg, and the French fortifications on the right bank of the Rhine. Lorraine was restored to its duke, who, however, granted a passage through his dominions for French troops. The Elector of Cologne was recognized, and the rights of the Duchess of Orleans upon the Palatinate compromised for money.

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Sa, Dom Pantaleon, brother of the Portuguese ambassador in London, killed a man named Greenaway following a fray in the New Exchange (November 22, 1653). He took refuge at the embassy, where it was maintained that he was responsible only to his own sovereign. Arrested and tried, and induced to plead by the threat of the *peine forte et dure,* he was condemned. Cromwell, while pardoning his accomplices, was inexorable against the principal. On July 10 Sa was executed, amidst great popular rejoicings. Cromwell's firm government was no respecter of persons, and not even the divinity which hedged ambassadors suffered them to violate the municipal law of the state in which they were sojourning.

Saadut Ali (*d.* 1814), the brother of Asaf-ud-Dowlah, was by a treaty made by Sir John Shore in 1788 assigned the vacant throne of Oudh, upon terms which gave the British the right of garrisoning the important places, and completely subjected Oudh to the British power. Saadut Ali rapidly became so unpopular that he lost all control over his own troops, who, while useless for the defence of Oudh, remained a source of great expense. After the insurrection of Vizir Ali, which had to be put down by British troops, Lord Wellesley insisted peremptorily on their dismissal. In 1800 the nawab announced that he intended to abdicate in favour of one of his sons. Lord Wellesley informed him that he would consent to the abdication provided it was made in favour of the company. The nawab thereupon withdrawing his abdication, Lord Wellesley ordered him to choose between the cession of the whole or part of his dominions. After trying every possible means of escape, the Treaty of Lucknow was concluded (November 10, 1801). Its provisions were that the vizir should cede a large territory, and in return should be released from all future demands on account of Oudh or its dependencies; that the company should always protect and defend the vizir, and that he should only support a few of his own troops for revenue purposes; that the British should guarantee to him his remaining territories; that in the exercise of his authority he should in all cases be guided by the advice of the officers of the company. On January 10, 1802, Lord Wellesley and the vizir met at Cawnpore, where the former insisted on such a reform in the administration of Oudh as should remove the evils and abuses which had so long corrupted all the state machinery. Various remonstrances were at intervals addressed to him on his government, especially during Lord Minto's administration, but he had no mind for reforms which would embarrass his arrangements and curtail his revenue.

Sabert, King of the East Saxons, and nephew of Ethelbert, King of Kent, received Christianity from Augustine, and, with his uncle, instituted the bishopric of London with Mellitus for its first bishop. On his death his sons relapsed into heathenism.

Sac and Soc was an Anglo-Saxon phrase, also extensively used in the Norman period, meaning one of the rights of jurisdiction possessed by private individuals. When extensive grants of land and jurisdiction were made, certain words and phrases were used to denote the types of case which a private court might try. The usual words were sac and soc, toll and team, infangthef and utfangthef, and frithsoken. "Sac seems to mean a cause or matter before a court—that which in later Latin is termed placitum. Soc has a similar meaning. It is apparently derived from a word which means seeking. It means either that a man may seek, investigate or inquire into certain causes; or that certain litigants must seek or make suit to a certain court" (Holdsworth). Where previously the royal officers had sat in judgment, the lord or the lord's reeves now sat. The grants of sac and soc did not as a rule give immunity from the county courts, though they did from the hundred courts. According to Stubbs, "the form is an alliterative jingle which will not bear close analysis."

"Select Pleas in Manorial Courts" (Selden Society); Pollock and Maitland, "History of English Law"; Holdsworth, "History of English Law"; Ballard, "The Domesday Inquest."

Sacheverell, Henry (1674 ?–1724), the son of a Low Church clergyman, entered the

Church, and early attached himself to the school of Laud. He became a fellow of Magdalen College, Oxford. In 1705 he was elected chaplain of St. Saviour's, Southwark. In August 1709 he preached a violent assize sermon at Derby, and on November 5, 1709, one at St. Paul's Cathedral before the civic dignitaries on "The Perils of False Brethren both in Church and State," a tirade against the Revolution principles, Dissenters, and the Whig ministry, especially Godolphin, whom he attacked under the name of Volpone, or Old Fox. It is said that 40,000 copies of this sermon were sold. The ministry were naturally angry, and Sunderland proposed that Sacheverell should be impeached. The idea was taken up by Godolphin, but opposed by Somers and Marlborough. Sacheverell's answer to the articles was uncompromising. When it was decided to bring him to trial, the Commons resolved to attend Westminster Hall in a body. Popular sympathy was strongly on his side. "Sacheverell and the Church" was the cry. He read an eloquent defence, supposed to have been written for him by Atterbury. The Lords declared him guilty by sixty-nine to fifty-two (March 20, 1710). He was suspended from preaching for three years, and his sermon was burnt by the common hangman; but a motion that he should be incapable of preferment was thrown out. The sentence was considered an acquittal; a living was bestowed on him in Shropshire, and his journey thither was like a royal progress. The queen saw how unpopular the ministry had become, and hence was encouraged to carry out her plans for its overthrow. [Anne, Queen.] After the period of Sacheverell's suspension was over, the queen presented him with the living of St. Andrew's, Holborn. His first sermon, delivered on Palm Sunday, on the text, "Father, forgive them, for they know not what they do," he sold for £100. The Commons, to mark their disapproval of the conduct of the previous ministry, appointed him to preach before them on Ascension Day. Burnet's views of his character are hardly overdrawn: "He was a bold, insolent man, with a very small measure of religion, virtue, learning, or good sense; but he resolved to force himself into popularity and preferment by the most petulant railings at Dissenters and Low Churchmen in several sermons and libels, written without chasteness of style or liveliness of expression."

Falconer Madan, "Bibliography of Sacheverell," 1887.

Sacket's Harbour, The Battle of (May 27, 1813), was fought on Lake Ontario, between the British and Canadians under Sir George Prevost, and the Americans under the command of General Brown. The victory went to the Americans.

R. Johnson, "American War of 1812–15," 1883.

Sackville, Charles, 6th Earl of Dorset (1638–1706), sat as M.P. for East Grinstead as Lord Buckhurst in 1660, but declined all public employment. In 1675 he became gentleman of the bedchamber, and next year succeeded to his father's title. In the reign of James II he was dismissed from the lord-lieutenancy of Sussex. He entered into communication with the Prince of Orange, and on the landing of William assisted the Princess Anne in her flight from Westminster. He became lord chamberlain, and employed his patronage in helping genius and misfortune. On the departure of William for Ireland he was appointed in Mary's Council of Nine. In 1691 he accompanied William to Holland. He was declared by Preston, on the detection of his plot, to be in communication with the Jacobite court of St. Germains. The accusation was probably untrue, although Dorset was no doubt angry at William's leanings towards the Tories. Dorset is better known as the patron of Prior, Dryden, Congreve, and Addison, than as a politician. Macaulay thinks that "had he been driven by necessity to exert himself, he would probably have risen to the highest posts in the State."

Sackville, George Sackville Germain, 1st Viscount (1716–85). [Germain.]

Sackville, Sir Richard (*d.* 1566), the father of the famous Thomas, Lord Buckhurst, and a cousin of Anne Boleyn, was a man of great financial abilities, which he so made use of to his own advantage as to gain the nickname of "Fill Sack." Under Queen Mary he was a Catholic, and chancellor of the Court of Augmentations; under Elizabeth a Protestant, and chancellor of the exchequer.

Sackville, Thomas, 1st Earl of Dorset (1536–1608), was the son of Sir Richard Sackville. He was educated at Oxford and Cambridge, studied at the Inner Temple, and served in various diplomatic employments on the continent. In 1567 he was created Lord Buckhurst. In 1587 he was ambassador to the United Provinces, and succeeded Burghley as lord treasurer. In 1604 he was created Earl of Dorset. He was the joint author with Thomas Norton of the tragedy of "Gorboduc" (1561), the earliest blank-verse drama in our language.

Sadleir's Case (1857). James Sadleir, member for Tipperary, had been deeply concerned with his brother, John Sadleir, member for Sligo, in a series of fraudulent banking transactions connected with the Tipperary Bank. When they were discovered John Sadleir committed suicide and James Sadleir fled. The latter was thereupon formally expelled from the House of Commons (February 19), on the motion of the attorney-general for Ireland.

Sadler, Sir Ralph (1507–87), a protégé of Thomas Cromwell, was much thought of by Henry VIII for the skill and ability which he displayed as a diplomatist. In 1537 he was sent on an embassy to James V of Scotland, to endeavour to detach him from his alliance with France, and to aid the cause of the Reformed

religion in Scotland. He fulfilled his mission with such discretion that Henry appointed him one of the twelve councillors who were to assist his executors in the government during the minority of Edward VI. In 1547 he was present at the battle of Pinkie, and greatly distinguished himself; while in 1549 he aided in suppressing Ket's rebellion. "The able and truthful Sir Ralph Sadler" became one of Elizabeth's most trusted diplomatic agents, and a strong Puritan, and was often employed in Scottish negotiations. In 1559 he was sent to the Scottish border with instructions "to treat in all secrecy with any manner of persons in Scotland for the union of the realms," and to assist the Protestant party with secret sums of money. He was one of the English commissioners at the Treaty of Leith (1560), and in 1568 served on the commission of York on the occasion of the inquiry into the murder of Darnley. In 1580–1 he acted as jailer to Mary, Queen of Scots, at Wingfield; but found the charge of her whom "he had held in his arms as a baby" so irksome that he petitioned to be removed. After the execution of Mary, in whose trial he took part, he was again sent on a diplomatic errand to Scotland to announce to James VI his mother's death, and to explain that Elizabeth was in no way to blame. This delicate mission, which he successfully accomplished, was his last, as he died a month or two later.

"Papers of Sir Ralph Sadler," with "Memoir" by Sir Walter Scott, 1809; biography by F. S. Stoney, 1877.

Sadulapur, The Battle of (December 3, 1848), was fought during the Sikh War. After the failure at Ramnagar (q.v.), Lord Gough ordered Sir Joseph Thackwell to cross the Chenab at Wuzirabad and turn the Sikh position. Shere Singh thereupon withdrew from Ramnagar, and the two armies met at the village of Sadulapur. For two hours the British sustained the fire of the enemy without returning till they were fully in range, when their artillery opened with deadly effect. The Sikhs retired slowly, and Sir Joseph did not deem it wise to follow. The advantage of the action doubtless rested with Shere Singh (q.v.), who had marched away at his own will to a better position, but Lord Gough thought fit to claim the victory. [Sikh Wars.]

Sadusam, The Battle of (July 1, 1848), was fought during the second Sikh War. After Kineyri, Lieutenant Edwardes was reinforced by 4,000 men from Kashmir. Mulraj, alarmed at the growing power of his opponents, drew together his whole force, which had been augmented by 11,000 deserters, and attacked them near Sadusam. The battle began with a furious cannonade, which lasted several hours, but at last a charge by one of Colonel Cortland's regiments broke the ranks of the Sikhs. Mulraj fled, and was followed by his whole army to Multan.

St. Albans, in the immediate neighbourhood of the famous Roman municipium of Verulamium, is famous as the site of one of the greatest Benedictine abbeys. It gains its modern name from Alban, said to have been martyred there under Diocletian. The abbey was founded in his honour by Offa of Mercia in 793. The town is said to date from the days of Abbot Wulsin, to whom is attributed the erection of the three parish churches. The St. Albans villeins joined in the Peasants' Revolt of 1381 (q.v.), their rebellion constituting one of the most famous incidents in the abbey's history. In 1455 and 1461 two battles of more political than military importance were fought at St. Albans between the Yorkists and Lancastrians. The abbey church, made parochial at the Dissolution, is the cathedral church of the new diocese of St. Albans.

W. Page, "St. Albans," 1920.

St. Albans, Battles of. I. The first engagement of the Wars of the Roses was fought at St. Albans in May 1455. It was brought about by the recovery of Henry VI from his fit of insanity (Christmas 1454), and the consequent termination of the protectorate of Richard, Duke of York. The Somerset party were again in power, and York, seeing his influence at an end, determined to secure by force of arms the downfall of Somerset. Accordingly he collected troops in the north and marched towards London. The king advanced in force to meet him, and after a vain attempt at negotiation a battle followed which, though only lasting half an hour, had most important results. Somerset was slain, together with other Lancastrian nobles, the king wounded, and York completely victorious.

II. The second battle of St. Albans was fought on February 17, 1461, by Queen Margaret and the Lancastrians against the Earl of Warwick. After the victory at Wakefield Margaret marched towards London, and was met at St. Albans by Warwick. The Lancastrians gained the day, the king was released, and Warwick compelled to retire. But the results of the battle were altogether thrown away. London was not occupied, nor was the Earl of Warwick prevented from effecting a junction with Edward. The Lancastrians, through the influence of Henry, who shrank from exposing the capital to pillage at the hands of his unruly northerners, retired to the north, and within a fortnight the Yorkists were in possession of London, and Edward recognized as king.

R. B. Mowat, "Wars of the Roses," 1914.

St. Albans, The Council of (August 4, 1213), was one of the general councils of John's reign. It was regarded by Stubbs as extremely important in constitutional history and as a step in the progress of the representative system, since, according to Roger of Wendover, there were summoned to it not merely the great barons, but representatives (the reeve and four others) of the people of the towns in the royal demesne. Stubbs's interpretation has, however, been much criticized of recent years. The

passage in Wendover is obscure; and, as a recent investigator of the subject has written: "To see in it the origin of the representation of the towns in parliament . . . is an error too evident to need refutation." The council was called by the justiciar, Geoffrey Fitz-Peter, who promised to abide by the laws of Henry I henceforth. The summons to a council at Oxford in the same year, in which each of the sheriffs is ordered to send four discreet knights from his shire, is of much greater historical significance; although no record of the proceedings of the assembly has been preserved, and it is possible that it never actually met. [COMMONS, THE HOUSE OF.]

St. Albans, FRANCIS BACON, VISCOUNT (1561–1626). [BACON.]

St. Aldwyn, SIR MICHAEL EDWARD HICKS-BEACH, VISCOUNT (1837–1916). [HICKS-BEACH.]

St. Brice's Day, THE MASSACRE OF (November 12, 1002), is said to have been occasioned by the report that the Danes in England (i.e., presumably the mercenaries in the service of Ethelred, and not the Danes of the Danelagh) had formed a plot for murdering the king and the witan. Accordingly orders were sent forth by the king that all should be slain; and although the story of the massacre has probably been greatly exaggerated, there is no reason to doubt that a considerable slaughter took place. Sweyn's sister Gunheld is said to have been one of the victims.

St. Carilef, or SAINT CALAIS, WILLIAM OF, was first prior of St. Calais in Maine, and then abbot of St. Victor's in Le Mans, and ultimately became Bishop of Durham in 1080. Famous in the history of his see for substituting monks for secular canons in his cathedral church, he has a place in history as the foremost adviser of William Rufus in the beginning of his reign. The chronicler of Peterborough says (s.a. 1088), "So well did the king to the bishop that all England followed his counsel and did so as he would." But in a few months he joined the feudal movement against William, apparently in circumstances of great treachery. He was involved in the general failure, his temporalities were seized, his lands were ravaged, and he himself brought to trial before the king's court. His trial is of great constitutional importance, both as illustrating the procedure of the Norman courts at an early stage of development, and because in the course of it William made the first recorded appeal to Rome against the judgment of the great council. After every legal subtlety had been exhausted, William was banished to Normandy. In 1091 he was restored to his see, and again exercised great influence over Rufus, figuring as the king's adviser against Anselm. But in 1095 he reverted to his old policy by joining the feudal rising of Mowbray, and only his death on January 1, 1096, saved him from a second trial. He was buried in the chapter-house, that the monks who loved their founder might ever have his tomb before their eyes. Apart from his liberality to his church, he appears in history as a thoroughly unscrupulous man.

There is a full account of William of St. Calais in Freeman's "William Rufus," vol. i, and vol. ii, note C.

St. Charles, in Lower Canada, was the scene of the defeat of the Canadian rebels on November 25, 1837, by Colonel George Augustus Wetherall.

St. Christopher's is the original name for the West Indian Island now called St. Kitt's (q.v.).

St. Denis, in Lower Canada, was the scene of a partial victory of the Canadian rebels in 1837 over the government troops under Colonel Gore.

St. Eustache, in Lower Canada, was the scene (1837) of the total defeat of the rebel Canadians under Girod by Sir John Colborne. This was the last skirmish in the Canadian insurrection.

St. Giles's Fields, THE MEETING IN (January 9, 1414), was planned by the Lollards. A large body (report said a hundred thousand in number) was to assemble in St. Giles's Fields outside London, where they would be met by thousands of city apprentices, and headed by Sir John Oldcastle (q.v.). Their design, it was said, was to seize the king and his brothers, make Oldcastle regent, and set up a new government. The vigilance of Henry V defeated their designs; the gates of the city were closed, and St. Giles's Fields occupied by troops, who easily put the insurgents to flight.

St. Helena, an island in the South Atlantic, was discovered by Juan de Nova Castella, a Portuguese navigator, on St. Helena's day, May 21, 1502; in 1513 a small settlement was formed by some Portuguese, but had only a short existence. In 1588 the island was visited by Captain Thomas Cavendish, and in 1645 was occupied by the Dutch, who, however, relinquished it in 1651 for the Cape of Good Hope. In 1661 the East India Company obtained a charter for the occupation of the island from Charles II, and a large settlement was speedily formed. In 1673 the island was surprised and captured by the Dutch, but was retaken in the same year. It was held by the East India Company until 1834, when it was surrendered to the British government. Slavery in the island was abolished between 1826 and 1836. St. Helena is celebrated as having been the place of imprisonment of Napoleon Bonaparte, who died there (1821). General Cronje, Colonel Schiel, and a large number of Boers were shipped to St. Helena in 1900 as prisoners of war. The garrison was withdrawn from the island in 1906. St. Helena was a station of great importance so long as the ordinary route for India passed round the Cape of Good Hope.

After the opening of the Suez Canal it became a place of historic interest only.

J. C. Mellias, "St. Helena," 1875; G. L. Jackson, "St. Helena," 1903.

St. John, Henry, Viscount Bolingbroke (1678–1751), the son of Sir Henry St. John, was educated at Eton and Christ Church. In the year 1700 he married, and in the following year entered parliament for Wootton Bassett, and attached himself to Harley and the Tories. When Harley was appointed secretary of state in 1706 St. John was made secretary for war. He retired with Harley in 1708, and returned with the Tories after the Sacheverell episode, in 1710, as one of the secretaries of state. The position of his party was a doubtful and dangerous one. Peace was loudly called for by a section of the people, and was in itself a desirable enough object. But there is little to be urged in excuse of the steps by which it was brought about. Under St. John's conduct England deserted her allies, and, in violation of all her agreements, proceeded to enter into private negotiations with France. [Utrecht, Treaty of.] At home the Tory leaders were engaged in a course of intrigues, with the object of counteracting the predominance which the Whigs were sure to gain under the house of Hanover. The army and the civil service were being gradually filled with men who were really Jacobites, and the design seems to have been entertained of changing the succession. The struggle for power between Harley, now Earl of Oxford, and Bolingbroke (called to the Upper House as Viscount Bolingbroke in 1712) interfered with this project, and very greatly weakened the party. Through the influence of Lady Masham with the queen, Oxford was dismissed on July 2, 1714. But Bolingbroke's tenure of undivided power was very short. On July 30 the queen was seized with the attack of apoplexy which was to prove fatal to her. At the council which was summoned on the emergency the Whig dukes of Argyll, Somerset, and Shrewsbury succeeded in carrying the resolution by which the last-named became lord treasurer. On the death of the queen (August 1) Bolingbroke deliberated, and was lost. The Whig dukes seized the reins of government, proclaimed the Elector king, and sent special messengers summoning him to England. The new parliament was violently Whig. Bolingbroke, knowing that he would be impeached, fled to France (March 25, 1715). On June 10 he was impeached, and on September 16 his name was struck off the list of peers and sentence of banishment was passed upon him. He now entered the service of the Pretender, and was nominated by that prince his secretary of state; but in 1716 he was dismissed from the prince's employment, and a breach took place between him and the extreme Jacobites. For some years he remained in France, devoting himself chiefly to study and to the society of the Marquise de Villette, a niece of Madame de Maintenon, whom he ultimately married. In 1723 he was permitted to return to England, and an act of parliament was passed allowing him to enjoy his property; but he was still excluded from the House of Lords. He joined the opposition against Walpole, and for many years carried on relentless hostilities against that minister by means of intrigue and political journalism. He contributed largely to the *Craftsman*, a periodical which had a large circulation, and a reputation very damaging to Walpole's cause. In 1735, however, he found it prudent once more to withdraw to France, where he remained till 1742. On the fall of Walpole he found that his allies in opposition were not disposed to admit him to any share of power. He withdrew altogether from politics, and spent the remaining nine years of his life in philosophical retirement at Battersea. Bolingbroke's writings produced more effect on the thought of the eighteenth century than their intrinsic merits seem to warrant. His political and historical works, of which the chief are "Letters on the Study of History," "Remarks on the History of England," "A Dissertation upon Parties," "The Idea of a Patriot King," and "A Letter to Sir William Windham," are evidently composed in great part to justify his own action in public life; but they contain a good deal of suggestive disquisition, and some fine passages of declamatory eloquence.

Bolingbroke's "Works" were published by Mallet in 1754 in 5 vols. His "Correspondence" appeared in 1798, edited by Gilbert Parke. Biographies by MacKnight, 1863; W. S. Sichel, 1901, and A. Hassall, 1889 and 1915; J. M. Robertson, "Bolingbroke and Walpole," 1919. [S. L.]

St. John, Oliver (1598?–1673), a prominent lawyer and politician of the time of Charles I, was called to the bar in 1626, and soon identified himself with the popular party. He distinguished himself by his defence of Hampden in the question of ship-money. He was an active member of the Short and Long Parliaments, and in January 1641 the king, with a view to conciliating the popular party, made St. John solicitor-general. Notwithstanding this, he was one of the managers of Strafford's impeachment, and on every occasion opposed the wishes of the king, till at last, in 1643, he was removed from his office. He was made by parliament one of the commissioners of the great seal in 1643, and held this office till 1646. In 1648 he was appointed chief justice of the Common Pleas, and was soon afterwards made a member of the council of state. He was closely connected with Cromwell by marriage, and supported him in his expulsion of parliament, but was opposed to the protectorate, though he favoured the idea of kingship, and was later one of the members of Cromwell's House of Lords. After Cromwell's death he supported the parliament against the army, and on the Restoration he very narrowly escaped being excepted from the Act of Indemnity. The rest of his life was passed in retirement. His

character is painted in unfavourable colours by all historians. Carlyle speaks of him as "a dusky, tough man, whose abstruse fanaticisms, crabbed logics, and dark ambition issue all in dreaded avarice at last"; and Clarendon describes him as being "a man reserved, of a dark and clouded countenance, very proud and conversing with very few, and those men of his own humour and inclinations."

Carlyle, "Cromwell's Letters and Speeches."

St. Kitt's (or ST. CHRISTOPHER, called after Columbus, who discovered it in 1493) was colonized simultaneously by French and English under Warner and D'Esnambue in 1625. Expelled by the Spaniards in 1629, the colonists returned and flourished. A partition treaty of 1628 formed the basis of repeated agreements of mutual neutrality even in time of war between the two nations despite the French conquests in 1666 and 1689. The whole island was ceded to Great Britain in 1713, only to be ravaged in 1782 and 1805, but remaining ultimately British. It is now governed as a Crown colony by a governor assisted by a legislature of 14 nominated members, half of whom are unofficial, and a nominated executive council.

St. Leger, SIR ANTHONY (1496 ?–1559), was sent over to Ireland in 1537 as commissioner of forfeited lands, and in August 1540 became lord deputy. His government was vigorous and successful. He subdued the Kavanaghs, and their chief had to give up the title of "The MacMurrough." At a parliament held by him about this time even Desmond attended, and this was considered a great achievement. He was able to send Irish troops to Scotland and France to take part in the king's wars. In 1546 he subdued the long refractory clans of the O'Moores and O'Connors. In 1551 Sir James Croft succeeded him as lord deputy, but he again held the office from 1553 to 1556. Both his sons became in turn lord president of Munster.

St. Leger, SIR WARHAM (1525 ?–1597), son of Sir Anthony St. Leger, succeeded in relieving Haddington, 1548, when besieged by the French and Scots. In 1566 he defeated Shane O'Neill, and in 1579 did good service in the Desmond rebellion in spite of Ormonde's opinion of him, that he was "an old alehouse knight, malicious, impudent, void of honesty; an arrogant ass that had never courage, honesty, or truth in him."

St. Leonards, EDWARD BURTENSHAW SUGDEN, BARON (1781–1875). [SUGDEN.]

St. Lucia, the largest of the British Windward Island group, was discovered by Columbus in 1502, and was visited in 1605 by Englishmen who were expelled by the Caribs. The island was included in a British royal grant (1627) to Carlisle and a French one in 1635, but English settlers from St. Kitt's and Bermudas in 1638 were driven out by the Caribs by 1641. In 1650 Du Parquet bought it from the French West India Company, formed a settlement with Martinique settlers, made a treaty with the Caribs, only to be overcome by Warner in 1664. Shortly evacuated, it was restored by the Treaty of Breda (1667) to France, who made it a dependency of Martinique. A British treaty with the natives in the following year ignored facts, and in 1718 it was granted to d'Estrée by the French king. In 1723 Martiniquers expelled the British who settled there under George I's grant to Montague, but both nations agreed to an evacuation in 1730, followed by a joint guarantee of neutrality by the Peace of Aix-la-Chapelle in 1748. Seized, however, in 1756 by the French, it was surrendered in 1762 to Rodney, ceded to the French by the Peace of Paris (1763) and populated from St. Vincent and Grenada. It enjoyed separate government until it was attached to Martinique in 1768. Again captured by the British in 1778, it was restored in 1783 (Peace of Versailles), to change hands successively in 1794 to Lord St. Vincent, having adopted revolutionary principles; in 1795 being recovered by Victor Hughes; reduced in 1797 by Abercromby and Moore; restored to France at the Peace of Amiens (1802); capitulating in the following year; finally being ceded in 1814 to the British, who abolished slavery twenty years later. It was attached to the Windward Islands (q.v.) government in 1818 and is governed now as a Crown colony by an administrator with a nominated non-executive council, a nominated legislative council of 5 official and 5 unofficial members, under a system of modified and codified French law.

H. H. Breen, "St. Lucia, Historical, Statistical and Descriptive," 1844; E. G. Garraway, "St. Lucia Handbook." [H. R.]

St. Mary Clyst, THE BATTLE OF (August 4–5, 1549), was fought between the royal troops under Lord Russell and the Devonshire insurgents under Humphrey Arundell. After a severe engagement the rebels were defeated, and on August 6 the siege of Exeter was raised.

F. Rose-Troup, "The Western Rebellion of 1549," 1913.

St. Ruth (*d.* 1691), a distinguished French general, arrived at Limerick in 1691, to take command of the Irish army. Unfortunately he quarrelled with both Sarsfield and Tyrconnel. Irritated at the capture of Athlone, he determined to give battle to the English in opposition to the advice of his Irish officers. At Aghrim, at the critical moment of the battle, his head was carried off by a cannon-ball.

St. Vincent, one of the Windward Islands, was discovered by Columbus (1498). In 1627 it was granted by Charles I to Lord Carlisle, and in 1672 to Lord Willoughby, but no permanent settlement was made in the island until 1719, when some French colonists came from Martinique. The neutrality of St. Vincent was recognized in 1660 and later by the Peace of Aix-la-Chapelle (1748), but in 1762 the island was taken by the British and confirmed to them

by the Treaty of Paris in the following year. In 1773 the Caribs were granted reserves. In 1779 it again fell into the hands of the French, but was restored to Great Britain by the Treaty of Versailles (1783). In 1794 an insurrection broke out amongst the natives owing to the intrigues of the French planters, and on its suppression 5,000 negroes were sent out of the island. Emancipation in 1838 was followed by the introduction of Portuguese labourers in 1846 and coolies from the East Indies in 1861. The government of St. Vincent, which extends to some of the Grenadine Islands, is vested in an administrator, an executive council, and a legislative council of four official and three unofficial members, which was granted in 1877.

C. Shephard, "An Historical Account of the Island of St. Vincent," 1831.

St. Vincent, John Jervis, Earl of (1735–1823). [Jervis.]

St. Vincent, The Battle of Cape (February 14, 1797), ended in the complete defeat of the Spanish fleet. The Spanish admiral, having been falsely informed that Sir John Jervis had only 9 ships (he had actually 15), determined to attack him with his 27. Nelson, sailing to join the British fleet, had fallen in with the Spaniards, and on arriving at Sir John's station off Cape St. Vincent on February 13 informed him of the enemy's movements. The next morning the Spaniards hove in sight, and were attacked before they could form in line. By a rapid movement Sir John passed through their fleet, and thus at once cut off nine ships, which were unable to join their companions, and soon took to flight. The admiral then devoted his attention to the main body, and gave the signal to attack in succession. Nelson, in the rear, using his own judgment, disobeyed the order, and at once came into action with seven Spanish ships at once. He was joined by Trowbridge, and together for nearly an hour they supported this unequal contest. Then Collingwood came up, and took two of the ships off his hands. By these tactics Nelson prevented the main body from joining the nine separated ships, or from getting off without an engagement. The battle was confined chiefly to the part of the fleet which Nelson had engaged. These, however, formed the most important part, and they were nearly all captured. The greater number of the enemy's ships got safely away without being severely engaged. Sir John Jervis fully recognized the great service rendered by Nelson, and publicly thanked him. The victory was decisive, and for some time rendered the Spanish fleet almost powerless. The news of it was received in England on March 3 with rapturous applause, and Jervis was created Earl of St. Vincent.

A. T. Mahan, "Influence of Sea Power on the French Revolution," 1892.

"Saints," The Battle of the (April 12, 1782), fought off the Îles des Saintes in the West Indies, resulted in a victory for the British fleet (under Rodney) over the French fleet of de Grasse, which had been making from Fort Royal to San Domingo to join the Spanish fleet. The battle was preceded by a short skirmish on April 9. In numbers the British fleet was superior, and did considerable damage to the French vessels crowded with troops intended for an attack on Jamaica. Rodney brought the action to a decision by the manœuvre known as breaking the enemy's line. The engagement lasted nearly twelve hours, and resulted in the capture of de Grasse's flagship and four other vessels. It also saved Jamaica from the French invasion.

A. T. Mahan, "Influence of Sea Power on History," 1890.

Salabut Jung (*d.* 1782), son of the Nizam-ul-Mulk, was appointed to the sovereignty of the Deccan on the death of Mirzapha Jung, in 1751, without grown-up children. His elevation was the result of Bussy's influence, and his close adherence to the enterprising Frenchman made the French masters of the whole Deccan. A quarrel soon broke out between the nizam and Bussy, which, though healed for a time, became permanent in 1759. This threw Salabut Jung into the hands of the British, with whom he speedily concluded a treaty, and he was recognized as lawful nizam by the Treaty of Paris.

Saladin Tithe, The, was levied in 1188 on the authority of a council held at Geddington (q.v.), for the support of the crusaders against the powerful Saracen chief, Saladin. Its chief importance lies in the fact that it is regarded as the first instance of a tax on personal property, a tenth of all movables being exacted from clergy and laity alike, except those who had themselves taken the cross. It is also interesting as illustrating the employment of a jury to assess doubtful cases.

Stubbs, "Select Charters," ed. H. W. C. Davis, 1913.

Salamanca, The Battle of (July 22, 1812), was one of the most decisive of Wellington's victories in Spain. At noon Marmont, whose object was to cut off the British retreat, dispatched the whole of his left wing to seize the road from Salamanca to Ciudad Rodrigo, while many of his troops were still marching through a thick forest of cork trees. Wellington at once perceived the opportunity of cutting off the entire left wing thus separated from the rest of the army. The British hurried down from their vantage-ground on the hills, and at five o'clock Pakenham fell upon the head of Marmont's division, which was marching in disorder, under the idea that the British were in full retreat. In half an hour the French left was utterly overwhelmed, and fell back in hopeless confusion upon the centre and right, both of which were already retiring before the attacks of the fourth and fifth divisions. The chief French generals had fallen, and the command devolved on Clausel, who tried to form a connexion with the remnants of Mar-

mont's division. But before the French could rally, the British cavalry, supported by infantry, were upon them; and what the former left undone, the latter completed. Even now Clausel attempted to retrieve the disaster. Bringing up fresh troops, he made so fierce an attack on the fourth and fifth divisions, already exhausted by their previous struggles, that they were only saved from destruction by the arrival of Clinton with the sixth division, which had been hitherto unengaged. Their arrival finally decided the battle. The French were hopelessly routed, and it required great skill on Foy's part to save even the relics of his army. Meanwhile the road to Madrid was now open to Wellington. [Peninsular War.]

Sir C. Oman, "Peninsular War," 1902; J. W. Fortescue, "History of the British Army," vol. viii, 1917; A. H. Marindin, "Salamanca Campaign," 1906.

Salar Jung, Sir (1829–83), was descended from the great Mir Allum. In 1853 he was appointed minister to the nizam. Under his able management the Hyderabad state continued to prosper. He never swerved in his allegiance to Great Britain, even during the Mutiny. In 1860 he was made a Knight of the Star of India.

"Memoirs," by Syed Hossain Bilgrami, 1883.

Salbai, The Treaty of (May 17, 1782), was concluded between the East India Company and Sindhia on behalf of the Mahrattas. Its stipulations were that all territory acquired by the British since the Treaty of Poorunder (q.v.) should be restored; that the Gaekwar should be replaced in his original position in Gujarat; that Ragoba should be allowed three lacs of rupees a year; that Hyder should be required to relinquish all his conquests in the Carnatic, and to release all his prisoners within six months; and that in the event of refusal, he should be attacked by the forces of the Peshwa.

Sale, Sir Robert Henry (1782–1845), after a long and distinguished military career, commanded a column in the second Burmese War (1824). He went with the Afghan expedition in 1839, and was present at the siege of Ghazni, where he was severely wounded in a hand-to-hand encounter. After the occupation of Kabul and the evacuation of Afghanistan, he retired into Jalalabad (q.v.) for winter quarters. Here he was besieged by Akbar Khan (January–April 1842), but raised the siege before the arrival of General Pollock's relieving force. He was killed at Mudki.

G. L. Gleig, "Sale's Brigade in Afghanistan," 1846.

Salisbury was the seat of a bishopric which was transferred to it from the adjacent town of Old Sarum early in the thirteenth century. The Sarum bishopric had been founded in 1075. In 1295 Old Sarum returned a member to parliament, though Salisbury, or New Sarum, was even then a more important place, and did so regularly from 1360 to 1832, till disfranchised by the Reform Act of the latter year. The cathedral of Salisbury was begun in 1220. In 1086, after the completion of the Domesday Survey, William I summoned to Salisbury a meeting of all the landowners of England, "of whomsoever they hold their lands," to take the oath of allegiance to himself. This was the famous "Sarum oath." In 1116 a similar gathering was convoked by Henry I to swear to the succession of the Atheling William. These councils were of great constitutional importance as illustrating the permanence of the national element in the English state during the most flourishing period of feudalism.

Salisbury, Earls and Marquis of. [Cecil; Montacute; Neville.]

Salisbury, John of (*d.* 1180), studied at Paris under Abelard, and other great philosophers of the day. On his return to England he was made secretary to Archbishop Theobald, and through his influence was employed by the king on diplomatic errands. He was the confidential adviser of Becket, and shared his disgrace and exile. In 1176 he was made Bishop of Chartres, which see he held for four years. His most important work is the "Polycraticus," in which he attacks the vices of the age, and particularly those of the court. Besides this, he wrote a life of his friend Becket, and numerous letters of his have been preserved which are of considerable historical value.

Salisbury, Thomas (1555 ?–1586), one of the six conspirators in Babington's conspiracy (q.v.) who were specially told off to assassinate Elizabeth, was executed at Tyburn (September 21, 1586).

Salomons' Case. In 1851 Alderman Salomons, a Jew, was returned for the borough of Greenwich, made his appearance in parliament and took the oaths, omitting the words "on the true faith of a Christian." He was directed to withdraw. Later, however, he entered the House and took his seat above the bar, and was only removed by the interposition of the serjeant-at-arms. The House of Commons agreed to a resolution in the same form as in the case of Mr. de Rothschild. [Rothschild's Case.] "In the meantime, however," says Sir Erskine May, "he had not only sat in the House, but had voted in three divisions; and if the House had done him an injustice, there was now an opportunity for obtaining a judicial construction on the statutes by the courts of law. By the judgment of the Court of Exchequer affirmed by the Court of Exchequer Chamber, it was soon placed beyond further doubt that no authority short of a statute was competent to dispense with those words which Mr. Salomons had omitted from the oath of abjuration." [Jews in England; Oaths, Parliamentary.]

Hansard, "Debates," 3rd ser., cxviii, 979, 1320.

Salonika Campaigns, The (1915–1918), were undertaken in order to bring relief to the Serbian army, which had suffered dis-

astrously in 1915, particularly in view of the approximation of Bulgaria to the central powers. Bulgaria mobilized on September 22, 1915, and on October 5 a Franco-British force disembarked at Salonika under Generals Mahon and Sarrail. After a short offensive which resulted in a retreat to Salonika to avoid isolation (Serbia having resolved to retire towards the Adriatic), the allied force was reinforced early in 1916, and by July numbered 300,000 men, opposed to 280,000 German and Bulgarian troops. Its action was hampered by political disputes with Greece, uncertainty as to the attitude of Rumania, and the fact that Sarrail's orders from Paris were issued without prior consultation among the allied powers. The first allied offensive began, however, on September 10, 1916, west of the Vardar, following a Bulgarian attack in August. The Serbian troops entered Monastir on November 19. On December 11, in view of the collapse of Rumania, a defensive line was established from Monastir to the sea through Dorrain. The second offensive opened on March 12, 1917, the allied forces now numbering 600,000, including Russian and Italian troops. It soon came to an end (May) through the delay in developing French and Serbian advances to support the British. The campaign degenerated into stagnation, and at the close of the year Sarrail was replaced by General Guillaumat until July 1918, when General Franchet d'Esperey took command. Under his direction the final allied offensive of September 1918 opened on a concentrated front of seven miles. Within three weeks the Bulgarian front west of the Vardar collapsed. By September 26 the British troops had penetrated into Bulgarian territory. On the 29th Bulgaria sued for and obtained an armistice. The re-occupation of Serbia followed rapidly.

G. W. Price, "Story of the Salonika Army," 1917; L. Villari, "The Macedonian Campaign," 1922.

[A. C. F. B.]

Salvation Army. [Booth, William.]

Sampford Courtenay, The Battle of (August 1549), was fought between Lord Russell and the Western insurgents, resulting in the final defeat of the latter. Sampford is a village on the slopes of Dartmoor. On Whit-Sunday the revolt had begun at the same place by the people compelling the priest to read Mass in Latin instead of the new service book.

F. Rose-Troup, "The Western Rebellion of 1549," 1913.

Sampson, Thomas (1517 ?–1589), one of the reformers of the reign of Edward VI, was compelled to live at Strasburg during the Marian persecution on account of his religious opinions. After the accession of Elizabeth he returned to England and became dean of Christ Church in 1561. In 1567 he was imprisoned for Nonconformity.

Sanchia, second wife of Richard Earl of Cornwall (q.v.), King of the Romans, to whom she was married in 1242, was the daughter of Count Raymond of Provence, and the sister of Eleanor, wife of Henry III.

Sancroft, William (1617–93), Archbishop of Canterbury, was born at Fressingfield, in Suffolk, and educated at Emmanuel College, Cambridge. Ejected from his fellowship in 1651 for royalism, he remained in exile till Charles II's accession. In 1662 he was made master of his college, in 1664 dean of York and dean of St. Paul's, and in 1677 archbishop. Soon after the accession of James II he came into collision with the king. On the promulgation of the Declaration of Indulgence (q.v.) Sancroft and six of his suffragans presented a petition to the king against the measure. In consequence the seven prelates were committed to the Tower (June 8, 1688), and tried in the court of King's Bench for misdemeanour (June 29); but the jury, in spite of pressure from the government, acquitted them next day. Sancroft was an honest but narrow-minded man, a strong Tory and High Churchman. Though he led the Seven Bishops against James II, he advocated the regency scheme in the Convention Parliament, and ended by refusing to take the oaths to William and Mary. He was deprived of his see in 1690 in favour of Tillotson, and died three years later at Fressingfield.

Sanctuary was the name given to a place privileged as a safe refuge for criminals and political offenders. All churches and churchyards were, down to Henry VIII's time, invested with this protective power. The possible stay in sanctuary of any fugitive was limited to a period of forty days, at the expiration of which time he was bound to take the oath of abjuration and to quit the realm by the nearest port assigned him by the coroner to whom he had communicated the circumstances of his case. During his journey to the sea-coast for the purpose of carrying out this self-banishment the claimant of sanctuary privileges was guaranteed immunity from molestation as he journeyed on, cross in hand, but he was obliged to follow without deviation the route assigned to him. In Henry III's reign Hubert de Burgh's non-compliance with the forty days' sanctuary regulation placed him in the hands of his enemies. In the case of certain specially privileged sanctuaries, such as that of St. John of Beverley, the criminal was, however, allowed, on taking the oath to the lord of the liberty, to remain for life. By Henry VII's time the custom of sanctuary was very much abused, having become the means of shielding criminals of all kinds from justice, and at his request Pope Innocent VIII made three important alterations in it. First, that if a man, while enjoying the privileges of sanctuary, should take advantage of his position to commit some further offence against the laws of his country, he should at once and for ever forfeit the benefit of sanctuary; secondly, that the benefit of sanctuary should be strictly

limited to a man's personal safety, and in no degree apply to the protection of his private property; thirdly, that when treason was the motive for seeking sanctuary, the king might have the offender specially looked to. Under Henry VIII several further important modifications were effected. In 1529, since banishment was proving ineffectual, it was enacted that persons who had abjured should go to such sanctuary as they should choose and remain there for life. In 1535–6 (27 Henry VIII, c. 19), sanctuary men were ordered to wear distinctive badges, and were forbidden to carry weapons, or to be out at nights, on pain of forfeiture of their privileges. Finally in 1540 (32 Henry VIII, c. 12) the places which should be regarded as sanctuaries were defined by the act, and further rigid restrictions were placed upon the exercise of their rights. Until the twenty-first year of James I the custom still persisted, and criminals continued to seek refuge in the places to which the privilege of sanctuary was attached. In 1623–4, however, a statute was passed abolishing sanctuary privileges altogether.

W. S. Holdsworth, "History of English Law," 1922, etc.; Cox, "Sanctuary and Sanctuary Seekers."

Sanders, Nicholas (1530?–1581), was educated at Winchester, and afterwards became fellow of New College, Oxford. An ardent Romanist, he left England in 1559, and was present at the Council of Trent. In 1572 the English refugees sent him to Rome to try to get help, but in 1575 he had to leave Rome without having accomplished anything. In 1577 he was in Spain, but was again unsuccessful. In the same year he wrote a book called "The Origin and Progress of the English Schism." He accompanied Stukeley, but, unable to persuade Philip II to send more men, he remained in Spain. On July 17, 1579, he, as legate, landed with Fitzmaurice at Smerwick. He attached himself to the Earl of Desmond, had many narrow escapes, and left Smerwick (q.v.) before the siege, and died, possibly of want and exposure, in Ireland. His Latin history of the "Anglican Schism" called forth Burnet's "History of the Reformation."

Sandilli was a Kafir chief who took an active part in the war of 1846. [Kaffir Wars.]

San Domingo is the name given by the Spaniards to the island of Hayti. It was discovered by Columbus about 1493, and soon became a valuable plantation. In 1586, war having broken out between England and Spain, Sir Francis Drake took the town of San Domingo. Meanwhile the western part of the island had been colonized by the French, and was ceded to them by the Treaty of Ryswick (q.v.). It was off San Domingo that Admiral Rodney, in 1782, defeated and captured the French admiral, de Grasse. After the English expeditions against the island ceased it was contended for by the French and Spaniards, the native population being ready to rebel whenever a chance presented itself. The struggle for freedom on their part, under Toussaint L'Ouverture, in 1801, aroused great admiration in this country. The island is now divided between two republics, Hayti and Santo Domingo, founded in 1844.

Bryan Edwards, "Historical Survey of San Domingo"; S. Hazard, "San Domingo, Past and Present," 1873.

Sandwich, Earls of. [Montagu.]

Sandys, Edwin (1516?–1588), Archbishop of York, was at the time of Edward VI's death vice-chancellor of Cambridge University and a zealous Protestant. He favoured Northumberland's scheme, and preached a powerful sermon in favour of Lady Jane Grey (q.v.), for which he was sent to the Tower and subsequently compelled to leave the country. On the accession of Elizabeth he returned to England and became Bishop of Worcester, and in 1570 Bishop of London, in which latter capacity he exhibited much rigour towards the Nonconformists. In 1576 he was made Archbishop of York in succession to Grindal.

Sandys, Samuel, 1st Baron (1695?–1770), was first returned for Worcester in 1718, but did not become prominent in parliament until 1740, when he introduced his abortive Place Bill (q.v.). In 1741 he was chosen to bring forward a motion for the removal of Sir Robert Walpole from the king's council. His speech, "probably concerted with the principal opposition leaders, was elaborate and able." But the motion was lost by 290 to 106. On the fall of Walpole he became chancellor of the exchequer under Wilmington, but soon afterwards resigned office, being raised to the peerage with a place in the royal household.

San Juan Award (1872). The question as to the boundary westwards between Canada and the United States having been submitted to the arbitration of the German Emperor William, the following award was given (December):—That according to the Treaty of Washington (1846) the boundary, after it had been continued westward along the forty-ninth parallel of north latitude to the middle of the channel which separates the continent from Vancouver Island, and had further been drawn southerly through the middle of the said channel and of Fuca Straits to the Pacific, should run through the canal of Haro as claimed by the United States, and not through the Rosario Straits as claimed by the British government. San Juan itself was a small island near Vancouver Island, in the centre of the channel defined by the Treaty of Washington. By this award it became American territory. It was evacuated by Great Britain in consequence.

R. B. Mowat, "Diplomatic Relations of Great Britain and the United States," 1925.

Sanquhar Declaration, The, was issued by Richard Cameron, Donald Cargill, and others of the extreme Covenanters at Sanquhar in Dumfriesshire (June 1680). It

declared that Charles II had forfeited the crown of Scotland "by his perjury and breach of covenant both to God and His kirk." Charles was at the same time excommunicated by Cargill. [CAMERONIANS.]

San Sebastian, THE SIEGE OF (August 1813), undertaken during the last campaign of the war in the Peninsula, was necessary to enable Wellington to cross the Pyrenees and conduct the war in France. The first siege was begun on July 14, 1813; but an assault on the town on the 25th was repulsed with terrible loss. Wellington, repairing to San Sebastian, ordered Graham to turn the siege into a blockade. During nine days of ceaseless movement ten engagements had been fought, the effect of which was that Soult was in retreat, while Wellington's position was so strong that he was secure from offensive action on the part of the French, and could resume the siege of San Sebastian under the direction of Graham. The natural and artificial difficulties of the siege were very great, but they were intensified by the negligence of the government at home, who would not supply a sufficiently large fleet or suitable ammunition. Still the works went on gradually, under the energetic commander; various positions were successively won, and on the 30th half the length of the eastern sea-front was laid open. On the morning of the 31st the assault was made, and after a terrible attack the town was carried, though the castle held out. For some days the town became the scene of atrocities "which would have shamed the most ferocious barbarians of antiquity." When the troops had in some measure recovered, batteries were raised against the castle, which surrendered on September 8, leaving Wellington free to transfer the war into the south of France.

Sir C. Oman, "Peninsular War," 1902–20.

Santal Revolt (1855). The Santals were a tribe inhabiting the hill ranges of Rajmahal. Being harassed by the processes and bailiffs of the courts and by the demands of Bengali money-lenders, they suddenly rose in rebellion (July 1855), and carried fire and destruction among the villages of the Europeans. No troops were available but the hill rangers, who were driven back. The railway now for the first time brought up troops; the rebels were hemmed in and hunted down; cholera likewise made great havoc among them. The rebellion was extinguished on the last day of the year. The district was now converted into a non-regulation province, and placed in charge of a commissioner.

F. B. Bradley-Burt, "Story of the Indian Upland," 1905.

Saragossa, THE BATTLE OF (August 19, 1710), was fought during the War of the Spanish Succession. After the defeat of Almanza, King Philip V hastily retreated on Saragossa. The allies followed with difficulty. On August 19 Stanhope found the Spaniards drawn up before Saragossa, with the Ebro on their left, a range of hills upon their right, and a deep ravine on their front. The Archduke Charles determined to risk a battle. Stanhope commanded the left of the allies, formed of British, Dutch, and Palatines, and eked out his cavalry by interspersing among them some battalions of foot. The allies' right wing consisted of Portuguese foot and a part of the Germans under Count Atalaya. The Spaniards had about 22,000, and the allies about 24,000 men. The left was the first to engage. Then the Portuguese at once made off, attracting large bodies of the enemy in pursuit. The remainder of the allies steadily stood their ground, and at length drove back the enemy. On the right the Dutch and Germans soon threw the enemy into confusion. In the centre the veteran Spaniards, after a steady resistance to Stahremberg, retreated in good order. Four thousand prisoners were taken, with a large number of cannon, and possession of Saragossa was secured to the victors. After considerable debate the allies, in accordance with Stanhope's desire, advanced on Madrid.

H. M. A. Parnell, "War of the Spanish Succession," 1905.

Saratoga, THE CONVENTION OF (October 17, 1777), during the American War of Independence, was the closing scene of General Burgoyne's disastrous campaign, which resulted in his retreat on Saratoga, where he found himself (October 10, 1777) with 3,500 men opposed to Gates with about 16,000 men. Burgoyne, receiving no tidings of Clinton, with scarcity in his army developing almost into famine, made proposals for negotiations (October 13). Gates offered terms which were at once rejected as degrading, and, not wishing to drive to despair a body of brave men, he finally agreed to the terms proposed by Burgoyne (October 17). The chief of these were that the troops should lay down their arms, and should be allowed a free passage to England, on condition that they would not again engage in the war, and that the treaty should be called a convention and not a capitulation. On the same day the British troops marched out. The importance of the surrender was felt throughout the world, as was shown by the fact that France at once acknowledged the "Independent United States of America," and concluded a treaty with them. Spain followed the lead of France, and Holland did not long remain neutral.

Sir E. Creasy, "Decisive Battles," 1851.

Sarawak. [BORNEO.]

Sardinian Convention, THE (1855), occurred during the Crimean War, and resulted in Sardinian support for the British and French armies in the Crimea. On January 26 the King of Sardinia acceded to the convention between the British and French governments of April 10, 1854, and agreed to furnish and maintain at full for the requirements of the

war 15,000 men under the command of a Sardinian general. By a separate article Great Britain and France agreed to guarantee the integrity of the king's dominions. Great Britain undertook the charges of transporting the troops to and from the Crimea, and under the treaty a recommendation was to be made to parliament to advance a million sterling to the King of Sardinia at 4 per cent. [Crimean War.]

Sarsfield, Patrick, titular Earl of Lucan (*d.* 1693), was an Irish Jacobite of great military genius. He held a commission in the English life-guards, and served under Monmouth on the continent. He fought brilliantly at the battle of Sedgemoor against his former general. Soon after the landing of the Prince of Orange he was defeated in a skirmish at Wincanton. He sat for the county of Dublin in the Irish parliament of 1688. In 1689 he was sent by James II as commander into Connaught. He secured Galway, and drove the English from Sligo. Shortly afterwards James created him Earl of Lucan. He was present at the battle of the Boyne, and insisted on making a stand at Limerick against the advice of Tyrconnel. He surprised the English artillery and compelled William to raise the siege (August 1690). His administration of that town was not altogether successful. On the arrival of the French general, St. Ruth, he soon quarrelled with him; and his advice to avoid a battle, given after the fall of Athlone, was pertinaciously disregarded. At the battle of Aghrim he commanded the reserve, and through some misunderstanding never received orders to charge. He covered the retreat. Once more his arrangements for making a stand at Limerick were hampered by his colleagues. The death of Tyrconnel, however, left him in supreme command, but he soon despaired of the defence. He therefore opened negotiations with Ginkel. A cessation of hostilities was arranged on September 24, 1691, and the majority of the garrison chose to follow Sarsfield into the French service. He was given a command in the intended French invasion of England in 1692. He fought with great gallantry in the French ranks at the battle of Steinkirk (August 3), and was mortally wounded at Landen (August 19).

Biographies by J. Todhunter, 1895; D. P. Conyngham, 1871; and S. L. Gwynn, 1903.

Sarum, Old, is generally identified with the Roman Sorbiodunum. According to tradition it was captured by Cerdic, the founder of the West Saxon kingdom, who made there his head-quarters in the sixth century. In the Anglo-Saxon period it was a centre of some importance, and there a witenagemot was held by Edgar to concert measures against the Danes. The barons were assembled there by William the Conqueror in 1086 to take the famous Oath of Salisbury. From the reign of the Conqueror till the thirteenth century it was the seat of a bishop, but the town then followed the church, which was rebuilt in the plain; ever since Old Sarum has remained almost deserted. Nevertheless, it sent two members to parliament from the end of the thirteenth century onwards, and it was for Old Sarum that William Pitt, Earl of Chatham, first sat (1735). In 1832 it was disenfranchised by the Reform Bill.

Saskatchewan. [Canada, Dominion of.]

Sauchie Burn, The Battle of (June 1488), resulted in the defeat and death of James III of Scotland at the hands of his insurgent barons, headed by Archibald "Bell the Cat," Home, Hepburn, and Bothwell, who had plotted to get hold of James's son to make use of him against his father's authority.

Saunders, Admiral Sir Charles (1713?–1775), served under Anson in his expedition to the South Seas (1739). In 1741 he became post-captain. In 1747 he aided Hawke in his victory over the French, and in 1750 was returned to parliament for Plymouth. He became treasurer of Greenwich Hospital (1754), and comptroller of the navy (1755). In 1757 he was appointed commander-in-chief of the Mediterranean squadron, and in the following year became rear-admiral. In 1759 he commanded the fleet which conveyed Wolfe to Quebec. He received the thanks of the House of Commons for his co-operation, Pitt calling him a man "equalling those who have taken armadas." In 1760 he went to the Mediterranean as commander-in-chief. He was made vice-admiral, and in 1765 he became lord of the admiralty. Saunders subsequently became first lord of the admiralty (1765), privy councillor (1766), and admiral (1770). He was buried in Westminster Abbey.

Biography by E. Salmon, 1914.

Savile, George, Marquis of Halifax (1633–95), was a member of an old Yorkshire family conspicuous for its loyalty during the Civil War. After the Restoration he was raised to the peerage for the assistance he had rendered in bringing about that event. He was created a marquis in 1682 and made lord privy seal. He opposed the Exclusion Bill (q.v.) in 1680, though he was suspected of intriguing in favour of the Duke of Monmouth. At the accession of James II he became president of the council; but he showed himself altogether averse to the Romanizing measures of the king, and most strenuously opposed the repeal of the Test Act (q.v.). For this he was dismissed from his offices, October 1685. He gave his adhesion to the Prince of Orange in December 1688, and became Speaker of the House of Lords in the Convention Parliament, 1689, and lord privy seal in February of this year. He subsequently joined the opposition, however, and resigned in October 1689. He offered a violent opposition to the censorship of the press in

1692. The marquis refused to join himself absolutely to either party, and, in a tract called the "Character of a Trimmer" (printed 1688), defended his position as one who "trims" from one side to the other as the national interest requires.

Biography by H. C. Foxcroft, 1898; Halifax, "Works," ed. W. Raleigh, 1912.

Savile, Sir George (1726–84), came of an old Yorkshire family, and represented Yorkshire through five successive elections. He did not often speak in parliament, but there was perhaps no one in the House more thoroughly respected as a man of liberal principles and unbending integrity; and he was one of the most reliable bulwarks of the Whig party. He was a strenuous and consistent opponent of the American War in all its stages, and of the prosecution of Wilkes. He was the first to relieve in some measure the disabilities of Roman Catholics, by carrying a bill for that purpose in 1778; and he was consequently one of the principal sufferers in the Gordon Riots (q.v.). Later, he brought in a bill against Popish conversions. But perhaps the most celebrated measure connected with his name is the Nullum Tempus Bill (passed 1768), which had its origin in an attempt on the part of the ministry and the Crown to put into force against the Duke of Portland the old maxim "Nullum tempus occurrit regi"—"that no length of continuance or good faith of possession is available against a claim of the Crown." Savile's bill abolished this maxim—"the opprobrium of prerogative and the disgrace of our law"—by providing that an uninterrupted enjoyment for sixty years of an estate derived from the Crown should bar the Crown from reclaiming its gift under pretence of any flaw in the grant or other defect of title.

Sir G. O. Trevelyan, "Early History of C. J. Fox," 1880.

Savoy, Boniface of, Archbishop of Canterbury (1241–70), was a prince of the reigning house of Savoy, and uncle of Henry III's queen, Eleanor of Provence. To this he owed his early advancement to the archbishopric, for which he had very few qualifications. His rule was intensely unpopular, as that of a foreigner and dependent of the court, and his attempt to carry out a visitation of the whole province of Canterbury provoked violent and successful opposition (1249–50). In the conflict between king and baronage he showed at first some leanings towards the national party, but eventually espoused the royal cause. He left little mark on the history of his see. The palace of the Savoy in the Strand took its name from his brother Peter.

Savoy Conference, The (1661–2), was held in Sheldon's lodgings in the Savoy for the purpose of discussing the relations of the Puritans towards the Church, and the proposed changes in the Liturgy. It consisted of twelve bishops, among whom were Cosin, Sanderson, Pearson, and Sparrow; and twelve Puritan divines, including Baxter, Calamy, Reynolds, and Lightfoot. After sitting from May 8 to July 30 they came to no practical conclusion, and reported that "The Church's welfare, unity, and peace, and his majesty's satisfaction, were ends upon which they were all agreed; but as to means, they could not come to any harmony." The failure of the Savoy conference (it broke up in May 1662) excluded a large number of Puritans from the Church. [For the alterations in the Liturgy, which so far as they had any effect emphasized rather than minimized the differences between Anglican and Puritan, see Prayer Book.]

E. Cardwell, "History of Conferences connected with the Book of Common Prayer," 1840.

Sawtrey, William (*d.* March 2, 1401), a clergyman at one time beneficed at Lynn, and later in London, was the first person burnt in England for Lollardy. Proceedings were taken against him during the same session in which the statute De hæretico comburendo (q.v.), which received the royal assent after the dissolution of parliament on March 11, was passed; but his execution on the simple authority of the king's writ has given some occasion for controversy as to whether, before the passing of the new act, the king had power to issue writs De hæretico comburendo. The absence of precedent, however, makes the supposition improbable.

Sawyer, Sir Robert (1633–92), an eminent Tory lawyer, was attorney-general at the time of the Rye House Plot (q.v.) and distinguished himself by his zeal, if not rancour, in prosecuting the Whigs concerned in that measure. He convicted Titus Oates (q.v.) in 1685. Continuing long in office, he refused in 1686 to help James II in vindicating the dispensing power, yet such was his fame, and the difficulty of getting a successor, that he was not dismissed till 1688. He was leading counsel for the Seven Bishops, and after raising difficulties, accepted the Revolution. In 1690 he was violently attacked for his conduct in relation to the trial of Sir Thomas Armstrong, a Rye House plotter, was excepted from the Act of Indemnity, and expelled the House of Commons.

Saxons, The. The earliest contemporary reference to Saxons in extant literature—that of the geographer Ptolemy, who wrote in the second century A.D.—describes them as dwelling in the country now called Holstein, and three adjoining islands. They are mentioned as fringing the sea-board of the ocean. In 286, when the first authentic notice of their piracies and plunderings was written, they had not only stamped their name on the British coast [Saxon Shore], but extended it over the northern lands between the Elbe and the Ems; and in the seventh century broad tracts of Britain, and broader tracts of Germany between the Rhine and the Oder, were in the possession of people called by their name. Those who

stayed in Germany were long known as Old Saxons, to distinguish them from the settlers beyond the sea. This branch clung tenaciously to its primitive usages and national forms of rule after the others had begun to abandon them. Whether the expansion of the Saxon name on the continent was due to immigration and conquest, as it was in Britain, is, though possible, extremely doubtful. It is thought more likely that it was merely extended to a number of separate but neighbouring tribes already inhabiting those regions, as the common designation of a huge confederacy. Such peoples as the Chauci and Cherusci, while keeping their proper tribe names among themselves, would be called Saxons by those that were outside the confederacy, just as Salii and Ubii were known as Franks. This is the readiest way of explaining the sudden spring of the Saxons from an obscure tribe, confined to a narrow territory, into a greatness and notoriety that have left a broad mark on human destiny. From the third to the sixth centuries these Saxons were swarming in their "keels" over and up and down the narrow seas, spoiling and wasting the property, and at length depopulating and seizing the soil of civilized peoples within their reach. If Claudian be believed, they watered the Orkneys with their blood; they certainly founded several kingdoms (Wessex, Essex, Sussex, Middlesex) in Britain, and at least one settlement in Gaul in the region of Bayeux. So deep was the impression made by their strength, ferocity, and persistence on the men whose lands they took that these men gave their name to all the German invaders, and, later still, their subjugation in their native homes cost Charlemagne a generation of effort. Ethnology classes them as a Low German race, with fewer and fainter affinities of language and character to the High German than their partners in conquest, the Angles. The fair hair, blue eye, and robust animal nature, characteristic of the southern English peasant, are ascribed to his Saxon origin. The derivative meaning of the name is disputed; it has been variously interpreted as seamen, users of the short knife (*seax*), settlers (*sas*), adversaries (*sachs*), and other things. Their efficiency as makers of history in early days is traced to their having been untouched by Roman civilization; to their long continuance "in a state of healthy barbarism."

H. M. Chadwick, "Studies in Anglo-Saxon Institutions," 1905; and "Origin of the English Nation," 1907; J. R. Green, "Conquest of England," 2 vols., 1899. [J. R.]

Saxon Shore, The, was the name applied in Roman times to those parts of Britain and Gaul especially liable to the inroads of the Saxon pirates. A special system of defence in this area was established in the third and completed in the fourth century. A naval force was stationed in the channel and fortifications were erected along the coast of south-east Britain from the west of Southampton Water. The command was entrusted to an officer bearing the title of *Comes Litoris Saxonici* (Count of the Saxon Shore); and a legion was quartered at Rutupiæ (Richborough) in Kent. There is no reason for believing, as some have maintained, that the Saxon Shore was inhabited in Roman times by "Saxon" colonies. The expression "Litus Saxonicum" is exactly analogous to the Welsh March of later times, which meant the district specially open to Welsh attacks.

Saye and Sele, Barons. [Fiennes.]

Scales, Thomas, 7th Baron (*d.* 1460), distinguished himself in the French wars and in repressing Jack Cade's rebellion (q.v.). He was a faithful follower of the Lancastrian cause, and in 1460, after the battle of Northampton, was captured by the Yorkists while going to seek sanctuary at Westminster, and put to death.

Scandalum Magnatum was the use of language derogatory to a peer or great officer of the realm. It was created a special offence with special punishments in 1275. Though it had long been obsolete, the offence of *scandalum magnatum* was not formally abolished till 1888.

W. S. Holdsworth, "History of English Law," iii, 1923.

Scarlett, James, Baron Abinger (1769–1844), the second son of Robert Scarlett of Jamaica, after gaining great reputation as an advocate, entered parliament in 1819 as member for Peterborough. He resisted the plans of Castlereagh and Vansittart for increased taxation, and supported Romilly and Mackintosh in their attempts to ameliorate the Penal Code. He also unsuccessfully endeavoured to bring in a bill for amending the Poor Laws. In 1827, when Canning sought the assistance of the Whigs, Scarlett became attorney-general. He now gradually drifted over to Conservatism. He retained his office under Lord Goderich, and, on the dismissal of Sir Charles Wetherell by the Duke of Wellington, took office again under the latter. In 1830 he resigned with his party. In 1834 he was made chief baron by Sir R. Peel, and raised to the peerage (1835).

Memoir by P. C. Scarlett, 1877.

Schaub, Sir Luke (*d.* 1758), was a Swiss in the British service. He first appears in 1718 as confidential secretary to Stanhope in Spain. In 1720 he was knighted, and sent as minister to Paris in 1721, and in the following year received from the regent communications concerning Atterbury's Jacobite plot (q.v.) which led to its detection. He returned to England in 1724, having attempted, as the friend of Carteret, to obtain a dukedom for the intended husband of a daughter of Madame de Platen, the sister of the King's mistress, the Countess of Darlington. Horace Walpole (Sir Robert's brother) was sent by Townshend to counteract his designs, and, as the affairs

were at a deadlock, George was compelled to recall him. His subsequent diplomatic career was unimportant.

Schism Act, The, was passed in June 1714. It was a measure devised by the extreme High Church party, encouraged by Bolingbroke as a party move against Oxford, and introduced by Sir William Wyndham. Its object was to confirm a clause in the Act of Uniformity which precluded schoolmasters and tutors from giving instruction without previously subscribing a declaration of conformity to the Established Church. This restriction, although not abolished by the Toleration Act, had long been practically suspended. The Schism Act therefore imposed severe penalties on all tutors and schoolmasters who presumed to instruct without having first received a licence from a bishop. It easily passed its two first stages, but at the third reading it was vigorously opposed by the Whigs under Walpole and Stanhope. In the Upper House several amendments were made in committee. Teachers merely of reading, writing, arithmetic, and navigation were excluded from its operations; the power of convicting offenders was lodged in the superior courts alone; and by an absurd clause, the tutors of the sons of noblemen were declared exempt from its restriction. But the bill was most unjustly extended to Ireland. This iniquitous measure was repealed, together with the Occasional Conformity Act (q.v.), in spite of much opposition, on January 7, 1719.

Schleswig-Holstein Question, The (1863), arose on the death of Frederick VII of Denmark, between Denmark and the Germanic Confederation, whose conflicting claims to possession of the duchies of Schleswig and Holstein had caused friction in 1848. The situation was only eased by Frederick's incorporation of Schleswig in Denmark, leaving Holstein to the Germanic Confederation; followed by a conference of the five great powers in London in 1850, which confirmed the confederation in possession of Holstein—Palmerston played the most prominent part in the conference—and embodied the settlement in a treaty in 1852. The crisis came in 1863 when the new King of Denmark, Christian IX, confirmed on his accession a law passed by Frederick VII in 1862 virtually uniting Schleswig with Denmark while conceding autonomy to Holstein. The German Diet forthwith drafted federal troops into Holstein. Lord John Russell had all along advised the Danish government to pursue a just policy towards the German populations of the two duchies, and avoid irritating the German Diet. But in reply to a question as to the course Great Britain would adopt in the event of war between the contending parties, Palmerston made his memorable reply (July 23) that "We are convinced—I am convinced, at least—that if any violent attempt were made to overthrow the right and interfere with the independence of Denmark, those who made the attempt would find in the result that it would not be Denmark alone with which they would have to contend." This reply, which Palmerston explained away later as merely his personal impression, was open at the time to only one interpretation, as a statement of official British policy. It was an unfortunate mistake. For not only had the British government no intention of resorting to arms, but the British proposal to Napoleon III for a joint representation to Austria, the German Diet and Russia, in favour of Denmark, was rejected (Louis Napoleon being piqued at the lukewarm support afforded by the British government in 1862 to his desire to intervene on behalf of the insurgent Poles). Thus Denmark, encouraged by Palmerston's words to expect British armed assistance, which the attitude of the queen and of British public opinion rendered quite impossible, was left to herself and badly defeated. The result at home was a motion of censure in both Houses, which was carried in the Lords by 177 to 168, and only defeated in the Commons (by 313 to 295) through the popularity of the prime minister and an amendment introduced by Kinglake which evaded the issue (1864).

"Cambridge History of British Foreign Policy," vol. ii, 1923; Oakes and Mowat, "Great European Treaties of the 19th Century," 1918; E. Dicey, "Schleswig-Holstein War," 2 vols., 1864.

[A. C. F. B.]

Schomberg, Frederick Herman, Count of (1615–90), was born at Heidelberg. His father was an officer in the household of the Elector Palatine, his mother an English lady of the Dudley family. As a Protestant, he fought against the Imperialists in the Thirty Years' War, for the Dutch, Swedes, and French. After the Peace of Westphalia (1648) he became chamberlain to William II, Prince of Orange. In 1650 he repaired to France, and served under Turenne until the Peace of the Pyrenees (1659). He then entered the Portuguese service, and it was chiefly by his assistance that that country compelled Spain to recognize the sovereignty of the house of Braganza (1668). He then returned to France, where he was naturalized and obtained the baton of a marshal of France (1675). During the next years he served in Flanders. The revocation of the Edict of Nantes (1685) caused a complete change in his fortunes. After a short visit to Portugal to negotiate a marriage between Pedro II and Maria Sophia, daughter of the Elector Palatine, he entered the service of Frederick William, the "Great Elector" of Brandenburg. On the death of that prince his successor, Frederick III, generously gave up the great commander to aid William of Orange in the execution of his plans. He was immediately made William's second in command, and rode side by side with him through the streets of London. He was made knight of the Garter, created duke, and appointed master of the ordnance. The Commons voted £100,000 to him in gratitude for

his services. In 1689 he was placed at the head of an expedition to Ireland, his forces consisting mainly of raw recruits. He landed in the north of Ulster, took Carrickfergus, and marched into Leinster. Outside Dundalk he declined battle with the enemy, who were greatly superior in numbers. Still James's army did not attack, and the duke retired into Ulster for winter quarters. His conduct was severely but unjustly criticized in England. In June 1690 William landed at Carrickfergus at the head of a large army. Schomberg met him near Belfast, and the united troops marched on the Boyne. He pronounced strongly against William's intention of attacking the Irish there. The battle was won; when Schomberg, seeing the enemy's cavalry making a gallant resistance, rushed at them, crying aloud to his Huguenot troops, "Come on, gentlemen; there are your persecutors." They were his last words.

Kayner, "Leben Friedrich von Schomberg," 1789.

Schomberg, Meinhard, Duke of Leinster (1641–1719), third son of Marshal Schomberg, commanded William III's right wing at the battle of the Boyne. He marched some miles up the river, and crossed it by the bridge of Slane, thus turning the French flank and rear. In 1692 his father's services and his own were rewarded by creating him Duke of Leinster. In 1693 he was placed at the head of an expedition against the coast of Brittany. But Russell and the other English admirals decided that the year was too far advanced for such an enterprise. Consequently the armament never set out. After the outbreak of the War of the Spanish Succession he was placed at the head of an English and Dutch force, which disembarked at Lisbon. He proved inefficient, and was soon afterwards recalled (July 1704) and Galway sent out in his stead.

Schulenberg, Ermengard Melusina von der, Duchess of Kendal (1667–1743), was one of the mistresses of George I. In 1716 she was created Duchess of Munster in the Irish peerage, and in 1719 Duchess of Kendal. She affected great devotion, and sometimes attended several Lutheran chapels in the course of the day. On the death of the Duke of Somerset no master of the horse was appointed for several years, the profits of the place being paid to the duchess. She seems now to have been looked upon as the dispenser of the king's favours, and was bribed accordingly. She received £10,000 from the South Sea Company. In 1722 she was granted the monopoly of coining halfpence for Ireland, and sold it to Wood (q.v.). In 1727 she was gained over by Bolingbroke and became the leader of a powerful combination against Walpole, although the king handed a memorial, conveyed to him through her hands, over to the minister. She is said to have been overwhelmed with grief on hearing of the death of George, and to have imagined that a raven which flew in at her window was the spirit of the king. She seems to have possessed neither beauty nor intellect, and Lord Chesterfield, who had married her niece, said that she was little better than an idiot.

Schwarz, Martin (*d.* 1487), was a German veteran, commanding the foreign auxiliaries of Lambert Simnel. He was slain, with most of his followers, at the decisive battle of Stoke, which ruined the Yorkist cause.

Scilly Islands, The, were inhabited in the earliest times, as the abundance of prehistoric remains found there shows. Their early history is shrouded in obscurity. They have been erroneously identified with the Cassiterides of the Greek writers, and have been represented as the object of an expedition on the part of Athelstan. In 938 they are said to have been conquered by him, and granted to the monks of Tresco. Afterwards they were transferred by Henry I to the Abbey of Tavistock. They became part of the earldom of Cornwall. Queen Elizabeth granted them on lease to the Godolphin family. They afterwards were leased by the Duke of Leeds. The lessee has very considerable powers. In the Civil War they held out for Charles under Sir John Granville, and became a centre for privateers. In 1651 Blake reduced them to obedience to the Commonwealth.

J. Mothersole, "Isles of Scilly," 1919.

Scone, situated on the east bank of the Tay in the old district of Gowrie, became the capital of the Pictish kingdom and continued to be regarded as the seat of royalty in later history. The Moot Hill, or Hill of Belief, at Scone was the place of assembly for the king's counsellors, and it was at Scone that the Coronation Stone, or Stone of Destiny, was "reverently kept for the consecration of the Kings of Alban" until it was removed to Westminster by Edward I (1296). In 729 Scone was the scene of a conflict between Alpin, King of the Picts, and Nectan. Many of the later kings of Scotland, notably Malcolm Canmore, Alexander III, Robert Bruce, Robert II, and James I, were crowned there, as well as Charles II in 1651.

Scory, John (*d.* 1585), Bishop of Hereford, obtained the see of Rochester (1551) as a reward for his strictures on ecclesiastical discipline and the enclosure movement. He was afterwards translated to Chichester (1552), but was deprived of his preferment on the accession of Mary. He subsequently assisted at the consecration of Bishop Parker in 1559, receiving earlier in the same year the see of Hereford. He then, in conjunction with Bishop Barlow, assisted the archbishop to consecrate the other prelates appointed by Elizabeth. He was a man of indifferent character, and of no very great influence.

Scot and Lot literally signifies "taxes in general," and "the share paid by each

householder." In many towns, before the Reform Acts of the nineteenth century, municipal privileges were vested in all those who paid "scot and lot," i.e., those who bore their rateable proportion in the payments levied from the town for local or national purposes.

Scotale was an "ale" or festival at which ale was drunk at the invitation of the lord of the manor or of a forester or other bailiff, and for which a forced contribution was levied. The obscure nature of this contribution is unsolved. Some have thought that the sheriff or other official could compel the men within his bailiwick to grant him quantities of malt, from which the *Scotale* was brewed, and which belonged to him. Others maintain that the name simply indicates a meeting in which the men were forced to contribute to the same object, or at which heavy fines were exacted on those absent. To obtain exemption from *scotale* was a great object for towns in the early stages of the history of corporate town-life; since exemption probably marked a stage in their emancipation from the jurisdiction of the sheriff.

Scotland. The history of Scotland has been more influenced than that of most other countries by the physical features of the land. The southern part of the modern kingdom differs little in character and conformation from the north of England. This part, known as the Lowlands, is pleasantly diversified with hill and dale, well watered and well wooded, affording rich tracts of pasture and arable land. North of the Lowlands the country is almost intersected by the Firths of Forth and Clyde, and beyond the firths it wholly changes its character and becomes barren and mountainous in the west and north. A strip of lowland runs north along the eastern coast. The early inhabitants of these districts differed as much in race as the country in aspect. While the indigenous Celts inhabited their native mountains, the southern and eastern lowlands were peopled by English or Scandinavian invaders. When first Scotland emerges from prehistoric obscurity, it is as Caledonia, a country of woods and mountains, so stern and wild that the Romans abandoned their attempted conquest, and had great difficulty in protecting the southern province from the inroads of the fierce inhabitants. They were of the Celtic race, and are vaguely spoken of as Picts and Scots. The first event of which we have any certain knowledge is the introduction of Christianity. It came in the wake of the Scots from Ireland. In the sixth century these Scots settled on the western coast, and founded the nucleus of the Scottish kingdom. Columba, Abbot of Durrow, came over to join them. The King of the Scots gave him the islet of Iona to settle on. Here he, and the twelve monks who shared his fortunes, made a monastery of the rudest kind—a few wattle huts clustered round a wooden church. From this centre they went forth on missionary journeys to the neighbouring mainland and island. By this means the Picts and the English of Northumbria were converted to Christianity. In 843 the King of Scots, Kenneth MacAlpin, became king of the Picts also. Thus the Celtic peoples north of the firths were nominally united into one kingdom, though the chiefs of the north, whether Celts or Norsemen, were virtually independent sovereigns. In the tenth century Malcolm I, the King of Scots, got possession of Strathclyde. It was granted to him as a territorial fief by Edmund of England. His grandson, Malcolm II, was invested with Lothian, hitherto part of the English earldom of Northumbria (1018). This acquisition influenced the whole after-history of the kingdom. At first merely a dependence of the Celtic kingdom, Lothian finally overshadowed it. The kings of the Scots identified themselves with this, the richest part of their dominions, and with its Teutonic inhabitants, while the Celts of the original kingdom came to be looked on as a subject-race, the natural enemies of the richer and more civilized people of the Lowlands. The reign of Malcolm III, surnamed Canmore (1057–93), is a turning-point in the history of Scotland. His marriage with Margaret, sister of Edgar Atheling, introduced an English element which gave its colour to the national development. There were also other influences at work which all turned in the same direction. The Norman Conquest displaced many Englishmen. Such of these exiles as turned northward were well received at the Scottish court. Territorial grants were conferred upon them. The English system of land tenure was introduced, and led to the ecclesiastical division into parishes. The Scottish clergy were induced to give up their distinguishing peculiarities, and were brought into conformity with Rome. Malcolm repeatedly invaded England, and his army brought back so many captives that English slaves fell to the lot of the poorest households. These slaves, more civilized than their Celtic masters, influenced the domestic manners of the people. The frequent aggressions of the Scots provoked retaliation from the Normans. William the Conqueror invaded Scotland (1072), and at Abernethy he compelled Malcolm to acknowledge him as over-lord. This submission was a fertile source of dissension in later times. On the strength of it the English sovereigns laid claim to supremacy over the whole kingdom of Scotland, while the Scots maintained that Malcolm did homage for Strathclyde and Lothian, which he held from the English Crown, but in no respect violated the independence of his hereditary kingdom. The purely Celtic period of Scottish history concludes with the accession of Edgar, son of Malcolm (1097). The second period, during which English influence was in the ascendant, was one of continued development. The three sons of Malcolm, Edgar, Alexander, and David, reigned

in succession, and carried out more fully the anglicizing policy of their parents. The marriage of their sister Matilda with Henry I of England strengthened the friendly relations between the kingdoms. The accession of David (1124), who held also the English earldom of Huntingdon, led to a great influx of Normans, to whom the king made large territorial grants. Thus the feudal system was introduced, and took firmer root in Scotland than it ever did in England. Most of the ecclesiastical foundations, as well as the social and political institutions of the later kingdom, date from the reign of David. He founded or restored the six bishoprics of Dunblane, Brechin, Aberdeen, Ross, Caithness, and Glasgow. He endowed many religious houses affiliated with the great monastic orders. Among his foundations was the Abbey of the Holy Rood, which afterwards became the favourite palace of the Scottish sovereigns. He introduced a new code of laws, framed on the English model, appointed sheriffs for the maintenance of order, favoured and encouraged the royal burghs, and added to their number and their privileges. Under Malcolm IV (1153), David's grandson and successor, Galloway was reduced to direct dependence on the Crown, and the isles and western coast were brought to subjection by the defeat and death of Somerled, Earl of Argyll, so that the kingdom now extended to the boundaries of modern Scotland. William the Lion (1165), Malcolm's brother, in his efforts to regain the English earldom of Northumberland was taken prisoner, and to regain his liberty sacrificed the independence of his kingdom, agreeing in the "Convention of Falaise" to hold it as a fief from the English king. About the same time the Scottish Church rejected the claim to superiority over it put forward by the Archbishop of York, and procured a papal bull (1188) confirming their claim of independence of any spiritual authority save that of Rome. The reigns of the Alexanders (II and III) were a period of peace and social improvement. The border line between Scotland and England was fixed for the first time (1222). The last and most formidable invasion of the Northmen was repelled in the battle of Largs (1263). The long peace with England, which lasted nearly a century, was marked by rapid internal development. Agriculture flourished, and the proportion of arable land was much increased. The country was opened up by the making of roads and bridges. The extension of trade and commerce brought wealth and consequence to the trading towns. This prosperity was checked by the sudden death of the king (1286). His grandchild and heir, Margaret, was a young child, absent in her father's kingdom of Norway. This child-queen died before she reached her kingdom. A swarm of competitors appeared to claim the crown. Edward of England, who was appealed to as arbiter, placed it on the head of John Baliol (1292), whom he compelled to acknowledge him as over-lord. John's weakness and incapacity soon embroiled him with his subjects, who compelled him to revolt against England. This gave Edward a pretext for carrying out his cherished scheme of conquering Scotland. With a large army he crossed the Border, deposed the king, received the homage of the nobles and prelates, placed English garrisons in the strongholds, and entrusted the government to Englishmen.

These measures roused a spirit of patriotism among the people and the War of Independence began. They revolted against the English authority, and under the leadership of William Wallace (q.v.) defeated the English at Stirling (1297), and slew or expelled the English governors. A second time Edward in person subdued Scotland, Wallace was defeated at Falkirk (1298), taken and put to death; the English rule was re-established. Henceforth Scotland was to be incorporated with England. But just when the subjection of the Scots was deemed complete they rose again under Robert Bruce [Robert I], the next heir to the crown after Baliol. Had Edward lived, it is most likely that this effort would have been crushed like the former one. But he died on the Border (1307) just as he was about to enter Scotland for the third time, to subdue it more utterly than before. For seven years the struggle lasted, till the total rout of the English at Bannockburn (1314) re-established the national independence. The War of Independence had lasted twenty years, and during that time Scotland had suffered fearfully. Thrice she had been laid waste by foreign invasions; she had been torn in pieces by internal contests, for the struggle had much of the character of a civil war, as many of the Scottish nobles fought on the English side. This war completely changed the current of Scottish history by implanting among the people that bitter hatred of England and everything English which was the most strongly marked feature of the national character for centuries to come. This drove them into close alliance with France, the sworn enemy of England. France became the model for imitation, which England had been during the previous period, and French influence tinged the manners, the arts, the learning, and the laws of the succeeding centuries.

This French alliance involved Scotland in the frequent wars between the French and English. Whenever war broke out Scotland took up arms and invaded England in favour of her ally. By the Treaty of Northampton (1328) England acknowledged the independence of Scotland. By this treaty the old vexatious claims of superiority were swept away. Henceforward the Lothians and Strathclyde were on the same footing as the Celtic kingdom. The war had welded more firmly into one the different races of which the nation was composed. Throughout the contest it was the Lowlanders who were most determined not to be annexed to England, but to maintain the independence of the Celtic kingdom to which they were joined.

The Celts in the north cared little whether the king, to whom they owed a nominal allegiance, reigned in Edinburgh or London. The struggle also brought the people, for the first time, prominently forward in the State. It was by the support of the people and the Church that Robert Bruce succeeded in winning the crown. This had two important results. The people obtained a voice in the national assembly. In the Parliament of Cambuskenneth (1326) the third estate, the deputies of the burghers, appear for the first time. The baronage was in great part renewed, as Bruce granted to his friends the forfeited estates of his opponents. A law passed to prevent the taking of the produce or revenue of the land out of the kingdom compelled the holders of land in both England and Scotland to make a definite choice of nationality. Those whose estates in England were the richer left Scotland altogether. Bruce also greatly increased the power of the baronage by granting powers of regality along with the lands. During his life Bruce did what he could to consolidate the kingdom and repair the ravages of the war. But his death (1329) placed a child, his son David, on the throne, and left the country a prey to invasion from without and anarchy within.

The next stage in the history of Scotland extends to the Reformation. During that period reliance on France and distrust of England were the principles of foreign policy. Within the kingdom there was a constant struggle between the Crown and the baronage, under whose tyranny the people groaned in vain. The Crown was too weak to redress grievances or to maintain law. The king was little better than a chief with a nominal sovereignty over other chiefs, often more powerful than himself. His only means of reducing a rebel baron to subjection was by empowering another to attack him. In a country thus torn by the feuds of a lawless and turbulent baronage there was little room for social improvement. Hence Scotland at the Reformation was little if at all beyond the point of civilization reached before the outbreak of the War of Independence. The accession of the infant son of Robert Bruce was the signal for the revival of the claims of Baliol. His son Edward was crowned king by his adherents, and civil war again broke out. David was taken by the English, and as he passed most of his life either in captivity or in France, he was the mere shadow of a king, and the government was carried on by a regency. On his death, Robert, the grandson of Bruce by his daughter Margery, and the first sovereign of the family of Stuart, mounted the throne. In this family the crown passed from father to child without a break for nearly three centuries. Robert III succeeded his father. He was so weak both in mind and body that his brother Albany held the reins of government. To maintain himself in power he contrived that his nephew, the heir to the kingdom, should fall into the hands of the English, and on the death of Robert acted as regent in his nephew's name. To maintain his own position he winked at the misdeeds of the barons, and when James I was at length released and came to claim his crown (1424) he found himself surrounded by hostile subjects, each one of whom was as powerful as himself. His first care was to break their power by numerous executions. He then turned his attention to maintaining effectively law and judicial reform. By summoning frequent parliaments he gave importance to the national assembly, which in his reign first became defined in the form of the "Estates." The lesser barons who felt the duty of attending parliament a grievous burden were relieved of it, and allowed to send commissaries, two for every shire. These, with the numbers for the burghs, formed the third Estate. But they were in no sense representatives of the commons. Indeed, the commons of Scotland, outside the burghs, could not be said to be represented in parliament until the passing of the Reform Bill. The Estates met in one chamber. In this reign the custom of delegating the chief business of the parliament to a committee became recognized as a regular part of parliamentary procedure. This committee was called the Lords of the Articles. Its members were elected by the three Estates, and to it was confided the work of maturing the measures to be passed, which were then approved and confirmed in a full parliament.

From this reign dates also the publication of the acts of parliament in the spoken language of the people, and the beginning of statute law. The king caused a collection of the statutes to be made, and separated those which had fallen into disuse from those still in force. He also established the office of treasurer, and set up the Supreme Court of Law, which afterwards developed into the Court of Session. This court, which met three times a year, consisted of the chancellor, who was president, and three other persons chosen from the Estates. They were deputed to hear and decide the causes which until then had come before the parliament. James also established schools of archery and patronized and encouraged learning and letters. He was barbarously murdered by a band of malcontents on the verge of the Highlands (1436). Four kings of the same name succeeded James I. There is little to distinguish one reign from another. The general characteristics of all are the same. Each was ushered in by a long minority, and closed by a violent death. These frequently repeated minorities were very disastrous to Scotland. The short reign of each sovereign after he reached manhood was spent in struggling to suppress the family that had raised itself to too great a height during the minority. He could only do this by letting loose on the offender a rival, who in turn served himself, becoming heir not only to the former's estates but to his arrogance, and proving himself the disturber of the succeeding reign. Fruitless invasions

of England and abortive attempts to bring the Celts of the north within the power of the law alternated with the feuds of the rival barons. Under James III the Orkney and Shetland Isles were annexed to Scotland. They had hitherto belonged to Norway, and were made over to the King of Scots as a pledge for the dowry promised with his wife, Margaret of Norway, but they were never redeemed.

James V worked out more fully the project of his ancestor, James I, of establishing a supreme court of law by founding the Court of Session or College of Justice. It was formed on the model of the parliament of Paris, and was composed at first of thirteen judges, though the number was afterwards increased to fifteen. As the members of the court were chosen from the Estates it was supreme in all civil cases, and there was no appeal from its decisions to parliament, nor could it be called upon to review its own judgments. Scottish law was, like the French, based upon the Civil Law, which was adopted and received as authority except where the feudal law had forestalled it. The three universities (St. Andrews, Glasgow, and Aberdeen) which were founded during this period were modelled on that of Paris, which differed widely from the English universities. Provision had also been made for the advancement of elementary education. Grammar schools were founded in the burghs, and by act of parliament (1496) all "barons and freeholders" were commanded to make their sons attend these schools until they were "competently founded," and have "perfect Latin," under penalty of a fine of £20. The introduction of the printing press by Walter Chapman gave a further stimulus to the pursuit of letters. A purely mythical history of Scotland was fabricated, which was supposed to add to the dignity of the kingdom by assuming for it an important position in times of remote antiquity. These ridiculous legends were put into form by Hector Bœce, first principal of the University of Aberdeen, whose "History of Scotland" is wholly unworthy of belief. Unfortunately these legends took root in the national mind, and were accepted as fact by all subsequent historians, who based their works upon them, and it is only in our own days that research has sifted fact from fiction.

In the front rank of the Scottish poets stand the two kings, James I and James V. The favourite themes of the poet's satire were the backsliding and corruption of the priesthood. The Church had become too powerful to be popular. All classes of the community were eager to attack it, and tried to incite the king to follow the example of his uncle, Henry VIII. The danger was only warded off by the adroitness of Beaton, who was the most powerful man in the state. He turned to account the long-cherished jealousy of England to spoil the schemes of Henry, and induced the king to turn a deaf ear to all their suggestions of religious reformation. The discussion of the subject ended in an outburst of war. The attack on the temporalities of the Church had already begun. The benefices in the gift of the Crown were conferred on laymen, generally the king's natural children, who held them *in commendam* with the title of Commendator. Since the War of Independence the Church had totally changed its character. In the incessant internal struggles that disturbed the ensuing period the Church always supported the Crown, which in return conferred estates and privileges on the Church. On account of their superior learning the great offices of state were filled by churchmen. This gave them a political influence which in addition to their wealth was a constant cause of offence to the barons. The two principal sees—St. Andrews (1471) and Glasgow (1492)—had been raised to the dignities of archbishoprics, and their holders vied with each other in an arrogant display of pomp and state to support their dignity as princes of the Church. The two Beatons (uncle and nephew), who succeeded one another in the primacy, swayed the affairs of the state during the entire reign of James V and the beginning of that of Mary. They held a great number of benefices in France as well as in Scotland. This gave them wealth far beyond that of any of the temporal peers, and corresponding power. They used this power to retard the movement of religious reform by persecuting the teachers of the new doctrines, which had made their way into the kingdom from England and Germany, and were rapidly becoming popular. The first sufferer for liberty of opinion in Scotland was Reseby, a Lollard, who was burnt to death in 1408. After this there are casual notices of persons being called in question for alleged heresy. But Patrick Hamilton, who was burnt by Beaton, is called the proto-martyr, as he was the first to suffer for the doctrines which were afterwards embodied in the Established Church. His death did more than any other measure to hasten the impending Reformation. The unexpected death of the king just after a disastrous defeat on the Border, leaving only an infant of a few days old to succeed him, gave it an opportunity for breaking forth. The first open act of violence was the murder of the primate Cardinal Beaton (1545). The doers of the deed were taken after sustaining a long siege in the cardinal's own castle, but it was only a manifestation of the ferment that could be no longer controlled, and which now broke forth into the civil war which effected the Reformation.

The Reformation effected a complete revolution in the policy of Scotland, and in the current of popular opinion. With the change of religion the French influence came to an end, and religious sympathy did much to stifle the hatred of England that had become hereditary. This great national movement had much of the character of the peasant wars of France and England. It was the protests of the oppressed peasantry against the exaggerated

feudalism under which they groaned: the struggle of the people for life and liberty disguised under a show of religious opinions. The movement in the beginning was a popular one. But the barons turned it to their own advantage by taking the lead under the specious title of Lords of the Congregation, and appropriating the greater part of the spoil. The refusal of the regent, Mary of Lorraine, to reform the Church in accordance with the principles of the First Covenant (1557) was followed by the Reformation riots, in which the religious houses and cathedrals were sacked by the mob. The regent employed French troops for the restoration of order. The congregation called English auxiliaries to their aid. Scotland was turned into the battle-field on which French and English fought out their differences. The death of the regent brought a temporary lull. The foreigners withdrew. The Estates seized the opportunity of passing the Reformation Statutes, so that by the time Queen Mary returned from France the old Church had been formally overthrown, and the faith of Geneva established in its stead.

Mary was an ardent Romanist, and would not give up her own form of worship, although she did not interfere with the form her subjects had chosen. Though she did not confirm she did not reverse the Reformation Statutes, nor did she openly favour her co-religionists. Still she did not choose her advisers from among the Protestants. Moray and some other leaders of the congregation rose in open rebellion on the queen's marriage with her cousin Henry, Lord Darnley, and finally withdrew to England. Mary's suspected complicity in the murder of her husband, the favour she lavished upon Bothwell, and her marriage with him, gave the disaffected among her subjects an excuse for her deposition (1567). They placed her infant son upon the throne, while Moray, as regent, was at the head of the government. For eighteen years Mary was held a prisoner in England. This kept the two countries at peace. The government of Scotland dared not disagree with England for fear of having the queen let loose upon them. Four regents, Moray, Lennox, Mar, and Morton, three of whom died deaths of violence, held the reins of government in succession until the majority of James VI. Though Protestantism was still in the ascendant, the episcopal form of Church government was restored under the regency of Mar. In 1588 the Protestant reaction, excited by the Spanish invasion of England, found vent in once again abolishing Episcopacy, and the Presbyterian polity was re-established. After the accession of the king to the English throne (1603), he again restored Episcopacy. And on the one occasion, after the union of the crowns, when he revisited his native kingdom, he gave great offence by reviving a ritualistic service in his private chapel. He also made the assembly pass the "Five Articles of Perth." These enjoined kneeling at the Sacrament, the keeping of saints' days and holy days, and other observances considered popish. The attack thus begun on the liberty of the people through their religion was continued by Charles I.

The attempt to displace the liturgy of John Knox by that of England drove the Scots to rebellion (1637). The Covenant was renewed and signed all over the land. It became the war-cry of the Protestant party. The flame kindled in the north soon spread to England, and both countries were once more plunged into the horrors of civil war. The attempt of the Scots to place Charles II on his father's throne failed, and Cromwell accomplished what had baffled an earlier conqueror—a legislative union of the two kingdoms of Britain (1654). But under the Commonwealth the Scots did not enjoy perfect religious liberty. The assembly was closed, and the power of the Church courts abolished. At the same time the obnoxious bishops were removed. The Restoration (1660) threw the country into a ferment by reinstalling the bishops and the episcopal clergy. No change was made in the form of the service, and as the service-book of John Knox had fallen out of use, the Church now presented the anomaly of a Church with bishops but without a liturgy. Party spirit ran high, and though the cause of dispute was really little more than a question of words, it roused a spirit of persecution on the one side, and obstinacy on the other, that set the whole country in a flame. When the Revolution (1688) set William on the throne the episcopal clergy were in their turn ejected, and the Presbyterian polity finally established. The union of the crowns had not been beneficial to the people of Scotland, for the kings identified themselves with the richer kingdom, and only used the increase in their power to assume despotic power and influence on the liberty of Scottish subjects. This state of things could not continue. It was imperatively necessary, to preserve peace between the two nations, that they should become one in law and in interest. This could only be done by a legislative union, which was effected in 1707. By this Union (q.v.) Scotland was in every respect the gainer. She was allowed to share in the English trading privileges. The energy of the Scottish people had now for the first time free scope for development. The rebellions in favour of the Stuarts, twice in the eighteenth century, disturbed the peace of the country. Good, however, here came out of evil. The Highlanders were still half savages and looked on by the Lowlanders as an alien race, and their country as an unknown region. The breaking-up of the clan system and the making of roads which followed the rising of 1745, first opened up these wild regions for the entrance of civilization. The abolition of heritable jurisdictions (1748) at last broke the chain of feudalism, which till then had curbed the progress of the people. [Highlands.] Since the interests of Scotland and England have become one, Scotland has risen to the level of the sister

kingdom in agriculture, commerce, and manufactures.

1. *General Histories:* P. Hume Brown, "History of Scotland," 3 vols., 1911; Andrew Lang, "History of Scotland," 4 vols., 1907; C. S. Terry, "History of Scotland," 1920. 2. *To 1603:* Sir H. Maxwell, "The Early Chronicles relating to Scotland," 1912; "The Making of Scotland," 1911; J. Dowden, "Celtic Church in Scotland," 1894; Adamnan, "Life of St. Columba," ed. W. Reeves; E. M. Barron, "The Scottish War of Independence," 1914; Sir W. H. Maxwell, "Bruce"; J. E. Morris, "Bannockburn," 1914; and biographies of Kings James I to VI, John Knox, and Mary, Queen of Scots (q.v.). 3. *From 1603:* R. S. Rait, "Relations between England and Scotland, 500–1707," 1901; W. L. Mathieson, "Scotland and the Union, 1695–1747," 1905; G. W. T. Omond, "Lord Advocates of Scotland," 2 vols., 1883; P. Hume Brown, "Legislative Union of England and Scotland," 1914; Dicey and Rait, "Thoughts on the Union," 1920; biographies of the Pretenders. 4. *Special Subjects:* C. S. Terry, "The Scottish Parliament," 1905; R. S. Rait, "The Parliaments of Scotland," 1924; J. Mackinnon, "Social and Industrial History of Scotland," 1920; T. Keith, "Commercial Relations of England and Scotland, 1603–1707," 1910; M. Atkinson, "Local Government in Scotland," 1904. See also C. S. Terry's "Scottish Historical Clubs and Societies" for the publications of the Bannatyne, Maitland, Spalding, Scottish History and other Clubs.

[M. M.]

Scot's Water was a name given to the Firth of Forth, the old boundary between the Anglian Lothians and the Celtic kingdom of Scotland.

Scots, The, was a name originally bestowed upon the inhabitants of Ireland, a fact which until recently has hardly been sufficiently appreciated by historians. After numerous previous expeditions a colony of Scots from Ulster under Fergus Mor crossed over to Argyll in the late fifth or early sixth century, and there established the kingdom of Dalriada. There was for long a close connexion between the Irish and Scottish Dalriadas, two members of the same family often ruling in Irish and Scottish Dalriada at the same time. The independence of the Scots was asserted by Aidan (575) at Drumcat. It was not, however, till the tenth century that the name Scotia ceased to be applied to Ireland and was transferred to Scotland; and it was even later before the term Scot acquired a national significance. In the middle of the eighth century Dalriada was temporarily subjugated by Angus Macfergus, the vigorous king of the Picts; and with the accession of Kenneth MacAlpin in 844 the Picts and Scots were united in a partnership never after to be broken. In the early tenth century Constantine III procured the throne of Strathclyde for his brother Donald, thus paving the way for the amalgamation of the Britons with the Scots, and for the subsequent annexation of the British kingdom. A branch of the MacAlpin family long continued to rule in Strathclyde. In 945 Cumbria was harried by Edmund of England, and given up by him to Malcolm I to be held on the condition that he should become Edmund's "fellow-worker" by land and by sea. The evolution of the kingdom of Scotland was completed when the Anglian district of Lothian was ceded by the English to Malcolm II (1018). Edgar, on his death in 1107, left Strathclyde to his youngest brother David, to the chagrin of Alexander I, who saw that his kingdom would be much weakened in consequence. Alexander, however, died without heirs, and David succeeded to the whole kingdom.

Scott, James, Duke of Monmouth (1649–85), was the natural son of Charles II by Lucy Walter, and was born at Rotterdam. During the king's exile he was generally known as James Crofts, but in 1662 he was brought over to England, and in 1663 created Duke of Monmouth and Orkney, recognized by Charles as his son, and apartments in Whitehall given to him. In the same year he was married to Lady Anne Scott, daughter and heiress of the Duke of Buccleuch. In 1665 he took part in a naval engagement with the Dutch, and in 1668 he was made captain of the first troop of Life Guards. In 1672 he was appointed to an important military command in the Dutch War, and distinguished himself by his bravery and discretion. In 1678 he fought in the army of the Prince of Orange, from whom he earned high praise. In 1679 he was sent to Scotland to repress the Covenanters, whom he defeated at Bothwell Bridge, but earned a name for humanity by preventing the indiscriminate slaughter of the insurgents. From this time he enjoyed great popularity and the friendship of Shaftesbury and other leaders of the Protestant or Presbyterian party. A design was formed whereby Monmouth should succeed to the throne; but Charles sternly refused to countenance such an idea, and expressly declared that Monmouth was not his legitimate son, while, to prevent these intrigues from being carried on any longer, he banished Monmouth to Holland in 1679. In 1680 he returned, was received by the people with the greatest enthusiasm, and made a progress through England, being hailed everywhere with demonstrations of popular joy. In the midst of his progress he was arrested at Stafford by the king's orders. He quickly made his peace with his father, and lived quietly in London till 1683, when he joined in the Revolution plot, though probably not in the Rye House conspiracy. Charles, however, treated Monmouth with the utmost kindness, but finding that he still consorted with men who were suspected of designs against the government, he was compelled to banish him once more to Holland. Here he remained till the accession of James II, when he was expelled from Holland by William of Orange and returned to Brussels, where the invasion of England was planned. On June 11 (1685) he landed at Lyme Regis in Dorsetshire and issued a proclamation against "the Duke of York," as he termed James II, asserting his own legitimacy, but at the same time promising that he would leave his claims to be decided by a free parliament. From Lyme he marched to Taunton, Bridgwater, Wells, and

Frome, at all of which places he was solemnly proclaimed. The royal troops under Feversham and Churchill encountered his levies at the battle of Sedgemoor, and Monmouth was utterly routed (July 5, 1685). After wandering about for some days he was discovered near Holtbridge, in Dorsetshire, in a dry ditch, covered with fern. He now exhibited the greatest cowardice and terror, and entreated James to grant him an interview, which the king did; but, finding that he would not betray his accomplices, all his appeals for mercy were rejected, and he was executed on Tower Hill on July 15. He left three children—James, Earl of Dalkeith, Henry, Earl of Deloraine, and Anne, who died of grief shortly after her father.

Roberts, "Life of Monmouth"; A. Fea, "King Monmouth," 1901; M. Nepean, "On the Left of a Throne," 1914. [F. S. P.]

Scott, John, 1st Earl of Eldon (1751–1838), was born of humble parents at Newcastle-on-Tyne. At school he evinced such remarkable ability as to awaken the interest of a wealthy neighbour, who assisted in sending him to Oxford. He obtained a fellowship at University College, and was called to the bar in 1776. He rose rapidly, and was assisted by the friendship of Lord Thurlow. In parliament he warmly opposed Fox's East India Bill, and on Pitt's accession to office gave him really important support. In 1788 his services were rewarded by his appointment as solicitor-general. In 1793 he became attorney-general, and in that office he found ample employment in the prosecutions which were shortly afterwards instituted against Horne Tooke and other supposed revolutionary characters. In 1799 he succeeded Eyre as chief justice of the Common Pleas, and was raised to the peerage as Baron Eldon. When Pitt resigned, two years afterwards, on the Catholic question, Lord Eldon accepted the great seal at the king's express desire, and while holding that office he gained the entire confidence of George III. On the accession to power of Fox and Lord Grenville he resigned, but again became lord chancellor in 1807. For the next twenty years he remained in uninterrupted possession of the woolsack. He warmly took the part of the Duke of York in 1809, and vigorously opposed alike any relaxation in the severities of the penal code and any concessions to the Roman Catholics. On the question of regency, in 1811, Lord Eldon incurred very warm censure from Lord Grey, for having on several occasions forged the king's signature, when the king was himself incapable of signing his name. On the Prince of Wales becoming regent, Lord Eldon soon ingratiated himself with his new master by taking a very decided part against the Princess Caroline. In 1814 he became an object for the vengeance of the mob in the Corn Law riots. As the outcry for Catholic Emancipation became stronger, he more strongly than ever opposed the measure; and when Canning became prime minister (1827) he resigned the seal to Lord Lyndhurst. He never held office again, though to the very last he continued to oppose the measures of the Whigs. As a judge, Lord Eldon holds high rank, and contributed much towards making our system of equity into a perfect whole. Sir H. Maine calls him "the first of our equity judges who, instead of enlarging the jurisprudence of his court by indirect legislation, devoted himself through life to explaining and harmonizing it." His great fault was his hesitation in deciding cases, the result being an enormous increase in the cost of litigation, and a general feeling among the public that Chancery proceedings were interminable. But the country owes a debt of gratitude to him for having instituted the office of vice-chancellor, and thus relieving the stagnation on the Chancery side.

H. Twiss, "Life of Eldon," 1844. [W. R. S.]

Scott, Sir Walter, of Buccleuch, tried unsuccessfully to rescue James V from the custody of Angus in conjunction with the Earl of Lennox (1526). He was murdered at Edinburgh by a member of the Clan Ker, his hereditary enemies.

Scott, William, Baron Stowell (1745–1836), was the elder brother of Lord Eldon. From the Grammar School of Newcastle-on-Tyne he went up to Corpus Christi College, Oxford, as a scholar, and obtained a fellowship. In 1773 he was appointed Camden reader in ancient history, while in the meantime he was studying for the bar. He proved an admirable lecturer, but, leaving Oxford in 1777, practised in the Ecclesiastical and Admiralty Courts. Practice flowed in to him at once. In 1783 he was appointed registrar of the Court of Faculties, and five years later judge of the Consistory Court and advocate-general, with the honour of knighthood, and, ten years later, he became judge of the High Court of Admiralty. In 1790 he was returned to parliament for Downton, but during a long career in parliament he scarcely ever made a long speech. In 1821 he was raised to the peerage. As a judge he cannot be too highly praised. He ranks even higher than his distinguished brother. He was painstaking, clear, and logical in his decisions, and displayed a breadth of learning and research which has done much to form our international law. "He formed," says a contemporary writer, "a system of rational law from the ill-fashioned labours of his predecessors, erecting a temple of jurisprudence, and laying its foundations not on fleeting policy, or in occasional interests, but in universal and immutable justice."

W. E. Sturtees, "Lives of Lords Stowell and Eldon," 1846; E. S. Roscoe, "Lord Stowell," 1916.

Scottish Church. [Church of Scotland; Free Church of Scotland.]

Scroggs, Sir William (1623 ?–1683), of whose birth and parentage little is known, was called to the bar in 1653. In 1676 he was appointed by Danby to a judgeship in the

Common Pleas, and in 1678 was advanced to the chief justiceship of the King's Bench. He was one of the worst judges that ever disgraced the English bench. While the national madness of the Popish Plot (q.v.) lasted he made a point of accepting all the evidence of the most infamous informers without question. To be brought before him in 1679 and 1680 was invariably the prelude to being convicted. His inhuman conduct towards the supposed conspirators in the Popish Plot was only equalled by his gross brutality towards the other party when he discovered that the tide was turning against Shaftesbury and his associates. In 1680 he was impeached by the Commons. The Lords refused to commit him, but the king, perceiving how unpopular the chief justice had become, removed him from his office in 1681, though allowing him a pension of £1,500 a year.

Scrope, Henry le, 3rd Baron Scrope of Masham (*d.* 1415), was one of Henry V's most intimate friends. He was employed by the king on many diplomatic errands, but in 1415 was implicated in the conspiracy of Cambridge to place the Earl of March on the throne. His guilt is somewhat doubtful, but he was convicted by his peers and executed.

Scrope, Henry le, 9th Baron Scrope of Bolton (1534–92), warden of the West Marches under Queen Elizabeth, and governor of Carlisle, was entrusted for a short time (July 1568—February 1569) with the charge of Mary, Queen of Scots, at Bolton Castle. He aided in crushing the rebellion of 1569, and in the following year was one of the commanders in the raid on Scotland.

Scrope, Richard le, Archbishop of York (*d.* 1405), was the cousin of Richard II's minister, the Earl of Wiltshire. He was made Archbishop of York in 1398. He was strongly opposed to Henry's accession, and advocated the claims of the Earl of March. In 1405 he joined Northumberland and others in a conspiracy against the king. He was entrapped into a conference with the Earl of Westmorland, when he was seized and beheaded at York. He was regarded by the people as a martyr, and pilgrimages were made to his tomb. The execution of Scrope was the first instance in England of the execution of a prelate by the civil power.

Scrope, Richard le, 1st Baron Scrope of Bolton (*d.* 1403), after distinguishing himself by his gallantry in the French and Scottish wars of Edward III's reign, was, on the accession of Richard II, appointed steward of the household, and in 1378 he held the chancellorship for a brief period, and again in 1381–2. He conducted himself with great moderation during the troubles of Richard's reign, and though he took part in the trial of Tresilian and the other royal ministers in 1387, he was declared innocent in 1397.

Scrope, William le, Earl of Wiltshire (*d.* 1399), was the son of Richard le Scrope, chancellor of England. He was highly in favour with Richard II, who made him chamberlain of the household, and created him Earl of Wiltshire in 1397 as a reward for his services in furthering the *coup d'état* of that year. He was one of the king's chief advisers during the latter years of his reign, and on the landing of Henry of Lancaster in 1399 he was seized at Bristol and beheaded without trial.

Scullabogue, The Massacre at, took place on June 5, 1798, during the Irish Rebellion, while Bagenal Harvey (q.v.) and Father Roche were attacking New Ross. All the Protestants taken prisoners by insurgent bands were here confined in a barn, some 300 men being left there to guard them. At nine in the morning thirty or forty of the men were murdered, but those in the barn were as yet spared. When, however, the rebels had been finally repulsed at New Ross the rabble set fire to the barn, and over a hundred old men, women, and children (some twenty Catholics amongst them) were either burnt to death or piked as they tried to escape.

P. F. Kavanagh, "Insurrection of 1798," 1884 and 1913.

Scutage was the commutation for knight service, assessed by the Crown at a fixed rate upon the basis of the knight's fee. The view that it originated in 1156 has now been definitely disproved. There is evidence to show that it was in existence at least as early as the reign of William Rufus, although it may possibly have been limited in the first instance to the fees of the Church. So far from being a consciously anti-feudal measure, it was probably an expedient forced upon the Crown by the increasing difficulty of securing the services of its tenants. Four phases can be distinguished in the history of the levy. (1) Down to the end of the reign of Henry II scutage was apparently the sole method of commutation. Given the opportunity by the Crown, the tenant-in-chief might choose between (i) personal service in the host (his *servitium debitum*); and (ii) payment of scutage at the rate determined upon by the king. (2) The second phase is roughly coincident with the reign of Richard I. As a result of the enhanced value of a knight's services, scutage no longer compensated the Crown for the absence of its military tenants; and the Exchequer therefore began to exact from those who wished to avoid personal attendance with the host sums larger than scutage under the name of *fines*. These fines supplemented but did not supplant the scutage. They merely added a third alternative to those already open to the tenant-in-chief, who might now, at the royal discretion, discharge his obligations by either (i) service, or (ii) scutage, or (iii) a fine. (3) With the reign of John there opens a third phase in the history of the levy. As a measure of expediency the Crown began to accept on occasion a mere fraction of the service nominally

due from its tenants. What was at first an occasional expedient gradually hardened into a custom, and by the middle of the thirteenth century the Crown had lost all option in the matter. A new *servitium debitum* had in effect been created. The reduction did not, however, extend to fiscal matters, for we find that the alternatives to (i) attendance in the host, with the recognized quota, were (ii) payment of scutage on the full traditional number of fees, or (iii) payment of a fine. Throughout this period the tenant-in-chief who discharged his obligations by any one of these three methods was entitled, under sanction of a royal writ, to reimburse himself by collecting scutage for his own use, from his sub-tenants. (4) The last phase in the history of the scutage opens under Edward I. After 1257 a period of more than twenty years elapsed during which no scutage was levied, the relations between the king and his immediate tenants being determined by either (i) the performance of service with the new reduced contingent or (ii) the payment of a fine. When, therefore, Edward in 1279 determined to revive the scutage in connexion with his Welsh campaign of two years earlier, he found that he could only maintain his interest in the levy by assessing it as a general tax, irrespective of the service or fines already proffered. His attempt thus to revolutionize the incidence of the scutage, though justified in some degree by the disparity between the number of fees for which service was rendered and the number traditionally assessed for fiscal purposes, was hotly contested by the tenants-in-chief; and a struggle ensued which ended at length in 1340 in the tacit surrender of the Crown. The last attempt to exact a scutage was made by Edward III in connexion with his Scottish expedition of 1327, but it was soon abandoned; and in 1385 parliament was careful to guard against a revival of the royal claims, by petitioning that any scutage due for the war in Scotland might be pardoned. The later scutages were invariably put in charge in consultation with council or parliament. John's abuse of his feudal rights had led to the inclusion in the Charter of 1215 of the famous clause providing that scutage should henceforth be imposed only "per commune consilium regni." The clause, which was an infringement of strict feudal principle, was omitted from subsequent issues, but its main intention was realized in practice.

J. F. Baldwin, "Scutage and Knight Service in England"; J. H. Round, "Feudal England"; S. K. Mitchell, "Studies in Taxation Under John and Henry III." [H. M. C.]

Seal, The Great, is the emblem of sovereignty, and is used on all solemn occasions when the will of the sovereign is to be expressed. A new great seal is provided by the king-in-council at the beginning of a new reign, or whenever a change is made in the royal arms or style, and the old one is publicly broken. It was introduced into England by Edward the Confessor, who, following the example of the Carlovingian kings, placed it in the keeping of a chancellor. From the time of Becket and onwards the office was one of varied importance, and accordingly we find that the personal custody of the seal was not infrequently placed in the hands of a vice-chancellor. Richard I violently took possession of the seal, ordered a new one to be made, and proclaimed that all charters which had been sealed with the old one were null and void. In order to prevent this practice a statute was passed in 28 Henry III proclaiming the nullity of any document sealed with the great seal during its absence from the hands of the chancellor. This law was, however, often broken, and it was not unusual for the chancellor to entrust the seal to one or more vice-chancellors when he was engaged on the business of his diocese, or absent from England. Also during the interval between the death or resignation of one chancellor the great seal, instead of reverting to the sovereign, passed into the hands of a temporary keeper. Gradually this official acquired the right of discharging all the duties connected with the great seal, and in the case of Sir Nicholas Bacon, lord keeper during the earlier part of Elizabeth's reign, a statute was passed declaring him to have "the same place, pre-eminence, and jurisdiction as the lord chancellor of England." During the following reigns the great seal continued in the custody of the lord keeper in the first instance, but this official was generally raised to the title of lord chancellor and kept the seal; since the accession of George III, however, the office of lord keeper has been discontinued. The great seal was also occasionally placed in commission. Under the Tudors and Stuarts the earlier ordinance passed in 1443, requiring that the chancellor should not fix the great seal without authority under the privy seal (q.v.), was seldom observed. When Lord Keeper Littleton fled to Charles I at York in 1642, taking with him the great seal, the Long Parliament illegally ordered a new great seal to be made, to which after some delay the Lords gave their consent, in spite of a proclamation by the king, charging those concerned in making it with high treason. In 1648 a new great seal was ordered with Republican insignia, and soon afterwards it was declared high treason to counterfeit it. A rival great seal was, however, used by Charles II immediately after the death of his father. This was lost after the battle of Worcester. James II on his flight from London threw the great seal into the Thames, but it was fished up again near Lambeth. Since the Revolution the use of the great seal has been strictly confined to the lord chancellor, lord keeper, and lords commissioners, and the regulations for its employment have been carefully observed. By the Act of Union with Scotland one great seal for the United Kingdom is used for the writs by which parliament is summoned, for foreign treaties, and for all public acts of state, while a seal in Scotland is used for private grants. The Act of Union with Ireland, however, made no express provision for

establishing one great seal for the United Kingdom. By the Great Seal (Offices) Act of 1874 a number of offices connected with the great seal were abolished, having become obsolete.

Campbell, "Lives of the Lord Chancellors"; see also for lists of lord chancellors and lord keepers, Haydn, "Book of Dignities"; H. C. Maxwell-Lyte, "The Great Seal," 1926. [L. C. S.]

Seal, The Privy. A small or privy seal, more personal to the king than the great seal (q.v.), was in existence in the reign of John, being used especially for business connected with the chamber. In origin neither a duplicate of, nor a substitute for, the great seal, the privy seal was in effect complementary to it, and was even sometimes used for the same purposes when the great seal was not available. Its permanence was secured by Chancery's growing preoccupation with public business. At first the privy seal was kept by chamber clerks, but in the reign of Henry III the wardrobe took charge of it, and in Edward I's reign the controller of the wardrobe was its keeper. It authenticated certain types of royal letters and also authorized the issue of writs of great seal. In 1312, as a result of the ordinances of 1311, a special clerk, not the controller of the wardrobe, was assigned to keep the privy seal. From 1312 to 1318 two clerks, and from 1318 to 1399 four, assisted the keeper. The last period saw the evolution of the privy seal office from a department of the wardrobe into a separate department of state. Up to 1350 the privy seal was dependent on the wardrobe for wages and expenses, but these were paid more and more by the Exchequer (q.v.), until, before the end of the fourteenth century, the keeper's wages and all other costs were a direct Exchequer charge. A distinct advance was marked by the Walton ordinances of 1338, which aimed at making privy seal warrants obligatory for all Chancery and Exchequer action not part of routine. At the same time the privy seal began to follow the example of Exchequer and Chancery in going "out of court." The development of the secret seal, and later of the signet [see Chamber], gradually relieved the privy seal of the necessity of accompanying the king. After 1360 there was always an office in Westminster. Although the keeper was still regarded as a household officer in mid-fourteenth century, he was in fact becoming the third minister of state, and his office the third public department. The fact that the keepers who attended Edward III on his foreign expeditions frequently had custody of the great seal added to their power and dignity. With the exception of Nicholas Carew, 1371–7, the keeper was a clerk until the sixteenth century, when lay nobles began to hold the office. The position of the keeper, or of the lord privy seal as he came to be called, increased in importance, but the status of the office did not. Although the use of the seal was abolished in 1884, the lord privy seal was continued and is still a member of the cabinet.

[See also Royal Household, The; Wardrobes, The.]

Anson, "Law and Custom of the Constitution"; T. F. Tout, "Chapters in the Administrative History of Mediæval England." [D. M. B.]

Search Warrants are issued by justices of the peace to the officers to whom they are addressed, requiring them to search a house or other specified place for property suspected to have been stolen. The conditions of their issue are regulated by the Larceny Act of 1861 and the Pawnbrokers' Act of 1872.

Seaton, Sir John Colborne, 1st Baron (1778–1863). [Colborne.]

Sebastopol was a strongly fortified city in the Crimea, which the Tsar Nicholas made the head-quarters of the Russian fleet. When the Crimean War broke out its siege was resolved upon (June 28, 1854). When the southern side of it was evacuated by the Russians, and the town was occupied by the allies, the Crimean War practically ended (September 9, 1855). [Crimean War.]

A. W. Kinglake, "Invasion of the Crimea," 1863–87.

Secker, Thomas (1693–1768), Archbishop of Canterbury, was born of dissenting parents at Sibthorpe, in Nottinghamshire. Abandoning the dissenting ministry for medicine, and ultimately persuaded by his school friend, Butler, to join the ministry of the Established Church, he entered Exeter College, Oxford, was ordained in 1723, and was made in 1735 Bishop of Bristol; was translated in 1737 to Oxford, and in 1758 made archbishop.

Bishop Porteous, "Life of Secker," prefixed to his "Works," 1770.

Secretary of State, The Office of. Before Tudor times the king's secretary was an official of small importance, hardly regarded as a serious rival by the great officers of state. The rapid development of the secretariat in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries is to be ascribed in part to the decline, at that period, of the Chancery as an administrative office; in part to the peculiar needs of the new monarchy; and in part to the work of individual secretaries such as Thomas Cromwell—under whom the first great expansion of the office was effected—and his great successors the Cecils and Walsingham. There was but one principal secretary of state until towards the end of the reign of Henry VIII, when two were appointed of equal powers (1539). In the same reign the secretaries, who had previously been mere clerks who prepared business for the privy council, but were not admitted to its debates, became members of that body. Sir Robert Cecil had the recognized title of "Our Principal Secretary of State," but the office of secretary only attained its present importance when after the Revolution the cabinet began to displace the privy council. On the union with Scotland a secretary of state for Scottish affairs was created, among those who held the office being the Earl

of Mar, but it expired in 1746. The office of secretary of state for Scotland was re-established in 1885, although its holder does not rank among the principal secretaries. In 1768 a secretary was appointed for American and colonial affairs, which from 1660 had been managed by the council of trade, but this office was abolished in 1782. In the same year an important change took place. Hitherto the two secretaryships had been known as those of the Northern and the Southern departments, of which the former, besides having the superintendence of the foreign affairs of northern Europe, was supposed to be concerned with those of Ireland. This clumsy arrangement was now abolished, and their duties devolved upon home and foreign secretaries. In 1794 a secretary at war was appointed, and he received in addition the business of the colonies in 1801, but the two functions of colonial and military administration were finally separated in 1854. The secretaryship for India was created in 1858 on the abolition of the double system of government. The chief secretary for Ireland did not as a rule have a seat in the cabinet, and was not reckoned as one of the principal secretaries of state. His official title was the chief secretary to the lord-lieutenant. The office disappeared with the creation of the Irish Free State in 1921. In 1918 a fifth secretaryship was created with the establishment of the air ministry. There are also parliamentary under-secretaries, and permanent secretaries, who are the heads of the working staffs of the government departments. [Colonial Office; Foreign Office; Home Office.]

T. M. Greir-Evans, "The Principal Secretary of State," 1923; "Note on the Pre-Tudor Secretary" in "Essays in Mediæval History," ed. Little and Powicke.

Security, The Act of (Scotland), was passed in 1703 by the Scottish parliament during the agitation that preceded and necessitated the union of the two kingdoms. It provided that parliament should fix a successor to the Scottish crown on the death of Anne from among the Protestant members of the royal family, provided that he should in no circumstances be the same person as the successor to the English crown, unless full security was given for the religious and commercial independence of Scotland, and its equality in trade with England. The royal assent was naturally refused to such a measure by the queen's commissioner, the Duke of Queensberry; but this step proved so unpopular that parliament had to be immediately dismissed without hope of subsidy. In the next session the act was passed again (July 1704), together with measures providing for the calling out of the militia and the granting of six months' supply for the army. In August Anne was induced by Godolphin to pass the act.

P. Hume Brown, "History of Scotland," 1911.

Sedasseer, The Battle of (March 6, 1799), was a British victory in the Mysore War against Tippoo Sultan. General James Stuart, with the Bombay division, had ascended the Ghauts, and posted himself at Sedasseer. On the morning of March 5 Tippoo was found to be approaching. Preparations were instantly made to receive him by General Hartley, second in command. On the morning of the 6th the advanced brigade was assailed vigorously by the Sultan's entire force, and three battalions under Colonel Montresor sustained the assault for six hours with such determination that Tippoo's officers could do nothing. General Stuart, who was ten miles in the rear, hastening up, found them exhausted and reduced to their last cartridge. In half an hour Tippoo's army retreated with a loss of 2,000 men.

Sedgemoor, The Battle of (July 5, 1685), the last battle fought on English soil, was fought between the Duke of Monmouth and the royal troops under the Earl of Feversham. After marching through the West country and failing to capture Bath, Monmouth determined to risk all in a general engagement with the royal troops, who were encamped on Sedgemoor, about three miles south of Bridgwater, while Monmouth was then in Bridgwater. Sedgemoor is a swampy plain, crossed by wide ditches called "rhines." In front of Lord Feversham's camp was one of these called the Bussex Rhine. It was Monmouth's intention to attack the royal army in its camp at night. His army was in motion by midnight, and his guides brought him to the brink of the "rhine," fronting Feversham's encampment. Finding it too deep to be crossed, the insurgents halted in doubt and by accident shots were fired across the "rhine," which roused Feversham's troops. Making a detour, they fell on Monmouth's army. Lord Grey and his horse were the first of the insurgents to give way. The peasants and Mendip miners of the West country, however, fought with more courage. But the flight of the cavalry under Grey had made the cause of Monmouth hopeless. The duke himself, at dawn, rode away towards Hampshire, where he was taken in the New Forest on July 8. Deserted by their leaders, the insurgents endeavoured to fly; but Colonel Kirke (q.v.), at the head of his Tangier troops, followed them in close pursuit. A great and barbarous slaughter of the fugitives by the royal troops ensued. The battle put an immediate end to Monmouth's rebellion.

A. Fea, "King Monmouth," 1901.

Seditious Meetings Act (November 1795) was provoked by the same state of popular excitement which caused the Treasonable Practices Act (q.v.). The measure was introduced by Pitt a few days after the attack made on the king on October 29 on his way to open parliament. It prohibited the meeting of more than fifty persons (except county and borough meetings duly called) for the consideration of petitions or addresses for reform in Church or State, or for the discussion of any grievance, without the sanction of a magistrate. It vested large discretionary powers in the

magistrates, both as to sanctioning such meetings and dispersing them. Pitt even proposed to restrict the liberty of discussion by permitting debating societies to meet only in duly licensed rooms. The bill was professedly a measure of coercion, and as such was opposed by Fox and all his party with even more than their wonted vigour. Only forty-two members, however, followed Fox in opposing the introduction of the bill; and its last reading was carried by 266 to 51.

Sir T. Erskine May, "Constitutional History," ed. Francis Holland, vol. ii, 1912.

Sedley, Catherine, Countess of Dorchester (1657–1717), was the daughter of Sir Charles Sedley (q.v.), and mistress of James II, by whom, in 1686, she was made Countess of Dorchester. She was celebrated more for her wit and vivacity than for her beauty; and notwithstanding her ridicule of the Romish priests who thronged his court, seems to have maintained her ascendancy over James II. After his exile she married the Earl of Portmore.

Sedley, Sir Charles (1639?–1701), was a witty but profligate playwright of the Restoration period. He was the father of Catherine Sedley, James II's mistress, and took some part in politics as member for New Romney. Ultimately he became a strong partisan of the Revolution, though his speech in 1690 against placemen showed that he retained his independence under the new government.

Segrave, Stephen (*d.* 1241), was a partisan of King John during his struggles with the barons, and on Henry III's accession he allied himself with the party of Peter des Roches (q.v.). On the dismissal of Hubert de Burgh in 1232 the office of chief justiciar was given to Segrave. His administration was unsuccessful; he identified himself with the party of the foreigners, thereby incurring the hatred of the barons and the people. He fell in 1234, with his patron des Roches, and was called upon to give an account of his stewardship. Subsequently he made his peace with the king by the payment of a thousand marks, returned to court, and became one of the royal advisers, but was not reinstated in his office. He retired at the end of his life to the abbey of St. Mary des Prés, where he died. Segrave was one of the first of the merely legal justiciars. Though so bad a politician, he was a good lawyer. He marks the transition to the chief justices of later times.

Seguise, The Battle of (635), was fought at Dalguise, near Dunkeld, between the descendants of Nectan, the Pictish king, who had been driven from the throne in 612, and Garnaid, son of Foith, king of the Picts, who, together with Lochene, son of Nectan, was killed.

Selborne, Roundell Palmer, 1st Earl of (1812–95). [Palmer.]

Selby, The Battle of (April 11, 1644), was fought during the Civil War. Colonel John Belasyse, the governor of York, during the absence of the Marquis of Newcastle, who was facing the Scots in Durham, occupied with 1,500 horse and 1,800 foot the town of Selby, with the object of preventing the junction of Sir Thomas Fairfax with the Scots. He was attacked on April 11 by Fairfax, with rather superior forces, and his position stormed. Belasyse himself was taken prisoner, and he lost his baggage, artillery, and 1,600 men. Clarendon says:—"This was the first action for which Sir Thomas Fairfax was taken notice of, who in a short time grew the supreme general under the parliament."

Sir C. R. Markham, "Fairfax," 1870.

Selden, John (1584–1654), was educated at Hart Hall, Oxford, and became a member of Clifford's Inn in 1602. After he had continued there a sedulous student for some time, he "did by help of a strong body and vast memory, not only run through the whole body of the law, but became a prodigy in most parts of learning . . . so that in few years his name was wonderfully advanced, not only at home, but in foreign countries, and he was usually styled 'the great dictator of learning of the English nation'" (Wood). In 1617 he published a "History of Tithes," strongly Erastian in its tendency, and basing the claim of the clergy to them on the grant of the civil power. The book was suppressed by the Court of High Commission, and the author was obliged to make a public acknowledgment of his error. Selden sat in the parliaments of 1624, 1626, and 1628. He took part in the impeachment of the Duke of Buckingham, and had the 4th and 5th articles entrusted to him (1626). He also helped to prepare the Petition of Right (q.v.). In 1629 he was summoned before the council for his share in the disturbances of the last day of that parliament, and was imprisoned until 1631. Four years later he published "Mare Clausum," asserting the English sovereignty of the seas, which had originally been written in answer to the "Mare Liberum" of Grotius. When the Long Parliament assembled Selden was chosen member for Oxford University. He brought forward a bill for the abolition of ship-money, and other measures limiting the prerogative; but he opposed the bill for the attainder of Strafford, and the Root and Branch Bill (q.v.). In 1643 he was appointed one of the representatives of the House of Commons in the Westminster Assembly (q.v.), where he played a distinguished part, and two years later was selected as a member of the joint commission to administer the admiralty. He died on November 30, 1654, leaving his library to his executors, who gave it to the Bodleian Library at Oxford.

Johnson, "Life of Selden." [C. H. F.]

Self-denying Ordinance, The, was a measure proposed in the Long Parliament on December 9, 1644, by Zouch Tate, member for Northampton. The words of the resolution were "that no member of either House of

Parliament shall during the war enjoy or execute any office or command, military or civil, and that an ordinance be brought in to that effect." An ordinance was brought in and passed the Commons on December 19, by the small majority of seven votes. After some discussion and hesitation the Lords rejected it, giving as a reason that they did not know what shape the army would take. The Commons at once produced a scheme "for new modelling of the army" [New Model], which passed the Commons on January 28, 1645, and the Lords on February 15. A second Self-denying Ordinance was now introduced which passed the Lords on April 3, 1645. It provided that all members of either House, who had since the beginning of the present parliament been appointed to any offices, military or civil, should vacate those offices within forty days. But it differed from the first ordinance in that it did not prevent members from taking office on any future occasion. The name given to this ordinance is perhaps derived from a phrase used by Cromwell, who was one of its strongest supporters. "I hope," he said, "we have such English hearts and zealous affections towards the general weal of our mother country, as no members of either house will scruple to *deny themselves*, and their own private interests, for the public good."

C. H. Firth and R. S. Rait, "Acts and Ordinances of the Interregnum," 1911.

Selgovæ, The, were an ancient British tribe said to have occupied the modern Annandale, Nithsdale, and Eskdale, in Dumfriesshire, with the east of Galloway.

Selvach (*d.* 729 ?), King of the Scots of Dalriada, son of Fearchar Fada, succeeded his brother Ainbellach, whom he expelled, as head of the Cinel Loarn (698). In 701 he destroyed the rival tribe of Cinel Cathboth, and in 711 defeated the Britons at Loch Arklet, in Stirlingshire. The following year we find him fighting against the Cinel Gabran in Kintyre, and in 717 again defeating the Strathclyde Britons. In 719 he was defeated in the naval battle of Ardanesbi (q.v.). In 723 Selvach resigned the crown to his son Dungal, and entered a monastery, from which, however, he emerged in 727 to fight the battle of Ross Foichen on his son's behalf.

Sempringham, The Order of, was founded by an Englishman—St. Gilbert, Rector of Sempringham in Lincolnshire—during the second quarter of the twelfth century; and never spread beyond England. The rule provided for double houses, comprising communities of women organized in accordance with the Cistercian rule; and smaller auxiliary communities of canons, following the rule of St. Augustine, and ministering to the spiritual needs of the nuns. The two bodies were rigidly secluded from each other in adjacent cloisters. The order was under the rule of a general superior, known as the Master of Sempringham. The total number of Gilbertine houses was twenty-seven, of which no fewer than sixteen were in Lincolnshire.

Rose Graham, "St. Gilbert of Sempringham," 1903. [H. M. C.]

Sepoy Mutinies. (1) 1764. Having been instrumental in deposing two nawabs of Bengal, the East India Company's Bengal sepoys demanded a large donation and increased pay, and on refusal a whole battalion marched off to the enemy, until pursued and brought back by Major Munro. Twenty-four leaders were court-martialled and sentenced to be blown from guns. When four had been so executed the sepoys endeavoured to prevent the other sentences from being carried out, until Munro's threat to discharge a volley of grape shot at them unless they grounded arms cowed them into obedience. (2) 1806. [Vellore.] (3) 1824. [Barrakpur.] (4), 1844, was occasioned by the annexation of Sind to Great Britain, which involved a loss to the sepoys of the customary extra allowance granted for service in foreign lands. The disaffection spread to troops brought in from Madras, but was ultimately appeased on the departure of the Madras troops by a small advance of money. (5), 1850, arose from identical causes on the annexation of the Punjab, and had its seat at Delhi, Wuzirabad, and Govindgur. Order was easily restored. (6) 1857. [Indian Mutiny.]

Sepoys are the troops, natives of India, in the British pay. At an early date the company found out that the natives, properly disciplined according to European methods, formed excellent soldiers, and largely used them as cheaper and more efficient than the produce of the crimp-houses and ale-shops of London. By their arms, rather than by European troops, India was conquered by the British; but their religious caste prejudices and dislike of innovation, and sometimes the want of consideration shown to them, have produced mutinies, of which the chief are mentioned in the preceding article.

The importance of the native troops in British employ is clearly shown in Sir J. R. Seeley's "Expansion of England," 1883.

Septennial Act, The (1716), which increased the length of parliament to seven years, was passed, partly because the Triennial Act of 1694 had not worked well in practice, but still more because the very excited state of popular feeling in consequence of the Jacobite revolt made it unsafe for the Whig ministry to run the risk of a general election. The right of a sitting parliament thus to lengthen its own existence was violently contested at the time by Nottingham and others, and, indeed, could only be justified by the critical condition of the nation and the bad state of the representation, which made an appeal to the people almost a farce. But the second reading in the Lords was carried on April 16 by 77 votes to 43, and in the Commons on the 24th by 284 to 162. The royal

assent was given on May 7. Often violently attacked as fixing to the life of parliament a limit too long for popular freedom, the Septennial Act nevertheless continued law until 1911, although later usage practically reduced the length of parliament to a maximum of six years. A bill to repeal it was thrown out in 1734. It was ultimately repealed by the Parliament Act of 1911 (q.v.), which shortened the life of parliament to five years.

Seringapatam, The Sieges of. (1) On February 5, 1792, the army of Lord Cornwallis, consisting of 22,000 men, reinforced by Mahratta and Mogul contingents, reached Seringapatam, the capital of Tippoo's state of Mysore. Tippoo's force was encamped on the northern side of the stream in a position admirably fortified. Cornwallis on the 6th moved his army to the assault in three main divisions. The centre moved straight into Tippoo's camp; part forced its way through the river, and seized a village and the guns on the island; part attacked the redoubts within the camp; while the reserve fought its way across the river to the island. The British established themselves in the island, with a loss of 530 men; Tippoo's loss being estimated at 20,000. Tippoo now began to treat insincerely. On February 16 General Abercromby joined Cornwallis, and the operations of the siege were pushed with vigour. Tippoo, alarmed, consented to treat (March 1792). (2) April 16, 1799. This took place during Lord Wellesley's campaign against Mysore. The advanced post of General Harris's army established itself within 1,600 yards of the fort of Seringapatam on the south-west side of the river and fort. On May 3 a breach was practicable. The troops destined for the assault, 4,376 in number, took up their stations in the trenches next morning under General Baird. At one o'clock the word was given, and, in spite of a desperate resistance, within seven minutes the British ensign was floating over the breach. A general stampede followed, and in the flight Tippoo was slain. Baird succeeded in securing the family of Tippoo, and proceeded to search for the dead body of the sultan, of whose death he was informed. Thus in the space of a few hours fell the capital of Mysore, though garrisoned by 20,000 troops.

J. W. Fortescue, "History of the British Army," vol. iv, 1906; T. E. Hook, "Life of Baird," 1832.

Seringapatam, The Treaty of (March 8, 1792), was concluded between the parties to the triple alliance of 1790 and Tippoo. Its stipulations were the cession of the old Mahratta provinces north of the Tungabuddra to the peshwa; the cession to the nizam of Tippoo's provinces north of that river; the cession to the British of the districts of Malabar, Coorg, Dindigul, Baramahal, and Salem; and the restoration of the British prisoners. Tippoo agreed to pay a sum equivalent to £3,600,000, and gave two of his sons as hostages.

Serjeanty was a tenure the essence of which may be described as "servantship." The list of serjeanties comprised originally most of the needs of the royal household, and many of the needs of the government of the state; while the magnates also secured the staff needed to minister to their personal wants and to administer their lands by granting estates to be held by serjeanty. It comprised also a class of military tenants occupying a position subordinate to that of the knight. With the development of a money economy, the largest class of tenants by serjeanty—viz., those who held their lands on condition of rendering some personal or menial service—gradually disappeared, leaving only the "grand" hereditary serjeanties of the royal household (involving such duties as carrying the king's banner or lance, or acting as his carver, butler, or chamberlain), and the "petty" serjeanties, which were mostly of a military or semi-military character and were with increasing difficulty distinguished from socage. On the abolition of feudal tenures and their incidents, in 1660, the grand serjeanties were specially exempted from the operation of the statute, but the petty serjeanties were finally merged in free and common socage.

Pollock and Maitland, "History of English Law," 1911; W. S. Holdsworth, "History of English Law," 1922; J. H. Round, "The King's Serjeants and Officers of State," 1911; P. Vinogradoff, "English Society in the Eleventh Century," 1908.

Session, The Court of, the highest civil judicial tribunal in Scotland, was formally instituted by statute of James V in 1532 after a long period of experiment. Its functions had previously been discharged by the council and a committee of parliament. Its original composition included fourteen judges, called Lords of Session, and a president. Besides this the Crown could appoint three or four peers as assessors. In 1808 the court was divided into two courts with separate jurisdiction, called the first and second divisions; the former presided over by the president, the latter by the lord justice clerk. In 1810 the junior judges were appointed to sit as lords ordinary in the Outer House. In 1830 the number of judges was reduced to thirteen, and the quorum was also reduced. An appeal lies to the House of Lords.

Seton, Alexander, 1st Earl of Huntly (*d.* 1470), was created earl by James II of Scotland (1449–50). He was the head of the Setons and the Gordons, and received his title in reward for his services against the Douglas faction. He defeated the Earl of Crawford, one of the Douglas leaders, in the battle of Brechin (1452); but afterwards obtained for him a full pardon.

Seton, George, 5th Lord Seton (1530–1585), was one of the leaders of the Catholic party in Scotland against the teaching of Knox. He was a staunch supporter of Queen Mary, whom he entertained in his castle in Haddingtonshire immediately after Darnley's murder,

and promptly aided on her escape from Lochleven Castle (1568). He was captured at Langside, but later made peace with Morton's government. He supported Lennox after Morton's death.

Settlement, The Act of, or, as its proper title is, the "Act for the further limitation of the Crown and better securing the rights and liberties of the subject," was passed in the year 1701. It was necessitated by the untimely death of the young Duke of Gloucester, son of the Princess Anne, in this year. There was no question that the Princess Sophia was the fittest object of the nation's preference. She was indeed very far removed from any hereditary title. Besides James Edward, labelled from birth a pretender, and his sister, whose legitimacy no one disputed, there stood in her way the Duchess of Savoy, daughter of Henrietta, Duchess of Orleans, and several members of the Palatine family. According to the tenor and intention of this statute, all prior claims of inheritance, save that of the issue of King William and the Princess Anne, being set aside and annulled, the Princess Sophia became the source of a new royal line. The throne of England and Ireland stands entailed upon the heirs of her body, being Protestants. It was determined to accompany this settlement with additional securities of the subject's liberty. Eight articles were therefore inserted in the Act of Settlement, to take effect only from the commencement of the new limitation of the house of Hanover. These eight articles were, however, an unreasonable vote of censure of the Tory parliament which passed the act, on many of the acts of the reign of William III. They are: (1) That whosoever shall hereafter come to the possession of this crown shall join in communion with the Church of England as by law established; (2) That in case the crown and imperial dignity of this realm shall hereafter come to any person not being a native of this kingdom of England, this nation be not obliged to engage in any war for the defence of any dominions or territories which do not belong to the crown of England, without the consent of parliament; (3) That no person who shall hereafter come to the possession of the crown shall go out of the dominions of England, Scotland, or Ireland without the consent of parliament; (4) That from and after the time that further limitation of this act shall take effect, all matters and things relating to the well-governing of this kingdom which are properly cognizable in the privy council by the laws and customs of this realm shall be transacted there, and all resolutions taken thereupon shall be signed by such of the privy council as shall advise and consent to the same; (5) That . . . no person born out of the kingdoms of England, Scotland, and Ireland, or the dominions thereunto belonging (though he be naturalized or made a citizen, except such as are born of English parents), shall be capable to be of the privy council, or a member of either House of parliament, or to enjoy any office or place of trust, either civil or military, or to have any grants of lands . . . from the Crown . . .; (6) That no person who has an office or place of profit under the king, or receives a pension from the Crown, shall be capable of serving as a member of the House of Commons; (7) That . . . judges' commissions shall be made *quamdiu se bene gesserint*, and their salaries established and ascertained; but upon the address of both Houses of parliament it may be lawful to remove them; (8) That no pardon under the great seal of England be pleadable to an impeachment by the Commons in parliament. The first of these provisions needs no comment. The second was frequently called in question during the reign of George II, in regard to subsidiary treaties for the defence of Hanover. Certainly if a power at war with England chose to consider that electorate as part of the king's dominions it ought to be defended from attack. The real remedy—the separation of Hanover from England—was effected on the accession of Victoria. The third was repealed shortly after the accession of George I, who frequently abused it by his journeys to Hanover. The next articles are extremely important. The fourth is a reactionary measure, being an attempt to suppress the growth of the cabinet as distinct from the privy council, which became more fully established in the reign of William III. The signature of the privy councillor was devised as a method of obviating the irresponsibility of the cabinet minister. [Cabinet.] The article is also a protest against William's Partition Treaty [Spanish Succession], which was concluded by the instrumentality of Portland and Somers, without his consulting even the cabinet. It was repealed in 1705. The fifth article is a protest against William's partiality for Portland and Albemarle. It was too sweeping in its application, although it had a beneficial effect in the reign of George I. It was afterwards modified, especially with regard to admission to parliament, and was finally repealed by 7 & 8 Vict. c. 66, Hutt's Naturalization Act. The next article was a most short-sighted measure. Had it continued in force, the ministry would have been excluded from parliament: that is, there would have been a complete separation between the executive and legislature. Hence the Commons, who alone can grant supplies, would either have roused the people to subvert the monarchy, or they would have sunk to the condition of the Estates-General of France. The evil of the influence of the Crown was partially remedied by Place Bills, but more effectively by limiting the royal revenue. The article was revised in 1705, when, however, the following provisions were inserted: That any member of the Commons accepting an office of the Crown, except a higher commission in the army, shall vacate his seat, and a new writ shall be issued; secondly, that no person holding an office created since October 25, 1705,

shall be capable of election or re-election. Parliament excluded at the same time all such as held pensions during the pleasure of the Crown; and, to check the multitude of placemen, enacted that the numbers of commissioners appointed to execute any office should not be increased. The efficacy of the seventh clause was increased by the exclusion of judges from parliament.

C. Grant Robertson, "Select Statutes, Cases and Documents," 4th ed., 1923. [L. C. S.]

Settlement, The Act of (Ireland), I (1652), was the Cromwellian measure for the settlement of Ireland. The following were its chief provisions:—(1) A free pardon was granted to all whose personal estate did not exceed £10 in annual value. (2) All the land in Ulster, Munster, and Leinster was declared confiscated. (3) The Irish proprietors in these three provinces were divided into three classes: (*a*) All rebels before November 10, 1642, all who sat in the Kilkenny Council before May 1643, all the leaders mentioned by name, and all concerned in the massacre of 1641, to lose their lives and estates; (*b*) All other persons, who fought against the Parliament, to lose two-thirds of their estates; (*c*) All persons who had resided in Ireland between 1641 and 1650, and who had not served with the Parliamentary forces since 1649, to lose one-third of their estates. An act of the Little Parliament in 1653, however, declared that those proprietors who were to get part of their estates restored to them must accept equivalents in Connaught and Clare. The greater part of the forfeited lands was then set apart in equal shares to satisfy the claims of the adventurers and of the Puritan soldiery, the counties of Dublin, Cork, Kildare, and Carlow being reserved for the future disposal of Parliament. The soldiers were to be kept together in regiments; but the designs of the Protector in this direction were frustrated by the soldiers themselves, who sold their lands to speculators like Sir W. Petty, before the allotment. It has been said that the Cromwellian Settlement was the foundation of that deep and lasting aversion between the proprietary and the tenants which has been one of the chief causes of the political and social evils of Ireland.

C. H. Firth and R. S. Rait, "Acts and Ordinances of the Interregnum," 1911; R. Bagwell, "Ireland Under the Stuarts," vol. ii, 1916.

Settlement, The Act of (Ireland), II (14 & 15 Charles II—1662), was passed in the second session of Charles II's first Irish parliament, and was substantially based on the Declaration of 1660. It declared that innocent Irish were to regain their estates, while the Cromwellian and other settlers also had their land confirmed to them. It was found that there was not enough land in Ireland to satisfy all. Everything depended on the construction of the word "innocent" by the Court of Claims. The term "innocent" was not to include anyone who had been on the rebel side, or even resided within their lines before the cessation, nor anyone who had sided with Rinuccini against Ormonde. Yet, despite this not very liberal construction, too much land was restored by the court to the natives, and it was found necessary in 1665 to pass a second act, the Act of Settlement and Explanation (q.v.).

R. Bagwell, "Ireland Under the Stuarts," vol. iii, 1916; "Irish Statutes," vol. i.

Settlement and Explanation, The Act of (Ireland) (17 & 18 Charles II—1665), became necessary owing to the action of the Court of Claims and its construction of the Act of Settlement in favour of the natives. In accordance with the new act, adventurers and soldiers were to content themselves with two-thirds of what belonged to them; Catholics were to make good their claims as innocent within the year. All doubtful cases were to be construed in favour of Protestants, and some twenty persons were to be restored to their estates by special favour, and at once. The result of this act, thus avowedly designed to protect the Protestant interest, and especially of the second clause, was to deprive 3,000 Catholics of all their rights without a trial, and to leave but one-third instead of two-thirds of the good land in Ireland in Catholic hands. An attempt at inquiry into the working of this act in 1670 had to be given up in deference to the English parliament.

R. Bagwell, "Ireland Under the Stuarts," vol. iii, 1916.

Settlement of India, The Act for the (or, as it is more correctly called, "The Act for the Better Government of India"), became law on August 2, 1858, after vigorous debates on Lord John Russell's resolutions, upon which it was based, and a strong protest from the directors of the East India Company. It provided that all the territories previously under the government of the company were to be vested in the queen, who was to govern through one of the principal secretaries of state, assisted by a council of fifteen, of whom seven were to be elected by the court of directors and eight nominated by the Crown. After a certain time the right of the directors to appoint members was to be transferred to the secretary of state. The governor-general received the new title of viceroy. The civil service was made competitive, the military forces were amalgamated with the royal service, and the navy abolished. It was also provided that Indian revenues should not be applied towards defraying the cost of an extra-frontier military expedition without the consent of parliament. [India.]

Act 21 & 22 Vict. c. 106.

Seven Bishops, The. [Bishops, the Seven.]

Seven Earls, The, were dignitaries of early mediæval Scotland. The appearance of the term "earl" as a title, and of the Seven Earls

as representing various parts of the country in the council of the kingdom, begins with the reign of Alexander I. The same officials had, if Celts, been previously styled mormaers; if Norsemen, jarls. The appearance of the Seven Earls is an important step in the feudalization of Scotland, and in the anglicization of the northern districts. Under Alexander II the Seven Earls appear as a recognized constitutional body, and then included the Earls of Fife, Atholl, Strathearn, Angus, Menteith, Buchan, and Lothian, but the lists vary at different times. The Seven Earls claimed of Edward I the right of constituting and appointing the king. But at least as early as this their functions were extended to the Estates, and the creation of additional earldoms put an end to the Seven Earls.

Seven Years' War, The (1756–63), was caused by the alarm entertained by the continental powers of Europe at the aggressive designs of Frederick the Great, and by the desire of Maria Theresa to recover the province of Silesia from the King of Prussia. Austria was readily joined by Louis XV of France, the Tsarina Elizabeth, and the King of Poland, who was also Elector of Saxony; while Frederick obtained promises of assistance from Great Britain—which was nervously afraid of isolation, and was already at war with France in the colonies—besides some money, and an army in Hanover. Throughout the continental war, however, the British troops played a secondary part. The first campaign was a great triumph for Frederick. Assuming the offensive, he overran Saxony, defeated the Austrians who were advancing to its relief at Lobositz, and compelled the Saxon army to surrender. In 1757 the attention of Frederick was at first confined to Bohemia, which he invaded; he invested the Imperialists in Prague, until Marshal Daun defeated him decisively at Kolin in June, and compelled him to evacuate the country. Meanwhile, in Hanover, the British-Hanoverian army, under the Duke of Cumberland, was opposed to the French under Marshal d'Estrées. After allowing the French to cross the Weser, he was utterly defeated at Hastenbeck (July 26), and compelled to capitulate under the Convention of Kloster-Zeven (q.v.). This arrangement, however, was repudiated by the British government, and the defeated army placed under Ferdinand of Brunswick, who drove back the French on that side. Aided by this timely diversion, Frederick succeeded in making head against the coalition, the Imperialists being routed at Rosbach in November, and Silesia reoccupied after the victory of Leuthen. The sudden withdrawal of the Russians from the campaign, owing to the illness of the Tsarina, set the Prussians who had been employed against them free to chastise the Swedes, who had joined the allies in this year. At the same time Clive in India had won the great victory of Plassey over the French (June 23). The next campaign (1758) was one of considerable changes of fortune. Ferdinand of Brunswick, after defeating the French at Creveld on June 23, retired before Marshal Contades, only to advance again and drive the enemy behind the Rhine. On his side Frederick was driven out of Moravia, but won a brilliant victory over the Russians at Zorndorf; and though defeated by Daun with loss at Hofkirchen, he managed before the end of the year to free Saxony and Silesia from the enemy. Meanwhile the British had taken Louisburg and Fort Duquesne in America, and made successful descents upon Cherbourg and St. Malo. In 1759 the efforts of Frederick were on the whole unfortunate. The battle of Kunersdorf, at first a victory, was converted into a crushing defeat by the approach of Marshal Loudon; his general, Fink, surrendered in November, and at the end of the year Saxony and Lusatia were occupied by the Austrians. Ferdinand of Brunswick, however, though frustrated in an attempt to recover Frankfort, won a great victory at Minden on August 1, over Contades and Broglie, and, aided by the victory of his relative the hereditary Prince of Brunswick, on the same day, succeeded in clearing Westphalia of the enemy. At the same time the resources of the French were being weakened by the British successes in the east and west, by the capture of Quebec in September, by the victories of Boscawen at Lagos, and of Hawke at Quiberon, and by the successes of Coote in India, which terminated with the battle of Wandewash. In 1760 the British subsidy alone enabled Frederick to resist his encircling enemies. Berlin was occupied by the Russians in October, and though by the brilliant victory of Liegnitz on August 15 Silesia had been partially recovered, they came up again on November 3, and the fearful battle of Torgau only just saved Prussia from destruction. It was followed by the retirement of the allies on all sides. Soon after the death of George II all subsidies from Great Britain ceased, and so exhausted were both sides that no operations of particular moment were undertaken. On the Rhine, Ferdinand of Brunswick and the French alternately advanced and retreated, and the Russians and Austrians were unable to crush Frederick's remnant of an army, owing to the desolation of the country. A double series of negotiations had already begun, those between Great Britain and France, and those between Russia and Austria on the one side, and Prussia on the other. The former, in spite of the opposition of Pitt and the outbreak of the war with Spain, ripened into the Treaty of Paris (q.v.) of 1763. The latter were broken off by Austria, and the war was resumed. The death of the Tsarina Elizabeth, in January 1762, however, totally changed the balance of affairs, and Maria Theresa, thus alone, was compelled to conclude the Peace of Hubertsburg in 1763, by which Frederick retained Silesia. The war, therefore, had effected but little change in Europe; but it had settled the question of the rivalry of Great

Britain and France in America and India, decisively in favour of the former.

J. S. Corbett, "England in the Seven Years' War," 1907; J. W. Fortescue, "History of the British Army," vol. ii, 1899; biographies of Frederick the Great by W. F. Reddaway, 1904, and H. W. V. Temperley, 1915.

Severus, L. Septimius, Roman Emperor 193–211, is famous in British history for his expedition to Britain in 208, and for his campaigns in Caledonia, which resulted in the temporary subjugation of the country as far north as the Moray Firth. He repaired and rebuilt the great wall of Hadrian between the Solway Firth and the Tyne. He died at York early in 211.

Seville, The Treaty of (November 9, 1729), settled for a while the difficulties which had been raised in Europe by the intrigues of the Spanish minister, Don Ripperda, in opposition to the Quadruple Alliance (q.v.). The question most difficult to arrange was that of the cession of Gibraltar. This possession the ministry were not unwilling to surrender, provided an equivalent was given, but feared opposition from the nation, which was violently agitated on the subject, owing to the publication of a letter of George I in which it had been vaguely promised to Spain. The government therefore sent William Stanhope to Spain, who succeeded in concluding the treaty. He was aided by French mediation. It was a defensive alliance between England, Spain, France, and subsequently Holland. Spain revoked all the privileges granted to Austrian subjects by the treaties of Vienna, re-established British trade in America on its former footing, and restored all captures. The Asiento (q.v.) was confirmed to the South Sea Company, and arrangements were made for securing the succession of Parma and Tuscany to the infant Don Carlos, by substituting Spanish troops for the neutral forces, which since the preliminaries had been occupying those countries. Gibraltar was not mentioned in the treaty, and this silence was regarded as a renunciation of the claims of Spain. "The Treaty of Seville," says Lecky, "has been justly regarded as one of the great triumphs of French diplomacy. It closed the breach which had long divided the courts of France and of Spain, and, at the same time, it detached both England and Spain from the Emperor, and left him isolated in Europe. He resented it bitterly, protesting against the introduction of Spanish troops into Italy as a violation of the Quadruple Alliance, threatened to resist it by force, and delayed the execution of this part of the treaty during the whole of 1730."

Sexburh (672), is said by the "Anglo-Saxon Chronicle" to have succeeded on the death of her husband Cenwealh, and reigned for a year as Queen of Wessex. If this statement is to be accepted literally, we have here the sole instance of a woman obtaining the crown in Anglo-Saxon times. It is, however, likely that she ruled as regent for an infant son whose name has perished.

Seychelles, The, a group of 92 islands and islets (Mahé the chief) in the Indian Ocean, first visited in 1609 by an English ship, were formerly in the possession of the Portuguese and French. On the acquisition of Mauritius by the British in 1810 the Seychelles were made a dependency of that colony, together with the island of Rodriguez. They were ceded to Great Britain by the Treaty of Paris in 1814. The office of administrator was created in 1888, and in 1903 the administrator was raised to the rank of governor.

C. Anastas, "Histoire et Description des Iles Séchelles," 1897.

Seymour, Lady Catherine, Countess of Hertford (1538?–1568), was the second daughter of Henry Grey, Duke of Suffolk (q.v.), and younger sister of Lady Jane Grey (q.v.), after whose death she represented the house of Suffolk, which by Henry VIII's will was to succeed Elizabeth to the throne. After the accession of Elizabeth, Philip of Spain endeavoured to set her claims in opposition to the queen, but was unable to get her into his hands. In 1561 she was sent to the Tower ostensibly for having contracted a secret marriage with Lord Hertford, but in reality for fear she should prove a dangerous rival to Elizabeth. In 1563 Lady Catherine's claims were seriously discussed in parliament, and in the next year John Hales, the clerk of the Hanaper, published an elaborate argument in her favour. She died in January 1568, her death being accelerated by the harsh treatment of Elizabeth, and by her having been the object of the political schemes of all parties in turn who hoped to make use of her. Lady Hertford's marriage, which was declared null by Elizabeth's commissioners, was pronounced valid by a jury in the reign of James I.

Seymour, Charles, 6th Duke of Somerset (1662–1748), succeeded to the titles of his brother Francis in 1678. As gentleman of the bed-chamber to James II he refused to introduce the papal nuncio d'Adda at Windsor, and was in consequence dismissed from his office. In 1688 he joined the Prince of Orange, was appointed president of the council, and on the departure of William to Ireland was one of the lords justices who administered the kingdom. On the accession of Queen Anne he was created master of the horse. He was one of the commissioners for treating of the Union with Scotland (1707). Through the influence of his wife he became a favourite with Anne. After being connected with Harley and the Tories for some years (1708–11), he began to intrigue with the Whigs (1711), and was in consequence dismissed from his office in the following year. As Queen Anne lay on her death-bed he repaired to the council, and, in conjunction with Argyll, proposed that the lord treasurer's staff should be entrusted to Shrewsbury. Thus, by taking power out of Bolingbroke's hand, he did a great service to the house of Hanover. Before George I arrived in England Somerset acted as

one of the guardians of the realm. He again became master of the horse, but resigned in the following year, and took no important part in politics subsequently.

Seymour, Edward, Duke of Somerset and 1st Earl of Hertford (1506?–1552), Lord Protector of England, rose into importance with the marriage of his sister, Jane Seymour, to Henry VIII, in 1536. Henceforward he became one of the leaders of the reformed party at the court, and was constantly employed in military and administrative services, in which he displayed considerable capacity. He was created Earl of Hertford (1537). In 1544 he was sent into Scotland at the head of 10,000 men, and captured and sacked Edinburgh and Leith (May 1544). Immediately afterwards he and the greater part of his army were transported to Calais to prosecute the war against France, and met with some successes near Boulogne. In the closing year of Henry's reign Hertford was actively employed in counteracting the intrigues of the Howards, and succeeded so well that Surrey, his great rival, was put to death, and Norfolk narrowly escaped with his life. By Henry VIII's will Hertford was appointed one of the council of sixteen executors. But the will was immediately set aside, and Hertford (now created Duke of Somerset) was appointed president of the council and Protector of the kingdom. A fleet and army having been collected to assist the Protestants in Scotland, and force on the marriage between Edward VI and the young Queen Mary, Somerset at the head of a great army invaded Scotland, and won the battle of Pinkie (September 10, 1547), with the result, however, of completely alienating the Scots, and hastening the marriage contract between Mary and the Dauphin of France. In France the Protector was obliged to reopen the war, and his forces were worsted in several actions near Boulogne. In home affairs it was the aim of Somerset and his followers in the council to push on the Reformation as speedily as possible. A complete English service book was drawn up [Prayer Book], and the first Act of Uniformity was passed (1549). At the same time an attempt was made to reverse the arbitrary government of Henry VIII's reign. But Somerset's own conduct was in some respects more arbitrary than that of the late king. In 1549 the Protector's brother, Lord Seymour of Sudeley, was engaged in designs for overturning Somerset's government and getting the guardianship of the king and kingdom himself. A Bill of Attainder was brought against him, and he was condemned of treason and executed without being allowed the opportunity of speaking in his own defence (1549). Somerset also made some attempts to relieve the social distresses of the kingdom, and issued a commission to inquire into them. The result, however, was only that of increasing popular excitement, and of rousing the enmity of the whole body of the new nobility who had profited by the recent changes. In 1549 a rebellion of an agrarian character broke out in Norfolk, while another in Devonshire was caused by the advance of the Reformation. Somerset displayed no vigour in suppressing the insurrections, while his rivals in the council acted with energy. John Dudley, Earl of Warwick, his principal opponent, put down the Norfolk rising with much severity, and at once gained great influence in the council. Somerset attempted to bring matters to a crisis, by declaring the council treasonable; but he was compelled to submit to the majority, and to resign the protectorship (1549). He was sent to the Tower, but released in February 1550. In the following year he was gradually regaining influence, with the failure of the council's administration. Northumberland (Warwick), afraid of his designs, had him seized and tried for treason and felony. He was found guilty on the latter indictment and executed (January 22, 1552). A man of patriotic feeling, and much ability, Somerset's failure was chiefly due to want of judgment and foresight.

A. F. Pollard, "England Under Protector Somerset," 1900. [S. L.]

Seymour, Edward, Earl of Hertford (1539–1621), was the eldest surviving son of Edward, Duke of Somerset, Protector of England. On the accession of Elizabeth the earldom was revived in his favour (1559). Shortly afterwards (1561) he was imprisoned in the Tower and fined £15,000 for having secretly married Lady Catherine Grey, who was regarded by Elizabeth as a possible dangerous rival. Archbishop Parker declared their union illegal, and the issue illegitimate. Hertford underwent a long imprisonment, and continued in obscurity during Elizabeth's reign. He afterwards married again, and lived to extreme old age.

Seymour, Sir Edward (1633–1708), a descendant in the elder line of Lord Protector Somerset, was a strong Tory. He was made Speaker of the House of Commons in 1673, and subsequently created privy councillor and treasurer of the navy. He opposed the Exclusion Bill (q.v.), but soon after the accession of James II spoke against the abrogation of the charters of towns, and also against the maintenance of a standing army. He joined the Prince of Orange, and was left in command at Exeter. In the Convention he would have been chosen Speaker had he not voted for a regency. However, he took the oath of allegiance, and in 1692 he was placed on the treasury commission, when he soon quarrelled with his colleagues on questions of precedence, and in 1694 was dismissed from office. In 1697, exasperated at not being appointed Speaker, he made a violent speech on the election of Littleton, and went beyond the bounds of moderation in his persecution of an officer named Kirke, who had slain his eldest son in a duel. In Queen Anne's reign he was made comptroller of the palace.

He was dismissed from office in 1704 for his opposition to the war with France.

Seymour, Lady Jane (1509 ?–1537), was the third wife of Henry VIII, and mother of Edward VI. She had been maid-of-honour to Anne Boleyn, whom she supplanted in 1536. She was betrothed to the king by special dispensation on May 20, the day following Anne's execution, and married ten days later. Her son, Edward VI, was born on October 12, 1537. She died twelve days later.

Seymour, Thomas, Baron Seymour of Sudeley (1508 ?–1549), brother of Protector Somerset, was a man of great ambition, unprincipled in the attainment of his ends. Made a peer and lord high admiral of England by his brother, he shortly afterwards married Catherine Parr, the queen-dowager, and utilized his improved position to set the young king Edward VI against his brother, of whose power he was envious. He sought allies even among the debasers of the coinage and the pirates in the Channel. He formed a plot to carry off Edward, and to drive his brother from the protectorship, but his plan was betrayed and Seymour was bribed to remain quiet. On the death of Catherine (September 1548) the admiral endeavoured without success to obtain the hand of the Princess Elizabeth, and formed fresh plans of violence against his brother. At the end of 1548 Seymour's proceedings became so threatening that he was arrested and sent to the Tower, attainted of high treason, and executed, March 20, 1549. "He was," said Hallam, "a dangerous and unprincipled man; he had courted the favour of the young king by small presents of money, and appears beyond question to have entertained a hope of marrying the Princess Elizabeth, who had lived much in his house during his short union with the queen-dowager. It was surmised that this lady had been poisoned to make room for a still nobler consort." Latimer said of him that "the admiral was a man furthest from the fear of God that ever he knew or heard of in England."

Biography by Sir John Maclean, 1869 (privately printed).

Shaftesbury, Earls of. [Cooper.]

Shah Shuja (1780 ?–1842), was the brother of Zemaun Shah, King of Afghanistan, whom he succeeded in 1803. In 1808 Mountstuart Elphinstone was sent by Lord Minto to negotiate a treaty of defence with Shah Shuja. During the negotiations an expedition which he had sent to recover Kashmir was defeated, and his brother Mahmud took advantage of this to seize Kabul and Kandahar, and threaten Peshawar, Shah Shuja's capital. Shah Shuja thereupon solicited help from the British. In 1810, however, he was totally defeated by his rival, and fled across the Indus. After remaining some time in captivity in Kashmir he sought refuge with Ranjit Singh (q.v.), who subjected him to cruelties in order to obtain the Koh-i-noor from him. He succeeded at length in escaping in disguise to Ludhiana, where the British government allowed him a pension of 50,000 rupees a year. In 1833 he was encouraged by the treachery of Dost Mohammed's brothers to make an effort to recover his throne. He in vain asked help of the British. He therefore concluded a treaty with Ranjit Singh, guaranteeing him all his conquests beyond the Indus on condition of his support. He marched successfully through Sind to Kandahar, where he was attacked and utterly beaten by Dost Mohammed. In July 1834 he fled to Baluchistan, and in March 1835 he returned to Ludhiana. In 1838, on the failure of the mission to Kabul, a triple alliance was concluded between the British, Ranjit, and Shah Shuja, for the deposition of Dost Mohammed, and the re-establishment of the Shah, on the condition that the possessions of Ranjit across the Indus were guaranteed. The Shah, however, had no desire to be carried into Kabul by British bayonets. All he wanted was British gold. Therefore he did not contemplate the Afghan expedition. On April 25, 1839, he entered Kabul unopposed. In 1840 he established the order of the Durani empire to decorate his British supporters. During his residence at Kabul he insisted that the Bala Hissar, the citadel, in which he had placed his zenana, should not be profaned by British troops, and thus it was left defenceless. He was thoroughly unpopular, owing to the cessions to Ranjit Singh, and was merely supported by British bayonets. In 1842 the last survivor of the British garrison at Kabul reached Jalalabad. Shah Shuja still remained ostensibly head of the Afghan government, continuing to occupy the Bala Hissar. He endeavoured to keep friendly both with the British by professing unaltered attachment, and with the chiefs by professing devotion to the national cause. The latter distrusted him, and desired him to prove his sincerity by leading the army destined to expel General Sale from Jalalabad. On April 5, 1842, after an oath of safe-conduct from Zemaun Khan, he descended from the citadel decked out in all the insignia of royalty, and was shot dead by a body of matchlock men whom Zemaun Khan's son had placed in ambush without his father's knowledge.

Sir J. Kaye, "Afghan War," 4th edn., 1890.

Shannon, Earls of. [Boyle.]

Sharington, Sir William (1495 ?–1553), was master of the mint at Bristol, and one of the party of Thomas, Lord Seymour of Sudeley (q.v.), for whose service he coined £10,000 of base money. He was arrested in February 1549, and attainted at the same time as Seymour (March), though he subsequently (December) obtained a pardon.

Sharp, Jack (*d.* 1431), was the assumed name of a Lollard leader who, in 1431, organized in the southern Midlands a movement which had for its ostensible object the disendowment

of the Church. He was captured and put to death either at Oxford or at Abingdon.

Sharp, James (1613–79), Archbishop of St. Andrews, was the agent of the Resolutioners (q.v.) to Cromwell in 1657, and was one of the leading Presbyterian ministers in Scotland. He was in favour of the restoration of Charles II, who appointed him in 1660 one of the royal chaplains. In 1661 he was sent to London by the Presbyterians to beg for the establishment of Presbyterianism in Scotland, but he was bribed to betray his cause, and returned to Scotland as Archbishop of St. Andrews, with the full determination to do everything in his power to further Episcopacy. He was one of the chief persecutors of the Covenanters, and in 1668 he was shot at by one James Mitchell, but escaped without injury. His oppressions and cruelties were so great that in May 1679 he was murdered by a band of Covenanters under David Hackston of Rathillet on Magus Muir, near St. Andrews.

Biography by T. Stephen, 1839.

Sharpe, Samuel, was one of the leaders and chief instigators of the slaves in the Jamaican rebellion of 1831–2. It was owing to his ability that the rebels were enabled to gain the few temporary successes they did. He was executed at the close of the insurrection.

Shaw, Ralph (called by some chroniclers John), Dr., was brother to Sir Edmund Shaw, lord Mayor of London in 1482. He had a high repute for learning and sagacity, and was employed by Richard, Duke of Gloucester, to preach a sermon at Paul's Cross, to advocate the latter's claim to the crown. Accordingly, on June 22, 1483, he preached, from the fourth chapter of the Book of Wisdom, a discourse in which he impugned the validity of Edward IV's marriage with Elizabeth Woodville, on the ground of a pre-contract with Lady Elizabeth Butler, daughter of the Earl of Shrewsbury. From this he adduced the inference that Edward V and his brother were illegitimate, and therefore, as Clarence's family were attainted and incapable of succeeding, Richard was the rightful sovereign.

Shaxton, Nicholas (1485?–1556), Bishop of Salisbury from 1535 to 1539, was for some time associated with Latimer, Bishop of Worcester, in a determined opposition to the statute of the Six Articles (q.v.). On his resignation of his see rather than subscribe to the articles, Shaxton was thrown into prison as an obstinate sacramentarian heretic. He subsequently, however, found it advisable to conform to the new opinions, and signalized his conversion by preaching at the burning of several more determined heretics than he had proved to be, his most notable appearance in this way being at the burning of Anne Askew (q.v.), along with whom he had been arraigned for heresy. He put away his wife, returned to celibacy, and apparently was sincere in his recantation. He accepted a pension from the Crown, and died in 1556.

Sheffield, Edmund, 1st Lord (*d.* 1549), was second in command to the Marquis of Northampton when he was engaged in suppressing the Norfolk rebellion of 1549: he was killed by the insurgents whilst attempting to hold Norwich against them. He was created a peer by Edward VI (1547).

Sheffield, Edmund, 1st Earl of Mulgrave (1564?–1646), one of the commanders of the English fleet which defeated the Spanish Armada, was knighted for his services, and subsequently became governor of Brill in the Low Countries. He was created Earl of Mulgrave by Charles I in 1626.

Sheffield, John, Duke of Buckinghamshire (1648–1721), was the son of Edmund, 2nd Earl of Mulgrave. On his father's death (1658) he became Earl of Mulgrave. In 1666 he served against the Dutch and returned home to take command of a troop of horse. Again, in 1672, he was appointed captain of a ship of 84 guns, and as soon as he came back from sea was made colonel of a regiment of foot. Subsequently he passed over to France to learn the art of war under Turenne. On his return Mulgrave engaged in a professional quarrel with the Duke of Monmouth, and bitterly offended the royal family by entertaining hopes of the hand of Princess, afterwards Queen, Anne. In 1680 he was sent to destroy Moorish pirates who were attacking Tangier. On the accession of James II he was made a privy councillor and lord chamberlain. After the Revolution Mulgrave readily took the oath of allegiance to William and Mary. William created him Marquis of Normanby, and named him a cabinet councillor. In 1703 he was created Duke of Normanby, and soon afterwards Duke of Buckinghamshire, and in this year built Buckingham House. He was compelled to resign office for caballing with Nottingham and Rochester against Godolphin and Marlborough. Forthwith he became a violent member of the opposition, and was struck off the list of the privy council (1707). In 1710, however, when the Tories were restored to power, he was made steward of the household, and lord president on the death of Rochester. He entered eagerly into the plots for the restoration of the Stuarts, and is said by Swift to have been the only man he knew who was sincere in his intentions. The death of Anne destroyed his hopes. The remainder of his life was spent in political disgrace. Buckingham wrote some poems, the best known of which are the "Essay on Satire" and the "Essay on Poetry."

Sheffield was the seat of a castle which was built probably by the family of de Lovelot during the twelfth century, and which passed from the Furnivals and Talbots into the possession of the Earl of Arundel at the beginning of the seventeenth century. The castle was burnt by John d'Eyville during the Barons'

War (1266). It served as the prison of Mary, Queen of Scots, from November 1570 to September 1584. It was occupied for the Parliament at the beginning of the Civil War, but abandoned in May 1643, and held for the king by Sir William Saville. In August 1644 it was captured by Major-General Crawford, and in 1646 demolished by order of Parliament. The town was famous for its cutlery as early as the fifteenth century, and its Cutlers' Company was incorporated by act of parliament in 1624. In 1685 its population was estimated to be about 4,000, in 1760 it had increased to something between 20,000 and 30,000, and in 1921 to 490,639. By the Reform Bill of 1832 it was enfranchised, while in 1843 it became a municipal borough. It was the scene of some serious trade-union outrages in 1867. [Sheffield Outrages.] In 1893 it was raised to the dignity of a city.

J. Hunter, "Hallamshire," 1869; "Victoria County History: Yorkshire."

Sheffield Outrages. In 1867 a commission was appointed to inquire into the trade-union outrages, and the organization and rules of these societies. Sheffield had long been conspicuous as a centre of trade-union tyranny of the worst kind. When a workman had made himself obnoxious to the leaders of a local trade union, some sudden misfortune was sure to befall him. His house was set on fire; gunpowder was exploded under his windows; an infernal machine was flung into his bedroom at night. The man himself, supposing him to have escaped with his life, felt convinced that in the attempt to destroy him he saw the hand of the union; his neighbours were of his opinion; but lack of evidence, and fear of the consequences, made it impossible to punish or even find out the offenders. The secretaries of the trade unions indignantly denied all these statements, alleged the beneficial nature of their societies, and demanded an inquiry into their rules and organization. Ultimately the demand was granted. Three examiners were sent down, with Mr. Overend, Q.C., at their head. A searching inquiry, and the offer of a free pardon to anyone, even the actual offenders, who would reveal any particulars of the crimes, elicited full evidence that most of these outrages were perpetuated at the command of some union, of the unions that of the saw-grinders deserving the most infamous notoriety. It was remarkable that the secretary of this union, William Broadhead (1815–79), had most indignantly protested the innocence of his union, while it was proved by the evidence of James Hallam that the murder of James Linley, an obnoxious employer of apprentices (1859), had been done by Broadhead's especial instructions. The crimes were in most cases regularly ordered by the unions and committed by their paid agents; but only twelve small unions were implicated out of some sixty existing in Sheffield, and one at Manchester (the Brickmakers') had acted similarly. Broadhead at last came before the examiners himself, and explained the whole system of villainy of which he had been the mainspring.

Gatty, "Sheffield Past and Present," 1873.

Shelburne, William Petty, Lord (1737–1805). [Petty.]

Sheldon, Gilbert (1598–1677), was a native of Staffordshire, and became warden of All Souls College, Oxford, in 1626. He was one of the royal commissioners at the Treaty of Uxbridge (q.v.—1644), and in 1647 was deprived of his wardenship. On the Restoration he was made Bishop of London, and on the death of Juxon in 1663 was advanced to the archbishopric of Canterbury. He was a strong High Churchman, and rigorous in carrying out the Act of Uniformity, a patron of learning, and the builder of the Sheldonian Theatre of the University of Oxford.

Biography by Vernon Staley, 1913.

Sherbrooke, Robert Lowe, Viscount (1811–1892). [Lowe.]

Shere Ali Khan (1825–79), was the son of Dost Mohammed, Amir of Afghanistan. On Dost Mohammed's death (1863) a series of struggles ensued for the succession between Shere Ali and his brothers, Afzul and Azim. In one of these Shere Ali was deposed, and Afzul Khan became ruler. He did not live long afterwards, and his son, Abdul Rahman, waived his claim in favour of his uncle, Azim Khan, who had been for some time a fugitive in British territory. Ultimately, however, Shere Ali regained his throne, and the opposing faction was overcome. In 1870 Shere Ali visited India, and met the viceroy, Lord Mayo, at Umballa, where the latter's generous conduct went a long way to ensure friendly relations with the Amir. In 1876, however, began a series of events which produced the Afghan mission of Sir Lewis Pelly, and gradually led up to the second Afghan War (q.v.).

Shere Singh, one of the most influential chiefs of the Punjab, joined the insurrection of Mulraj (q.v.), September 1848. This was followed by a general insurrection known as the second Sikh War (q.v.). Successful at Ramnagur and Sadulapur, owing to the bad generalship of Lord Gough, Shere Singh was beaten at Chillianwalla (January 1849), but the defeat was a practical victory, so much did it elevate the character of the Sikhs for prowess. The rout at Gujarat, however, destroyed all his hopes, and he surrendered to the British, March 12, 1849. [Sikh Wars.]

Shere Singh (*d.* 1843) was the reputed son of Ranjit Singh (q.v.), on whose death, 1839, followed by that of his son, Khurruk Singh, and grandson, Nao Nihal Singh, in 1840, Shere Singh became regent of the Punjab in conjunction with Chand Kowur, the widow of Khurruk Singh. In 1841 Shere Singh, with the help of the army, attained supreme power. In 1843, during the anarchy which followed, he was assassinated by a discontented chief.

Sheridan, Richard Brinsley (1751–1816), was born in Dublin. His parents having come over to England, the boy was sent to Harrow. After leaving school he spent several years in idleness, till, stimulated by the straits to which a runaway match had reduced him, he applied himself vigorously to the composition of plays. He aspired to politics, and was elected member for Stafford. His first attempt in the House was a failure, but on the subject of the employment of the military in civil disturbances Sheridan gave some signs of his great oratorical powers. His abilities were so far recognized by the Whig party that on North's fall he was appointed under-secretary for foreign affairs in Rockingham's ministry (1782), and was subsequently secretary to the treasury in the coalition. On Pitt coming into power Sheridan went into opposition, and very soon rose to the first eminence as a debater and speaker. But the occasion of his greatest oratorical triumph took place on February 7, 1787, when he presented his charge " relative to the Begum Princesses of Oudh " against Warren Hastings. Even Pitt allowed his speech to have " surpassed all the eloquence of ancient and modern times." In the rupture which occurred between Fox and Burke on the subject of the French Revolution, Sheridan adhered to his earlier friend, Fox, and himself incurred the hostility of Burke. In 1794, as conductor of the impeachment of Hastings, he made his reply on the Begum charge, and again astonished his hearers by a display of brilliant eloquence, sustained before the Lords through four whole days. When Fox retired from parliamentary life Sheridan still maintained his post in the opposition, and spoke with vigour and power in the debates on the Irish rebellion and the Union. In 1804 he was appointed by his boon companion, the Prince Regent, to be receiver of the duchy of Cornwall. When on Pitt's death Fox and Lord Grenville formed a government, Sheridan was rewarded for his long fidelity to his party by the treasurership of the navy, a lucrative but subordinate post. On Fox's death Sheridan succeeded him in the representation of Westminster, but was next year driven to a less conspicuous constituency. On the passing of the Regency Bill he was admitted to extraordinary intimacy and confidence by the regent, and his own party seem to have been not without suspicions as to his integrity. In the next year he unfortunately confirmed their fears by acting in an indefensible manner towards the chiefs of that party when negotiations were proceeding with them after the death of Perceval. An expensive election in 1812 brought his affairs into hopeless confusion. The last four years of his life were spent in miserable attempts to evade the pursuits of his creditors. He died on July 7, 1816. The charge of being a mere political adventurer which has been brought against Sheridan is sufficiently refuted by the consistent fidelity which he displayed towards his party, more than once from a mere sense of honour towards it refusing to accept a place under others.

Moore, " Life of Sheridan," 1833 ; Sheridan, " Speeches," 1816 ; Michael Sadler, " Political Career of Sheridan," 1912.

Sheriff. This officer, the *scir-gerefa*, or shire-reeve, appears before the Conquest as nominated by the Crown. He acted as the king's steward, collecting and administering the royal dues in his shire, and presiding over the shiremoot, or assembly of freeholders, which met twice a year to transact fiscal and judicial business. By the Normans the sheriff was identified with the viscount (*vicecomes*), and the shire was called a county. In order to counteract feudal tendencies, the Norman kings increased the power of the sheriffs, sometimes giving the sheriffdom of several counties to one man, or granting the office as an inheritance. After the Conquest the sheriff was the representative of the Crown in judicial, fiscal, and military affairs. Besides presiding in the county court, he, or his substitute, held a court in each hundred twice a year for view of frankpledge, called the sheriff's tourn. He collected the king's dues from his shire, and once each year accounted at the exchequer for the *ferm* or rent at which he farmed the ancient demesne and profits of the county from the Crown, and for the sums arising from feudal rights, jurisdiction, the sale of offices, and other casual revenue. In his military capacity he led the *posse comitatus*, and the lesser tenants of the Crown. In the twelfth century the vast power exercised by men holding the sheriffdom of several counties was injurious to the interests both of the Crown and of the people, and when, as was sometimes the case, the king's justices were themselves made sheriffs, they had ample opportunities for fraud. The administrative vigour of Henry II was displayed by the Inquest of Sheriffs (q.v.), a strict scrutiny into the conduct of these officers, made by his orders in 1170. After this inquest all the sheriffs were removed from office. By the thirteenth century the hereditary sheriffdoms had disappeared, except in the case of Westmorland, Worcester, and at a later date Rutland, and the office of sheriff was held over one or two counties by local magnates. The descendants of Robert de Vieuxpont, created by John hereditary sheriff of Westmorland, continued to hold the office until the death of the Earl of Thanet without issue in 1849, when hereditary sheriffdoms were abolished by statute, 13 & 14 Vict. c. 30. By a charter of Henry I the citizens of London obtained the privilege of electing their own sheriff, and other boroughs gained by fine or charter the right to collect their own *ferm* without the sheriff's interference.

The importance of the sheriff's office was curtailed during the administration of Hubert Walter, for in 1194 sheriffs were forbidden to act as justices in their own shires, and the office of coroners to hold pleas of the Crown was instituted. A further step in the same direction was taken by art. 24 of Magna Carta, which

forbade sheriffs to hold pleas of the Crown. On the fiscal side the sheriff's duties underwent considerable modification in the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries. He gradually became a tax-collector of the casual revenue of the Crown rather than a land-agent in charge of the ancient demesne. By the provisions made at Oxford in 1258 sheriffdoms were to be held for one year only. An attempt was made the next year to gain a share in the election of these officers for the suitors of the county court. This privilege was granted by Edward in 1300, where the office was not of fee or hereditary, but was withdrawn in the next reign. The limitation of the tenure of office to one year, enforced by statutes of Edward III and Richard II, made the right of appointment a matter of small consequence. The nomination in later times was made in the Exchequer on the morrow of All Souls' Day, changed by 24 Geo. II, c. 48, to the morrow of St. Martin's. Complaints having been made of the high rent at which the sheriffs let the hundreds, they were ordered by 4 Ed. III, c. 15, to adhere to the ancient *ferms*, and their power in this respect was abolished by 23 Hen. VI, c. 9. The remains of their criminal jurisdiction were swept away by 1 Ed. IV, c. 15. Their military functions were taken away by the institution of lords-lieutenant in the reign of Mary, and some acts of extortion were met by 29 Eliz. c. 4, limiting the amount they might take on levying an execution. A person assigned for sheriff must, by 13 & 14 Car. II, c. 21, have sufficient lands within the county to answer to the king and the people. In his judicial capacity the sheriff still holds a county court for the election of members of parliament, and for a few other purposes. As keeper of the king's peace he is the first man in the county, and takes precedence of any nobleman, and in his ministerial capacity he is charged with the execution of all civil and criminal processes and sentences. Nearly all the duties of his office, however, are fulfilled by an under-sheriff, an officer whom he is compelled by 3 & 4 Will. IV, c. 99, to appoint. The inferior officers of the county, such as jailers, are reckoned as his servants, and until 40 & 41 Vict. c. 21, he was to some extent liable for the escape of a prisoner.

The office of sheriff existed in Scotland as early as the reign of David I, and is mentioned in the laws of that king. It appears to have been an office of inheritance until 20 Geo. II, c. 43, and has long been purely nominal, the title being generally borne by the lord-lieutenant. The sheriff depute, on the other hand, holds an office of great importance. He is appointed by the Crown for life or good behaviour (*ad vitam aut ad culpam*), and is the chief judge of the county. His jurisdiction extends to all personal actions on contract and obligation, to actions relating to heritable rights up to £1,000 value, to all matters not belonging to any other court, and to suits about small debts. He has also a criminal jurisdiction, and hears serious cases under the direction of a Crown council. The last capital sentence passed by a sheriff was at Glasgow in 1788. By 40 & 41 Vict. c. 50, the appointment of the sheriff substitute was taken from the depute, and vested in the Crown.

W. A. Morris, "The Mediæval English Sheriff," 1927; Surrey Record Society, "The Pipe Roll of 1295, Surrey Membrane"; W. S. Holdsworth, "History of English Law." [W. H.]

Sheriffs, The Inquest of (1170). On Henry II's return from France in this year he was met with loud complaints of the exactions of the sheriffs. This afforded him a good opportunity for curtailing the power of these functionaries, and he proceeded to issue a commission to inquire into the truth of the grievances, the accused sheriffs being meanwhile suspended from their offices. The commissioners were to inquire whether the sheriffs had administered justice fairly, whether they had taken bribes, whether the Assize of Clarendon (q.v.) had been properly carried out, and whether the aids and other taxes had been equitably levied. They were also to inquire into the condition of the Crown lands, and to make a list of those persons who had not as yet done homage to the king and his son. The result of the inquiry was the acquittal of the sheriffs, but they were not restored to their offices, and their places were filled by officers of the Exchequer.

Stubbs, "Select Charters," ed. H. W. C. Davis, 1913.

Sheriffmuir, The Battle of (November 13, 1715), was fought between the royalist army commanded by the Duke of Argyll, and the clans which had risen in favour of the Pretender under Mar. The former included about 3,500 regulars, the latter 10,000 Highlanders. The Macdonalds, who formed the centre of the Jacobite army, defeated the left wing of their enemies and drove them to Stirling; while Argyll and the dragoons had simultaneously defeated the left wing of Mar's army. But unable to withstand a rear attack from the Highland right and centre, he also contrived a dexterous retreat to Stirling. The victory of the Highlanders was, however, in no respect decisive. Sheriffmuir is in Perthshire, on the north slope of the Ochils, two miles from Dunblane.

Sherston, The Battle of (1016), fought between Edmund Ironside and Canute, after two days' hard fighting, resulted in a draw. The Danes, however, fell back on London, and Edmund was able a few days later to break their lines and enter the city. Sherston is five and a half miles west of Malmesbury.

Sherwin, Ralph (1550–81), a Catholic priest, was indicted before Sir Christopher Wray at the same time as Edmund Campion (q.v.) and Alexander Brian for compassing and imagining the queen's death. He was executed in their company at Tyburn on December 1, 1581.

Shetland. [Orkney and Shetland.]

Ship-money. Before the Conquest the navy was furnished by the levy of ships on

the counties in proportion to the number of hundreds contained in each shire. Under the Plantagenets the port towns and the coast counties were called on to furnish ships and men. To this was added the royal navy, a mercenary force paid by the king, which was the beginning of the permanent navy. As late as 1626 the fleet collected for the expedition to Cadiz was got together by contingents from the sea-ports. In 1634 the position of foreign affairs suggested to Charles I the necessity of raising a fleet in order to maintain the sovereignty of the seas, assert the ownership of the North Sea fisheries, prevent the French from capturing Dunkirk, and secure the co-operation of Spain for the restoration of the Palatinate. Noy (q.v.), the attorney-general, suggested that money for the equipment of ships should be levied from the coast towns. The first writ was issued in October 1634, and, after some remonstrance from the lord mayor of London, generally submitted to. Next year a second writ was issued (August 4), by which the inland towns and counties were also required to contribute. There was considerable opposition, and Charles obtained from ten of the judges a general opinion that the levy of ship-money from all was lawful (December 1635). A third writ was issued in October 1636, and called forth still stronger opposition, which even a second opinion from the judges in the king's favour (February 1637) could not still. A fourth writ was issued in the autumn of 1637, but none in 1638, and in January 1639 the sum demanded in the fifth writ was only about a third of the amount asked in previous years, but in the next year the government, for the second Scottish war, returned to the full amount of the earlier assessment, i.e., about £200,000. It was by the second of these writs that a ship of 450 tons, manned and equipped for six months, or the sum of £4,500, was demanded from Buckinghamshire. Hampden's trial took place with respect to the twenty shillings due from lands in the parish of Stoke Mandeville. The argument on the point of law began in November 1637, and judgment was finally given in June 1638. [HAMPDEN.] Ship-money was vigorously attacked in the Short Parliament by Pym and Glanville ; and Charles, by the advice of Strafford, was willing to allow the judgment to be carried before the House of Lords upon a writ of error, and there reversed. But the question of the abolition of the illegal military charges, and other things, prevented an agreement. When the Long Parliament met, the House of Commons on December 7, 1640, the House of Lords on January 20, 1641, agreed to resolutions pronouncing the levy of ship-money illegal. A bill declaring this was brought in by Selden on June 8, 1641, and received the king's assent on August 7. [C. H. F.]

Shippen, WILLIAM (1673–1743), who first sat in parliament in 1707, was distinguished throughout his life for his uncompromising Jacobitism. In 1715 he attacked Lord Townshend's ministry on the ground that the government was conducted by means of a standing army. In 1718 he was sent to the Tower for remarking that the only infelicity in [illegible] majesty's (George I) reign was that he was ignorant of our language and constitution. He vigorously opposed Walpole's measures for the restoration of public credit in 1720 [SOUTH SEA COMPANY] on the ground that they were too lenient. During these years he had led a small body of about fifty Jacobites, who together with the High Tories and discontented Whigs formed the opposition to Walpole's ministry. During the wild intrigues of 1740 he was not consulted by the Jacobite emissary, Lord Barrymore, as he was generally considered a weak conspirator. In 1741, when the motion for the dismissal of Walpole was brought forward, he left the House, with thirty-four of his friends, saying that he did not care what minister was in and what out. He indirectly aided Walpole by proposing that his majesty might be entreated not to involve the country in war for the sake of his foreign dominions. On the fall of Walpole Shippen continued in opposition. He has been well called " downright " Shippen. He always had a personal regard for Walpole, and was accustomed to say " Robin and I are two honest men."

Shirley *v.* **Fagg,** THE CASE OF (1675–7), was an appeal to the Lords from the Court of Chancery, the legality of which the Commons denied, resisting it principally because one of the parties in this particular case, Sir John Fagg, was a member of their House. A quarrel ensued between the two Houses, which was only terminated by their prorogation from June 9, 1675, to February 1677. The Commons contended that (1) members were exempt from legal process during the session of parliament, (2) the Lords had no appellate jurisdiction in Equity cases. The case was not proceeded with by Dr. Thomas Shirley, but the appellate jurisdiction of the Lords in Equity cases was never again denied.

C. Grant Robertson, " Select Statutes, Cases and Documents," 4th edn., 1923.

Shore, JANE (*d.* c. 1527), is said to have been the wife of a London goldsmith, and to have become one of Edward IV's mistresses, about 1470. After the king's death she lived with Lord Hastings, and in 1483 was accused by Richard, Duke of Gloucester, of conspiring to injure him by sorcery, but the real reason of his attack upon her seems to have been that she was used as a political agent and go-between by the Hastings and Woodville party. Richard caused her to be brought before the ecclesiastical courts, where she was sentenced to do open penance in the streets of London for her incontinent life. After the death of Hastings she found a new protector in the Marquis of Dorset, but after his banishment she was imprisoned at Ludgate, where her beauty seems to have captivated the king's solicitor, one Thomas

Lynom, who apparently intended marrying her. He seems, however, to have been dissuaded, for Jane ended her life in poverty.

Shore, Sir John, 1st Baron Teignmouth (1751–1834), was a distinguished member of the Indian civil service, and for some time one of the council at Calcutta, in which capacity he originated the idea of the revenue settlement of 1793. He succeeded Lord Cornwallis as governor-general (1792), and was created a baronet. He determined on non-intervention in the affairs of the native princes, and especially of the Mahrattas. The latter prepared for war with the nizam to settle old grievances. Shore, regarding the defection of one ally as productive of the dissolution of the Triple Alliance of 1790, refused to assist the nizam, and allowed him to be crushed by the Mahrattas in the Kurdlah campaign (q.v.). The result of this defection of the British was greatly to increase the power of the Mahrattas, the audacity of Tippoo, and the dependence of the nizam, who now fell entirely into the hands of a French officer (Raymond). The disputed succession at Poona in 1795, and the events which followed, neutralized for some time the power of the Mahrattas, at a time when the Bengal mutiny (q.v.) rendered the British powerless. With regard to Oudh, his conduct was equally injudicious. On the death of Hyder Bey Khan (1795), the government became utterly effete, the vizir merely living for sensual gratification. On his death (1797) Sir John Shore, without due consideration, first installed his reputed son Vizir Ali, and then on more mature consideration and evidence, at the expense of a revolution, deposed him in favour of Saadut Ali, the brother of the last vizir. Sir John was created Lord Teignmouth, and embarked for England in March 1798. He devoted his later years largely to philanthropic work.

J. C. Grant Duff, "Mahrattas," 1921, ed. S. M. Edwards; C. J. Shore, "Life of Lord Teignmouth," 1843.

Shovell, Sir Clowdisley (1650–1707), born of humble parents in Norfolk, gradually raised himself from the position of a cabin boy to be one of the leading seamen of his time. He distinguished himself in Bantry Bay in 1689, and was knighted by William III. In 1690 he conveyed the king and his army to Ireland, and was made a rear-admiral. Shovell was present at the battle of La Hogue. In 1693 he was placed on the admiralty commission. On the accession of Anne, Shovell served under Sir George Rooke in the Mediterranean, and made a futile descent on Valencia. He brought home the treasure from Vigo Bay, and fought at the battle of Malaga, "with a courage closely bordering on rashness (1704)." The Whig party procured his appointment as commander-in-chief of the fleet in place of Rooke. He accompanied Peterborough on his expedition to Spain. In 1707 he co-operated with Prince Eugène and the Duke of Savoy in the siege of Toulon; the attempt was, however, a failure. During his return home Shovell was caught by a storm off the Scilly Islands, and his ship, the *Association*, struck on the Gilstone Rock. His body was washed on shore, rescued from the wreckers who had plundered it, and honoured with a public funeral in Westminster Abbey.

J. H. Cooke, "Shipwreck of Sir Cloudesley Shovell," 1883.

Shrewsbury, The Battle of (July 21, 1403), was fought between Henry IV and the northern insurgents under Henry Percy. Percy's object was to join his forces with those of Glendower and Mortimer, but the king intercepted him about three miles from Shrewsbury. The royal troops were completely victorious, Henry Percy was slain, and his uncle, the Earl of Worcester, taken prisoner.

J. H. Wylie, "England Under Henry IV," 1884.

Shrewsbury, Earls of. [Talbot.]

Shuja-ud-Dowlah (*d.* 1775) succeeded to the viceroyalty of Oudh (1754). He joined Ali Gohur, the Prince Royal of Delhi, in his invasion of Bengal (1758), and besieged Allahabad. The advance of Clive, however, easily drove back the invasion. In 1759 he became vizir to the Great Mogul, while his power and wealth made him practically independent. In 1760 he joined Shah Alam in his invasion of Bengal, but was defeated by the British at Patna. He assisted Mir Kasim (1763) (q.v.) after the massacre at Patna, but was utterly beaten at Buxar by Munro. His dominions were restored to him by Clive, except Corah and Allahabad (1765).

"Sick Man, The," was a term applied by the Tsar Nicholas I of Russia to the Ottoman Empire in a conversation with Sir Hamilton Seymour, the British ambassador (January 1853). "We have on our hands," said the Tsar, "a sick man—a very sick man; it will be a great misfortune if one of these days he should slip away from us before the necessary arrangements have been made." The Tsar's object in the conversation was to ascertain how far Great Britain would be favourable to the project of an Anglo-Russian partition of the Ottoman inheritance. The Ottoman Empire, revivified and reorganized by Sultan Mahmud II (1808–39), had begun to languish under his worthless successors Abdul Aziz and Abdul Mejid. [Crimean War.]

Sir J. A. R. Marriott, "Eastern Question," 1917.

Sidmouth, Henry Addington, Viscount (1757–1844). [Addington.]

Sidney, Algernon (1622–83), son of Robert, 2nd Earl of Leicester, served under his brother in the suppression of the Irish rebellion (1642), afterwards entered the Parliamentary army, and was wounded at Marston Moor. He was given the command of a regiment in the New Model (q.v.), elected M.P. for Cardiff in 1646, and held for a few months the post of lieutenant-general of the horse in Ireland. He opposed the king's trial, but continued to sit in the House of

Commons, and became in 1652 a member of the council of state. During the Protectorate he took no part in public affairs, but on the fall of Richard Cromwell became again a member of the council, and was sent as ambassador to Denmark to mediate between that power and Sweden (1659). The Restoration prevented his return to England, and he remained in exile until 1677. In 1679 and 1680 he twice unsuccessfully attempted to obtain a seat in parliament. His name appears about this time in the accounts of the French ambassador Barillon as the recipient of the sum of 1,000 guineas from him. After Shaftesbury's flight Sidney became one of the council of six which managed the affairs of the Whig party, organized its adherents, and considered the question of armed resistance. In 1683 he was accused of complicity in the Rye House Plot (q.v.), tried by Chief Justice Jeffreys, condemned, and beheaded. The evidence against him was insufficient, and the manuscript of his work on government, in which doctrines inclining to republicanism were laid down, was used to supply the absence of the second witness necessary in cases of high treason. His attainder was reversed in 1689.

Ewald, "Life of Algernon Sydney," 1873; Sidney, "Letters to H. Saville and Discourses concerning Government." [C. H. F.]

Sidney, Sir Henry (1529–86), the son-in-law of John Dudley, Duke of Northumberland, a great favourite of Edward VI, was slightly implicated in the scheme to place Lady Jane Grey on the throne, but was pardoned by Mary. He subsequently became one of Elizabeth's most valued servants, and is described by de Quadra, the Spanish ambassador, as "a high-spirited, noble sort of person, and one of the best men that the queen has about the court." In 1562 he was sent on a special embassy to Mary of Guise, the Scottish regent, and in 1565 was transferred from the presidency of Wales to the post of lord deputy of Ireland, where he discharged his duties with great administrative ability, and, in spite of the enmity of the queen and Lord Sussex, who endeavoured to thwart all his plans, achieved considerable successes against the rebels, defeating Shane O'Neill with great slaughter at Loch Foyle (1566). In 1571 Sidney obtained his recall from a position which had become extremely unpleasant to him, but four years later was prevailed upon to return to Ireland, though he only retained his office a little more than a year.

Biography by E. W. O'F. Lynam, 1913.

Sidney, Henry (1641–1704), afterwards Earl of Romney, was a younger brother of Algernon Sidney (q.v.). In 1680 he went as envoy to Holland, and there succeeded in gaining the friendship of William of Orange. He was recalled in 1681. In 1688 we find him aiding Edward Russell in persuading the Whig leaders to invite William to England. He was one of the seven who signed the invitation to William. In 1690 Henry Sidney, now Viscount Sidney, was appointed one of the justices for the government of Ireland. Shortly afterwards he was appointed secretary of state. In 1692 he was appointed lord-lieutenant of Ireland, but was soon recalled, and became master-general of the ordnance (1693) and Earl of Romney (1694). The grants of Irish land made to him were among those attacked in the Resumption Bill (q.v.).

Sidney, Sir Philip (1554–86), who was "regarded both at home and abroad as the type of what a chivalrous gentleman should be," was the son of Sir Henry Sidney (q.v.), the nephew of the Earl of Leicester, and the son-in-law of Sir Francis Walsingham (q.v.). After passing some years abroad he returned to England in 1575, and at once obtained the favour of Elizabeth, by whom he was in 1577 sent on a special mission to Vienna, to endeavour to form a Protestant league against Spain. In 1579 he penned his "Remonstrance" against the Alençon marriage, and shortly afterwards wrote his "Arcadia," which was not, however, published until four years after his death. In 1585 he proposed to offer himself as a candidate for the throne of Poland, but was forbidden to do so by the queen, who in the same year sent him to the Netherlands as governor of Flushing. Whilst in the Low Countries Sidney distinguished himself as greatly as a soldier as he had previously done as a courtier. He received a wound (September 22, 1586), at the battle of Zutphen (having stripped off some of his armour to lend it to another officer), from which he died (October 17). The story of his refusing a draught of water when fainting on the field of battle, in order that it might be given to a wounded soldier, well illustrates his character.

Biographies by H. R. Fox Bourne, 1862 and 1891; J. A. Symonds, 1886; W. P. Addleshaw, 1909; M. W. Wallace, 1915; Sir Sidney Lee, "Great Englishmen of the 16th Century," 1904.

Sierra Leone. [West Africa, British Dominions in.]

Sigebert, King of East Anglia 631–4, was the cousin of Eorpwald, whom he succeeded. Having been banished by his father, he went to Frankland, where, under the instruction of Bishop Felix, the Burgundian, he "was polished from all barbarianism," and on his return to England encouraged learning by instituting schools in many places. With the help of Felix, whom he established at Dunwich, Sigebert restored Christianity throughout his kingdom. He eventually became a monk in one of the monasteries he had himself founded. Some while after, in order to encourage his soldiers, he was led out to battle against Penda, and was slain (635).

Sigebert, King of Wessex (756–7), succeeded his kinsman Cuthred. He is said to have "evil-intreated his people in every way," and to have "perverted the laws to his own ends," the result being that before he had been king more than one year we read that "Cynewulf

and the West Saxon witan deprived him of his kingdom except Hampshire, and that he held till he slew his faithful follower Cumbra, when they drove him to the Andredes-weald, where a swine-herd stabbed him to avenge Cumbra."

Sigeric, Archbishop of Canterbury 990–4, has justly obtained an evil reputation in our history as having been one of those who advised King Ethelred to adopt the fatal policy of buying off the Danes. This was first done in the year 991. Nothing else that can be considered worthy of record is known of Sigeric.

Sign Manual, The Royal, is the autograph signature of the sovereign. It is attached to (1) a warrant, declaring an appointment to an office or giving authority for affixing the great seal, (2) an order, authorizing the expenditure of money, (3) a commission. The Sign Manual is also used to authorize the signature and ratification of treaties. In 1830, during the fatal illness of George IV, an act was passed to allow the use of a stamp in lieu of the Sign Manual, but the sovereign's consent was made necessary for each use of the stamp.

Sihtric, King of Northumbria (*d.* 926), was the brother of Reginald. About the year 921 Sihtric seems to have been expelled from Dublin (where Godfrith reigned, 918–33) and to have established himself in Northumbria, where he succeeded Reginald as head-king over the English and Danish earls and captains. After the accession of Athelstan, Sihtric went to meet him at Tamworth in February 925, and was married there to the English king's sister. A year later he died. Athelstan now wished to rule directly over Northumbria. Godfrith, Sihtric's son, tried to establish himself on the throne; but after a brief rule he was forced to leave England and his realm was annexed to the crown of England (926).

Sikh Wars. (1) In 1845 the Sikh army, 60,000 strong, with a large and admirably served artillery, crossed the Sutlej, and by December 16 were encamped within a short distance of Ferozepur. On December 12 Sir Hugh Gough, the commander-in-chief, left Ambala with the British and native army, and after a march of 150 miles, acccomplished in six days, reached the front. On the 13th the governor-general published a declaration of war, and confiscated all the Sikh districts south of the Sutlej. The Sikh army (December 17) divided; Lall Singh pushed on to Ferozeshah; Tej Singh remained before Ferozepur. On December 18 Lall Singh took Sir Hugh Gough by surprise at Mudki, but lost the advantage by cowardice and incapacity. This was followed by the terrible two days' struggle at Ferozeshah, at which the two divisions of the Sikh army were beaten in detail, and driven beyond the Sutlej. Towards the end of January 1846, however, Ranjur Singh, attributing the inactivity of the British to fear, crossed the Sutlej, defeated Sir Harry Smith (January 20) at Buddowal, and took up a position at Aliwal, where he received heavy reinforcements. On January 28 he suffered here a complete defeat at the hands of Sir Harry Smith. This was followed by the total rout of the grand Khalsa army at Sobraon (February 10), and that same night the British army entered the Punjab. Negotiations were opened on the 11th; on the 17th Dhuleep Singh himself came and made his submission; on the 20th the British encamped outside Lahore and occupied the citadel. On March 9 a treaty was concluded by which the cis-Sutlej districts and the Jullunder Doab were annexed to the British territory; the province of Kashmir, the highlands of Jammu, and half a crore of rupees, were to be given up for the expenses of the war; the Sikh army was to be limited for the future to 20,000 infantry and 12,000 horse; and all the guns which had been pointed against the British were to be surrendered. (2) The intrigues of the Maharani Jhindnu developed a spirit of sedition at Lahore which her removal to Benares only intensified. Chutter Singh and Shere Singh (q.v.), two influential chiefs of the Punjab, were both strongly disaffected (1848), and only waited for a favourable opportunity. In September 1848 General Whish sat down before Multan [Mulraj] and summoned it in the name of the queen, thus alarming the national feelings of the Sikhs. Shere Singh immediately passed over to the enemy and proclaimed a religious war, and the whole Punjab broke out in revolt. On October 10 Lord Dalhousie proceeded to the front. On the 9th Shere Singh marched up the Chenab, gathering men as he advanced till he had collected an army of 15,000 troops. Chutter Singh opened negotiations with Dost Mohammed, for whose alliance he consented to cede the province of Peshawar. In October the British grand army assembled at Ferozepur under Lord Gough, and on the 16th crossed the Ravee. The English had to act on two lines, against Multan in the south, and the insurrection in the superior delta of the five rivers in the north, and for this they had not enough infantry. The superior position and artillery of Shere Singh enabled him to win the battles of Ramnaga and Sadalapur, in which he was aided by the rashness of Lord Gough. After a considerable delay Lord Gough moved forward again (January 11, 1849) to Dingi; attacked the Sikhs in a very strongly entrenched position at Chilianwalla, and after a long and sanguinary struggle succeeded in compelling them to retreat. The court of directors now determined on a change. Sir Charles Napier was requested to proceed to India to supersede Lord Gough. Before he arrived General Whish had captured Multan and the war had ended at Gujarat. All through January the two armies remained watching each other. On February 6 it was found that the Sikhs had marched round the British camp, and were strongly entrenched at Gujarat. In the battle that ensued the persistent withholding of the troops till the Sikh line was broken by the constant fire of 84 heavy guns caused a total

victory with little loss to the British. The rebellion was over. On March 6 the Sikh chiefs restored all their prisoners; on the 12th Shere Singh and Chutter Singh surrendered, and the khalsa soldiers laid down their arms; and Sir Walter Gilbert completed the matter by chasing the Afghans across the Indus to the very portals of their mountain range. On March 29, 1849, the Punjab was annexed to the British territories.

J. D. Cunningham, "History of the Sikhs," 1849 and 1919; C. H. Payne, "Short History of the Sikhs," 1915; Sir J. H. Gordon, "Sikhs," 1904.

Silistria, The Defence of (March–June 1854). Besieged by the Russians, Silistria was defended by earthworks, and garrisoned by a Turkish force. Fortunately there were present two young British officers, Captain James Armar Butler and Lieutenant Charles Nasmyth, who took the command, and conducted the defence with remarkable skill and ability. Repulse after repulse was inflicted upon immense masses of the besiegers. On June 22, worn out by the gallantry of the garrison and their own unavailing attempts, the Russians raised the siege, and retreated, having lost upwards of 12,000 men in their unsuccessful assaults on the works.

A. W. Kinglake, "Invasion of the Crimea," 1863–87.

Silk Riots, The (1765). In 1764 a commission had been appointed to inquire into the grievances of the silk-weavers. It recommended the common remedy of those days, namely, the exclusion of foreign silks. A bill to that effect was accordingly brought into the Commons, and passed by them without discussion. But in the Lords it was so vigorously opposed by the Duke of Bedford, on the ground that it was wrong in principle, and could only increase the evil which it was meant to lessen, that it was thrown out. The disappointment of the Spitalfields weavers took the form of a riot. They first made their way into the king's presence, and, meeting with a kind reception from him, directed all their wrath against the peers, especially against the Duke of Bedford. A riotous meeting in Palace Yard was dispersed (May 15), only to reassemble in the front of Bedford House (May 17), which was threatened with destruction. The discontent of the weavers, which was encouraged by the masters, was only at length pacified by the promise of the redress of their grievances, and Lord Halifax in the following year fulfilled the promise by adopting the remedy which had been rejected in 1765, and bringing in a bill prohibiting the importation of foreign silks (6 Geo. III, c. 28).

Sir T. Erskine May, "Constitutional History," ed. F. Holland, 1912.

Silures, The, were a British tribe who inhabited an area roughly corresponding to the modern counties of Hereford, Radnor, Brecknock, Monmouth, and Glamorgan. They were probably of Celtic stock, although they may have included a considerable pre-Celtic element. The Silures were amongst the most warlike of the British tribes, and held out against the Romans till subdued by Frontinus shortly before A.D. 78.

Simnel, Lambert (*fl.* 1487–1525), was the son of a baker, and is only famous historically as having been the puppet leader of one of the earlier revolts against Henry VII. In this revolt he figured as Edward Plantagenet, Earl of Warwick, son of the murdered Duke of Clarence, and he is commonly reported to have been trained to play his part by a priest named Richard Simon, perhaps at the instigation of the queen-dowager. Ireland was fixed upon for the scene of the revolt, in consequence of the support of Gerald Fitzgerald, 8th Earl of Kildare, the lord deputy, and the popularity of the house of York there. In England John de la Pole, Earl of Lincoln, the son of Edward IV's eldest sister, Elizabeth, the acknowledged heir of Richard III, was his chief supporter. In Flanders he had a powerful friend in Margaret, Duchess of Burgundy, another sister of Edward IV. Under her auspices the Burgundian court was made the general rendezvous of the conspirators. Henry meanwhile imprisoned the queen-dowager in the nunnery of Bermondsey, and had furnished an unmistakable proof of the baseless nature of the conspiracy by parading the real Earl of Warwick through all the principal streets of London. He inflicted summary punishment on those noblemen whom his spies had detected in correspondence with Simnel's friends, and sent troops to repel any rebel landing. But when after a brief stay in Ireland, where Simnel was crowned at Dublin, the rebels —under the command of the Earl of Lincoln, the Earl of Kildare, and Lord Lovel, accompanied by 2,000 "Almains," under Martin Schwarz (q.v.), a German general—landed at Fouldry in Lancashire, they found no assistance. With the exception of a small company of English, under Sir Thomas Broughton, the rebels marched all the way to York without gaining a single adherent. A determined attack on Newark was resolved upon. Henry decided upon an immediate battle, and with that object took up a position between the enemy's camp and Newark. Thereupon the Earl of Lincoln advanced to a little village called Stoke, where on the following day, June 16, 1487, the battle was fought. Three hours elapsed before victory appeared to incline either way. Finally the rebels were utterly defeated, and nearly all their leaders perished, the slaughter being especially great among the German and Irish mercenaries. Among the few survivors of the carnage were Simnel and Simon. Their lives were spared as a matter of policy. Simon was imprisoned for life, but Simnel was contemptuously taken into the royal service as a scullion. Later he was promoted to be a falconer.

Gladys Temperley, "Henry VII," 1917.

Sind, the country comprising the lower valley and delta of the Indus, was ruled over

by three independent amirs with whom Lord Auckland entered into separate treaties in 1839, which imposed on them a subsidiary force and tribute. They had formerly been dependent on Kabul, but had not paid any tribute since 1800. After their secret hostility to the British during the Afghan expedition of 1839 they were compelled to accede to a subsidiary alliance. During the three subsequent years in which Afghanistan was occupied by our troops, and Sind had become the basis of our operations beyond the Indus, their conduct was marked with good faith if not cordiality. But the amirs were emboldened to hostility by our reverses; and Lord Ellenborough sent Sir Charles Napier (q.v.) to Sind to inquire into the matter (September 1843). Intrigues deceived Napier into provoking war which ended with the annexation of Sind by Ellenborough in 1843. Sir Charles Napier himself remarked of these proceedings, "We have no right to seize Sind, yet we shall do so, and a very advantageous, useful, and humane piece of rascality it will be."

Napier, "Scinde"; "Annual Register"; Thornton, "History of India."

Sindhia, the name of one of the chief Mahratta princes.

Singapore. [Malaya, British.]

Sinking Fund, The, is a fund collected with the object of paying off some part of the national debt. Before the time of Walpole the only funds to which this name can be given were those instituted for the sinking of particular debts. In 1717 the General Fund Act proposed by Walpole began the process of discharging the funded debt. Between 1717 and 1788 approximately £200,000,000 were allocated to the sinking fund, but the demands of current expenditure forced successive governments to make raids on the fund, and of the whole amount mentioned only one-quarter was applied to the reduction of debt. Perhaps the most celebrated scheme for a sinking fund in English history was that of the younger Pitt. In 1786 he found that whilst the national debt stood at £245,000,000, the annual revenues were in a very flourishing condition. He had a surplus of one million, and, alarmed at the immense development of the debt, he proposed that the surplus should be put aside at compound interest and the proceeds ultimately devoted to the diminution of the debt. He directed that a million should be laid aside every year, apparently under the belief that every year would produce a similar surplus. For the first few years the plan was very successful, but the long wars against revolutionary France soon made it necessary for the nation to spend far more than its income. Yet the million a year was solemnly set aside for the sinking fund, although the nation borrowed many millions at a higher rate of interest than it could get for the fund. A belief in the mysterious wisdom of the step, and of the magical power of compound interest, blinded men to the obvious absurdity of borrowing at a higher interest to lend out at a lower one. By 1813 the old debt of 1786 had been discharged, but in spite of the fund's expensive accumulations the fresh additions to the national debt in the last years of the Napoleonic war put the final redemption forward into a remote future, and by 1819 £13,500,000 a year was being borrowed for the service of the fund. The government was compelled to take from it a large part of the money that was being set aside. In 1828 the whole plan was considered fallacious, and abandoned. Thereafter the plan followed was to allot annually from any surplus of revenue over expenditure a sum of something between £1,000,000 and £3,000,000 for the extinction of funded or unfunded debt. Various experiments were made for the creation of a new sinking fund during the reign of Victoria, but none was conspicuously successful. The practice of converting parcels of government stock into terminable annuities proved more satisfactory. In 1923 the sinking fund had for half a century consisted of two parts:—(1) the old sinking fund established by Goulburn in 1829, to which money is allotted from revenue when there is a surplus; (2) the new sinking fund (1875) which received money from any balance there might be in the amount voted for debt changes after interest, etc., had been paid. There have been frequent diversions of the sinking funds. The "New Sinking Fund" established in 1923 involves the allotment of large annual sums of £40,000,000 and upwards for debt redemption. [National Debt.]

Brisco, "Economic Policy of Walpole"; Hilton Young, "The System of National Finance"; Buxton, "Finance and Politics"; "Dictionary of Political Economy"; Acworth, "Financial Reconstruction, 1815–22."

Sinn Fein, or the extreme Republican party in Ireland, was founded by Arthur Griffith in 1905, to achieve the independence of Ireland by withdrawing the Irish members from Westminster and building up a national life which should ultimately relieve Ireland from economic dependence on England. It did not discountenance the ultimate use of armed force. The Easter Rising of 1916 in Dublin was planned and executed by Sinn Fein, which became a dominant party during the next few years under the leadership of Eamon de Valera (q.v.), who became the president of Dail Eireann in 1918. Peace with Northern Ireland was finally concluded in December 1921.

Sinope, The Battle of (November 30, 1853). In 1853 a squadron of Turkish ships was stationed at Sinope. The Russians, hearing that the Turks had begun the war on the Armenian frontier, proceeded to attack them. The Sebastopol fleet advanced in order of battle into the harbour of Sinope. The Turks struggled gallantly, and maintained the defence for a long time. In the end they were overpowered and destroyed, and it was reported that 4,000 men had been killed. The tidings of this

massacre produced the greatest excitement in Great Britain. It brought the war fever, already great, to its height, and by throwing public opinion strongly in favour of Lord Palmerston's war policy, practically forced the hands of the ministry, and dragged the country into war. [Crimean War.]

Sitabaldi, The Battle of (November 24, 1817). The result of the intrigues of Appa Sahib with Baji Rao (q.v.) was an attack on the British residency. This lay to the west of Nagpur, from which it was separated by a small ridge running north and south, with two hills at the extremity called the Sitabaldi Hills. It was garrisoned by two battalions of Madras infantry, two companies of the resident's escort, three troops of Bengal cavalry, and a detachment of Madras artillery with four 6-pounders. The raja had 18,000 men and 36 guns. The guns were brought to bear on the British position, and a vigorous assault, which was repelled, was made all through the night. At last the Nagpur troops captured the lower hill, and the British ammunition was running short, when a charge of the Bengal cavalry, under Captain Fitzgerald, resulted in capturing two guns and cutting up the infantry. At this moment one of the enemy's tumbrils exploded, and amid the confusion they broke and fled. The conflict, which had lasted eighteen hours, thus terminated in a victory for the British.

J. C. Grant Duff, "History of Mahrattas," 1826 and 1921.

Six Acts, The, were a series of six coercive measures passed in rapid succession during a special autumnal session of parliament in 1819, directed towards the suppression of the prevailing spirit of sedition which commercial depression and reactionary government had excited. They were as follows:—(1) 60 Geo. III, c. 1 (December 11, 1819), an act to prevent the training of persons to the use of arms and to the practice of military evolutions and exercise; (2) 60 Geo. III, c. 2 (December 18), an act authorizing justices of the peace in certain disturbed counties to seize and detain arms, continuing in force until March 25, 1822; (3) 60 Geo. III, c. 4 (December 23), an act to prevent delay in the administration of justice in cases of misdemeanour; (4) 60 Geo. III, c. 6 (December 24), an act to prevent seditious meetings and assemblies, continuing in force for five years; (5) 60 Geo. III, c. 8 (December 30), an act to prevent and punish blasphemous and seditious libels; (6) 60 Geo. III, c. 9 (December 30), an act to subject certain publications to the duties of stamps upon newspapers, and further to restrict the press. These acts were violently denounced by Whig and Radical alike, but received whole-hearted endorsement from the government of Lord Liverpool. The first is still on the statute book; the second lapsed; the third is still in force; the fourth lapsed; the fifth was amended in 1830; the sixth was amended in 1836.

Six Articles, The Statute of, passed in 1539, marks the beginning of the reactionary period that continued until the close of Henry VIII's reign. In the statute book it is entitled "An Act abolishing diversity of opinion." It enumerated precisely and clearly six points of mediæval doctrine and practice which the Protestants had begun to assail, and imposed severe penalties on all who would not accept them. The first article expressed the doctrine of transubstantiation. Those denying this were to be burnt. If the other five articles were impeached the penalties were, for first offence, confiscation of property; for the second, execution as a felon. The five articles declared (2) that communion in both kinds was unnecessary; (3) that priests ought not to marry; (4) that the vows of chastity ought to be observed in both sexes; (5) that private Masses were allowable; (6) that auricular confession was necessary. This sanguinary act, called by the Protestants "the whip with six strings," continued in force for the rest of Henry's reign.

Skinner *v.* The East India Company, Case of (1666). Thomas Skinner was a private merchant in the reign of Charles II, who, finding that the India Company, at a time when the Indian trade was open, molested him in his business, and took away from him an island bought from a native prince, petitioned the king to give him that redress which he could not get in the ordinary courts. Charles handed the affair over to the House of Lords, but the company, when called upon to defend itself, denied their jurisdiction. This, however, was overruled, and £5,000 damages were awarded Skinner. The company then petitioned the Commons, who had already some disputes with the Upper House. They resolved that the Lords had acted illegally in depriving the company of the benefit of the law courts. The Lords, in return, voted the Commons' reception of a "scandalous petition" against them a breach of privilege. A furious quarrel ensued. Two conferences of the Houses only added fuel to the flame. At last the Commons voted Skinner into custody for violating their privileges, and the Lords in return imprisoned and fined Sir S. Barnardiston, the chairman of the India Company. The king, by successive adjournments for fifteen months, attempted in vain to appease the quarrel. When the Houses again met they took it up at once, but as the Lords had released Barnardiston, the Commons were slightly appeased. Both Houses passed bills censuring the other side, which were promptly rejected by the opponent House. At last the king's advice to both Houses to end the dispute, and erase all reference to it in their journals, ended one of the most important disputes in English history between the Upper and Lower Houses. It had lasted from November 1666 to February 1670. As the Lords never again claimed an original jurisdiction in civil

suits, the victory may be said to have rested with the Commons.

Hallam, "Constitutional History," iii, 21; C. Grant Robertson, "Select Statutes, Cases and Documents," 4th edn., 1923.

Skippon, PHILIP (*d.* 1660), served in the wars in Holland, and rose from the ranks by his services. Clarendon describes him as "a man of order and sobriety, and untainted with any of those vices which the officers of that army were exercised in." In 1641 he was captain of the artillery garden, and was on January 10, 1642, appointed, with the title of sergeant-major-general, to command the city train-bands, and the guard to be raised for the protection of Parliament. He served as sergeant-major-general under Essex as long as that general retained his command. In September 1644 he was left by Essex in command of the army which was cooped up in Cornwall, and proposed that they should cut their way out at all costs, as the horse had done, but he was overruled by the council of war, and forced to capitulate. In 1645 he was appointed major-general of the New Model (q.v.), and was present at the battle of Naseby, where he was severely wounded. In April 1647 he was voted the command of the army destined for Ireland, and in the summer of the same year he was actively engaged in trying to reconcile the army and the Parliament. Skippon disapproved of the king's execution, and refused to sit in the High Court of Justice, but became a member of the first council of state, sat in the parliaments of 1654 and 1656, acted as one of Cromwell's major-generals (for London), entered his privy council, and accepted a seat in his House of Lords. He died either just before, or immediately after, the Restoration.

Slave. [THEOW.]

Slavery, ABOLITION OF. Slavery in England is of very ancient standing. It existed as an institution among the Saxons as well as the Celts. Among the former the slaves consisted chiefly of captives taken in war, or of members of the subject race. [THEOW.] After the Conquest the distinct slave class ceased to exist, and was merged with the lower class of ceorls into the general body of villeins. [VILLENAGE.] Though the Church had early succeeded in putting an end to the traffic in English slaves (e.g., by the canons of the council of 1102), slavery itself in England was never abolished by any positive enactment. The decision, therefore, of Lord Mansfield, in the case of the negro Somerset (1772), that slavery could not exist in England, had no legal foundation, and merely reflected the public opinion of the time. Negro slavery in English colonies was not, however, touched by this decision. It was of comparatively recent growth; the first importation of negroes to America is said to have been made by the Portuguese in 1503, and the other nations of western Europe took part in the trade as soon as they had gained any share in the New World. Among Englishmen, the name of the adventurer John Hawkins, who made his first voyage in 1562, is especially associated with the beginning of the trade. The merchants of Bristol long had an evil fame in this matter. One of the most substantial advantages which Great Britain gained at the Peace of Utrecht was the Asiento (q.v.), which gave it a monopoly of the supply of slaves to the Spanish possessions in America.

The movement for the abolition of the slave trade was begun by Thomas Clarkson, some ten years after the Somerset decision. His efforts were assisted by the Society of Friends and by individual philanthropists such as Zachary Macaulay, father of the historian, and, above all, Wilberforce (q.v.). In 1792 Wilberforce gained the support of Pitt, and a motion was carried in the House of Commons for the gradual abolition of the trade. But, though something was done to lessen the atrocities of "the middle passage," bills prohibiting the trade itself were repeatedly defeated by the West Indian interest. In 1805 the first step was gained by the issue of an order in council prohibiting the traffic with colonies acquired during the war, and in 1806 a bill was passed against the trading in slaves by British subjects either with these colonies or with foreign possessions. Thus the traffic with the older British possessions was still allowed; but this also was at last abolished by the General Abolition Act in 1807. For a few years offenders against the act were liable only to fine, but in 1811 slave trading was created a felony punishable with fourteen years' imprisonment; in 1824 it was declared piracy and punishable with death, but in 1837 this was altered to transportation for life.

The success of this movement encouraged its supporters to go on to demand the total abolition of slavery in the British dominions. For some years they made no progress; but in 1823 Canning, though he refused to consider the matter one of pressing importance, gave his support to resolutions declaring that it was expedient to improve the condition of the slaves in order to fit them for freedom. In consequence a government circular was issued to the West Indian Islands directing that women should no longer be flogged, nor the whip used in the fields. It was greeted with sullen discontent, and some of the planters began to talk of declaring themselves independent. In Demerara the negroes, believing the British government had set them free, and being prohibited from attending church, rose in rebellion, but without violence. The rising was put down; and a missionary, John Smith, who had taken no part in the insurrection, but who had done much to civilize the slaves, was tried by court-martial and died in prison. The real meaning of his prosecution was shown by the complaint in the planters' paper that, "to address a promiscuous audience of black or coloured people, bond and free, by the endearing appellation of 'my brethren and sisters' is what can nowhere he heard except in Provi-

dence Chapel." The news of Smith's martyrdom gave a great impulse to the abolitionist movement in Great Britain. In 1825–6 Protectors of Slaves were appointed by orders-in-council to watch over their interests, and in 1827 one of these protectors gained the recognition of the right of a slave to purchase his liberty. Finally, in 1833, the great Emancipation Act was passed. After August 1, 1834, all children under six years of age became free at once; field slaves were to serve their present masters as "apprenticed labourers" for seven years, and house slaves for five, and after that were to become free; these terms were shortened by subsequent enactment. Twenty million pounds were to be paid to the planters as compensation. It may be added that from 1815 onward British influence caused the other European nations and Brazil to prohibit the slave trade, and to recognize a mutual right of search.

Clarkson, "History of the Abolition," 1834; H. Martineau, "History of the Peace," bk. ii. chap. 6, bk. iv, ch. 8; W. L. Mathieson, "British Slavery and its Abolition, 1823–38," 1927; R. Coupland, "Wilberforce," 1927. [W. J. A.]

Slingsby, Sir Henry (1602–58), of Scriven, in the county of York, represented Knaresborough in the Long Parliament, and followed the king to York. He fought at Wetherby, Marston Moor, Naseby, and other battles, in the Royalist ranks. In 1656 he entered into negotiations with officers of the garrison of Hull for surrendering it to the Royalists. For this he was tried by a high court of justice in 1658, and sentenced to be beheaded. His execution took place June 8, 1658.

"Diary of Sir Henry Slingsby," ed. by D. Parsons, 1836.

Sluys, The Battle of (June 24, 1340), was fought between the French fleet, commanded by Quiéret and Béhuchet, and the English fleet under the personal command of Edward III. It resulted in a complete victory for the latter. The contest is of great importance in English naval history. It did something to obliterate the memory of the ineffective and campaigns of the early years of the war; and by securing to England for more than thirty years the command of the narrow seas, made possible the later brilliant victories of Crécy and Poitiers. The town of Sluys stood at the head of the harbour of Zwyn at the mouth of the River Scheldt.

Smalley, John (*fl.* 1575), was the servant of a member of parliament. In 1575 he was arrested for debt. The Commons sent their sergeant to deliver him, "after sundry reasons, arguments, and disputations." But discovering that Smalley had fraudulently contrived his arrest to get the debt cancelled, he was committed and fined. His case is interesting as showing privilege of parliament in its fullest extent, and able even to protect the servants of members. A statute of George III, however (1770), took away this unnecessary and invidious immunity.

Smerwick, a bay and peninsula in Kerry, was the scene of the landing on July 18, 1579, of a papal legate (Dr. Sanders) and James Fitzmaurice Fitzgerald, who built a fort there. Next year, after Fitzgerald's death, the fort was enlarged and made the head-quarters of about 800 Italian and Spanish soldiers, sent to support the Catholic cause in Ireland. They were compelled to surrender after a short siege, by Lord Grey de Wilton, November 10, 1580, and all but the officers were put to death.

Smith, Admiral Sir Sidney (1764–1840), entered the navy at an early age, towards the end of the American War, and fought in the battles of Cape St. Vincent and the Chesapeake. During the long peace which followed he served in the Swedish navy against Russia. He afterwards served at Toulon (1793), was for two years imprisoned in France after his capture off Havre in 1796, and subsequently made his greatest mark in history by his defence of Acre in 1799 against Bonaparte (May 15–May 19). He concluded the Treaty of El Arish with Kleber (January 24, 1800), but the government refused to ratify the compact. He was constantly employed on various services till the end of the war; notably in Duckworth's abortive expedition to Constantinople (February–March 1807).

Biographies by J. Barrow, 1848, and E. Howard, 1839.

Smith, Sir Thomas (1513–77), was an eminent statesmen of the reign of Queen Elizabeth. At Cambridge he was in early life the associate of Cheke in promoting the study of Greek, and also of civil law, which he studied at Padua. A zealous friend of the Reformation, he took deacon's orders, became dean of Carlisle and provost of Eton (1547), and in 1548 secretary of state. Disgraced under Mary, he was restored by Elizabeth to his deanery, sent on various important missions, and employed as a sort of assistant secretary to Cecil, with whose policy he sympathized. He wrote, besides other works, a book on the English Commonwealth (1583), which is interesting as keeping up the constitutional tradition even at a time of the greatest depression of English liberty.

Snowden, Philip (*b.* 1864), spent his early life in the civil service and joined the Independent Labour Party in 1893. He entered parliament in 1906 as Labour member for Blackburn. He was out of parliament from 1918 to 1922, but won Colne Valley in the latter year and became chancellor of the exchequer in the first Labour government (January–October 1924). His budget was notable for redress of the balance of taxation on the poor.

Sobraon, The Battle of (February 10, 1846), was fought during the first Sikh War. The Sikhs had entrenched themselves in semi-circular fortifications with the Sutlej as their base and their outer line surrounded by a deep ditch. Sir Hugh Gough moved his army in

three divisions, the main attack being led against the western corner, which was weakest. The entrenchment was pierced in three places, and the Sikhs were driven headlong to the river, where, finding the bridge broken, they plunged in and perished by hundreds. Their loss was estimated at 8,000, the British at 2,383.

J. D. Cunningham, "Sikhs," 1849 and 1919.

Socage was a tenure of lands, free in character, but differing from tenure by knight service in the liability of the tenant generally to pay a money rent. By the fifteenth century all free tenure of land which carried no military duties tended to conform to tenure in socage. Thus Littleton, "All manner of tenures, which are not tenures by knight service, are called tenures in socage." In early Norman times socage tenure was of a much more lowly character. Though free it was only just over the border line of unfree tenure. The ancestor of the later socage tenant may be found in the *sochemannus* of Domesday. The socman of the eleventh century was dependent on his lord and had to seek his *soke*, or jurisdiction. Sometimes, in the less substantial cases, he had to perform agricultural services, and was in reality unfree. By the end of the thirteenth century socage tenure is better defined and is comparable in some respects with the free tenures by frankalmoin (q.v.), knight service (q.v.), and serjeanty (q.v.). No military service was due; agricultural services were now generally commuted for money rents. Since economic freedom and exemption from military service became the distinguishing marks of socage tenure, it is obvious that it might be used to describe a variety of holdings, from that of the small tenant of gavelkind land in Kent to that of many large landowners, and, as Littleton notes, it is the negative qualities of this rent-paying form of tenure which distinguish it—e.g., freedom from scutage and wardship and marriage. These exemptions caused it to be highly prized. [Land Tenure.]

W. S. Holdsworth, "History of English Law," 1922; Sir P. Vinogradoff, "Villainage in England."

Socialism has as its ideal the ownership and control of the means of production by the community (instead of by the individual) with a view to the more equitable distribution of the wealth of society. The word "socialist" first arose in 1827 among the followers of Robert Owen (q.v.). It was Owen who first popularized in England the idea of complete social reorganization, and of the control and distribution by society of its wealth, although other writers had long been working at the same idea. His original scheme was to organize communal villages. His followers attempted the plan of forming one Grand National Consolidated Trades Union to take over the means of production by means of a general strike. (The general strike scheme was first mooted in Carlile's "Republican" in 1819, and later advocated by William Benbow with much vigour in 1831.) The Grand National Consolidated Trades Union broke down in 1833–4 and Owen formed the Association of All Classes and All Nations to promulgate his ideas further. A period of depression then followed in working-class activity during the years 1834–8 due to the policy of the government. Chartism developed between 1838 and 1848, but its aim was primarily political and reformist, although it numbered in its ranks most of the leading Owenites, who regarded the movement as a means to their end. On the breakdown of Chartism the Christian Socialist movement was formed by Charles Kingsley, F. D. Maurice, and other members of King's College, London. Numerous gilds for co-operative production were inaugurated, but all failed, and after six years (1848–54) the movement itself collapsed. But the period of mid-Victorian prosperity was not favourable to the growth of Socialist ideas, and the newly-organized unions pursued a policy of Liberal-Radicalism. The 'eighties witnessed a revival of Socialism, however, which has increased in power ever since. The Democratic Federation was formed by H. M. Hyndman and his friends (1882) to promulgate the ideas of Karl Marx; but a split in the party led to the formation of the "Socialist League" by William Morris, Belfort Bax, and others, having as its journal the *Commonweal*. The League was anarchistic rather than Marxian, and gradually disappeared, Morris having left it in 1890. The Fabian Society arose (1888) out of Prof. T. Davidson's "New Fellowship" group, with an educational aim, and adopting a policy of "permeation." The "Fabian Essays" were published in 1889, and an English translation of Marx had been published two years before. Gradually the trade unions absorbed Socialist ideas; and local labour parties began to be formed. In 1892 Keir Hardie founded the Independent Labour Party (q.v.) as a definitely Socialist party. At a conference held at Plymouth in 1899 it was resolved to secure political unity among the Socialists, co-operators, and trade unionists, and as a consequence the Labour Representative Committee was formed in February 1900 with J. Ramsay MacDonald (q.v.) as secretary. At the following general election two candidates were successful. In the 1906 election the Labour Representative Committee secured 30 members, which was increased to 40 in 1910. The Labour Party had thus come into being, but it was rather a federation of groups than a homogeneous Socialist body. Meanwhile the international side of Socialism had been growing. In 1847 the Communist League was formed in London and Marx issued his famous "Manifesto." In 1864 the International Working Men's Association was founded and Marx drew up its constitution, but it collapsed in 1873. A second International was established in 1889 and has continued. The war split the Socialist movement, and the Independent Labour Party remained opposed to it consistently. In 1918 the Labour Party as a whole in its new constitution first accepted the Socialist aim, and

Socialism then spread rapidly. In December 1923 Mr. Ramsay MacDonald became the first Socialist premier, although with a minority party. Since 1924 the Socialist party has been in opposition. Within the general Socialist body wide differences have manifested themselves from time to time both on the question of tactics and on the question of the ultimate organization of society. One of the most vital branches of the Socialist movement in the last twenty years has been Guild Socialism, first put forward in 1905. In 1915 the National Guilds League was formed, and in 1920 experimental guilds were created as in 1848–54; but they were unsuccessful. The general strike of May 1926 resulted in considerable discussion within the Socialist movement of both its ultimate aim and its tactics. In this work the reorganized *Socialist Review* took a most vigorous share.

T. Kirkup, "History of Socialism," 1920; J. R. MacDonald, "The Socialist Movement," 1911; E. R. Pease, "History of the Fabian Society," 1916; H. J. Laski, "Communism," 1927; G. D. H. Cole, "History of the Working Class Movement," 1925; M. Beer, "History of British Socialism," 1919; "Encyclopædia of the Labour Movement," 3 vols., 1928. [C. H. D.]

Socman (Sochemannus) was a tenant in socage. Originally it meant a man who is bound to pay suit to a soken. [Socage.]

Sokotra. [East Africa, British Dominions in.]

Solebay, The Battle of (June 3, 1665), was fought by the English fleet under the command of the Duke of York, and the Dutch under Admiral Opdam. The English were completely victorious, losing only one ship and about 700 men, while on the Dutch side eighteen ships and 7,000 men were lost, among the latter being Opdam himself. Solebay (Southwold Bay) is on the Suffolk coast. [Southwold Bay.]

Solicitor-General, The, is an assistant to the attorney-general (q.v.). The earliest evidence of the existence of the office of solicitor to the king occurs in the first year of Edward IV, and there seems little doubt that before that reign there was no such officer. In the reign of Mary, Rokeby, in the reign of Elizabeth, T. Fleming, and in the reign of James I, J. Doderidge, were severally discharged from the office of serjeant in order that they might be capable of serving the Crown in the capacity of solicitor-general. The solicitor-general is appointed by letters patent, and is always a member of the House of Commons and of the political party in power.

Solms, Heinrich Maastricht, Count of (1636–93), was one of the Dutch favourites of William III. He occupied Whitehall in favour of the Prince of Orange, the guards of James II retiring before him. He commanded the Dutch troops during William's campaign in Ireland, and led the charge across the stream at the battle of the Boyne (July 1, 1689). On William's departure for England he was left for a short while in charge. He commanded the English troops at the battle of Steinkirk (August 3, 1692), and his failure to support Mackay's division was in a great measure the cause of that defeat. The outcry against him was great, and parliament commented severely on his conduct. He was mortally wounded at Landen, and fell alive into the hands of the enemy.

Burnet, "History of His Own Time," ed. O. Airy, 2 vols., 1897–1900.

Solomon Islands. [New Guinea.]

Solway Moss, The Battle of (December 24, 1542), resulted in the defeat of the Scottish army, which was about to invade England, at the hands of some 300 borderers headed by Sir Thomas Wharton. The attack was made when the Scots were quarrelling amongst themselves about the appointment of Oliver Sinclair, one of the favourites of James V, to the office of commander-in-chief. The Scots lost about 20 killed and 1,200 prisoners. The English death-roll numbered seven. Solway Moss is just on the English side of the Esk.

P. Hume Brown, "History of Scotland," 1911.

Somaliland. [East Africa, British Dominions in.]

Somerled, Lord of Argyll, married the daughter of Olaf, King of Man, and espoused the cause of Malcolm MacHeth, invading Scotland in conjunction with the sons of Malcolm (November 1153). In 1156 he was at war with Godred, the Norwegian King of the Isles, and in 1164 again attacked Scotland; he was, however, defeated and killed at Renfrew. He represents the Celtic reaction which succeeded on the Norse conquest of the Hebrides. The Lords of the Isles traced their descent from him.

Somers, John, Lord (1651–1716), was educated at Trinity College, Oxford, and became a barrister. At the trial of the Seven Bishops (q.v.) he pleaded as their junior counsel, and made a short but weighty speech in their favour. Together with Montagu he took his seat for the first time in the Convention Parliament (q.v.). At the conference between the Lords and Commons he maintained that James had "abdicated" the throne. He framed the Declaration of Rights (q.v.). Shortly afterwards he was appointed solicitor-general. In 1690 he was made chairman of the committee for considering the rights of those corporations who had forfeited their charters in the last two reigns. He conducted the prosecution of the Jacobite conspirators Preston and Ashton with great moderation. In 1692 he became attorney-general, and subsequently lord keeper of the privy seal. Meanwhile William was gradually discarding Tories and forming a united Whig ministry. It was led by the junto, consisting of Somers, Halifax, Russell, and Wharton. In 1695 the arrangements for the restoration of the currency were placed in his hands. Shortly afterwards the Whig ministry was established, and he was made lord chancellor. In 1697, when parliament wished to reduce the standing army, Somers wrote a treatise, known

as the "Balancing Letter," in which, while he condemned a standing army, he approved of a temporary army annually fixed by parliament. By Somers's advice William agreed to the bill for the disbanding of the army. But the country was rapidly becoming discontented. In 1697 Somers was assailed for complicity in the piracies of Kidd (q.v.), because he had subscribed to the expedition which Kidd proposed to start against piracy. Again attacked on the question of grants of Crown lands, he and his colleagues were compelled to retire in 1700. In 1701 he was impeached for his share in the Partition Treaties (q.v.) and in Kidd's misdeeds; but the Commons declined to appear before the Whig majority of the Lords, who thereupon declared him acquitted. The accession of Anne deprived him for some years of any hope of a return to power; but in 1708 he joined, with other members of the junto, the Godolphin ministry as president of the council. He fell with the ministry, and soon after was attacked by paralysis, which put an end to his political activity. Yet, on the accession of George, Somers was sworn of the privy council, and given a seat in the cabinet.

Maddock, "Life of Somers," 1812; Cooksey, "Essay on Life and Character of Somers," 1791.

[S. L.]

Somers Islands. [BERMUDAS.]

Somerset, DUKES AND EARLS OF. [BEAUFORT; CARR; SEYMOUR.]

Somerset, FITZROY JAMES HENRY, 1ST BARON RAGLAN (1788–1855), youngest son of Henry, 5th Duke of Beaufort, entered the army in 1804. In 1808 Sir Arthur Wellesley appointed him his aide-de-camp; in this capacity he served all through the Peninsular War, and was present at Waterloo, where he lost an arm. From 1827 to 1852 he was military secretary at the Horse Guards. In 1852 he was appointed master-general of the ordnance and elevated to the House of Lords. In 1854 he became field-marshal. On the outbreak of the Crimean War Lord Raglan was appointed commander-in-chief of the British army. He reached the Crimea in September 1854, and shared with Marshal St. Arnaud the command of the allied forces during the winter and the following spring [CRIMEAN WAR]. He was heavily weighed down by the anxiety caused by the sufferings of his men in the trenches. His health had been gradually failing before he was seized by a fatal attack of cholera. He died on June 28, 1855.

A. W. Kinglake, "Invasion of the Crimea," 1863–1887.

Somme, THE BATTLE OF THE (July–November 1916), was a British offensive undertaken on the western front during the Great War, with the object of relieving the pressure round Verdun, where the German armies had been attacking since February 1916. It opened on July 1 against an extremely strong German position consolidated during the previous year, along a 25-mile front east of the River Ancre, from Serre, through Beaumont Hamel and Fricourt, to Maricourt. The first advance won Fricourt, Mametz, and Montauban by July 6, and part of Delville Wood and Ollivers by July 14. But thereafter little progress was made during August by reason of a German counter-attack, though the attack on Verdun had to be interrupted. The British advance was renewed on September 3, with a tank attack—the first of the war—on the 15th. It resulted in the capture of Combles and Thiepval, so forcing the Germans back to their last complete line of defence. The heavy rains of October, however, seriously handicapped the advance; until after a month of slow progress the fall of Beaumont Hamel to the British on November 13 closed the main offensive. The battle had secured no extensive gains in territory, but it had achieved its immediate object.

South Africa, THE UNION OF, consists of a union of four colonies (Cape Colony, Natal, Transvaal, and the Orange River Colony), together with the native territories of the Transkei, Swaziland, Basutoland, and the Bechuanaland and South-Western Protectorates. Historically, South Africa is a growth from the Cape of Good Hope. Visited in 1487 by Diaz and in 1497 by da Gama, the Cape remained but a landmark until the Netherlands East India Company established a settlement there in 1652 as a port of call where east-bound ships might victual. The colonists, reinforced in 1688 by Huguenot exiles, began to spread inland, absorbed the Hottentots' country, and by the end of the eighteenth century had come into contact with the Bantu. This movement of farmer families is a characteristic of Boer life; a patriarchal self-sufficiency was preferred to governmental regulation. With the colonists dissatisfied with company government, the Dutch governor surrendered the colony to a British naval force in 1795. Restored by the Peace of Amiens (1802), the colony was recaptured in 1806, to remain British after the Dutch government had been indemnified. European expansion led to conflict with the natives, and in 1811 began a series of Kafir wars (q.v.) which only ended with the annexation of all Kafirland to the Cape in 1865. Then began a period of renewed colonization. In 1820 and 1821 the eastern part of the colony was settled by British settlers, and Algoa Bay and the Albany settlement emphasized the tendency to make the Cape British by immigration. By 1824 Natal had been founded, and with this influx of new European blood began that clash of rival cultures which is one of South Africa's greatest problems. Inadequate slave compensation (1834), and wide divergence of British and Dutch attitudes towards the natives, accentuated by the presence of enthusiastic missionaries, reinforced the Boer tendency to trek, and organized migrations culminated in the Great Trek of 1836 by which the border farmers sought new pastures outside the pale of British rule. Those

who trekked into Natal were forced to retire, but a loosely-organized community of farmers formed the nucleus of the Orange River Territory, which soon came into conflict with the natives. At the same time the new British settlers on the east coast met the descending Bantu tribes, and a series of wars resulted in annexations not only of native territory, but also in 1848 of the Orange River Territory, because of the fear that Boer aggression would rouse a native attack on all Europeans in South Africa which the Boer republic would not be strong enough to repulse. Nominal independence was secured for the Dutch who had trekked and formed small republics across the Vaal river by the Sand River Convention (1852) and to the Orange Free State in 1854 by the Convention of Bloemfontein. Diamonds were discovered in 1867, and the necessity of providing a strong government capable of keeping internal order and of defending itself against both natives and foreign intruders led to the proclamation of British sovereignty over Basutoland (1868), Griqualand West (1871), and finally the actual annexation of the Transvaal in 1877, followed by that of Walfish Bay (1878). Three years later the first Boer war broke out and a policy of imperial retrogression was marked by the Conventions of Pretoria (1881) and of London (1884), by which the South African Republic and German South-West Africa were recognized. In 1886, however, the discovery of gold on the Rand led to another political crisis. In the first place the Dutch were not prepared to give political power to the mass of cosmopolitan adventurers who swarmed into the gold-fields; in the second place the British ports of the Cape and Natal were able to dictate economic terms to the inland republic; while thirdly there arose a group of ardent imperialists anxious not only to secure political equality for the British on the Rand, but also to exclude foreign powers from South Africa. In 1889 the British South Africa Company was founded to develop the land north of the Boers, and various extensions of British rule or influence terrified the Boers with the fear of being isolated. The Jameson Raid of 1895 precipitated the conflict which in 1899 assumed the proportions of the South African War. Peace terms were dictated to the Dutch at Vereeniging in 1899, and the Dutch were given colonial autonomy in 1906 and 1907. Sir A. Milner, the then high commissioner, did much to restore prosperity to the defeated people, but the economic dependence of the gold-producing area upon the coastal ports was a continual cause of friction. A group of men spent the intervening period in working for a union of South Africa, and their efforts culminated in a series of conferences in which representatives from the four South African colonies agreed upon a plan of union, embodied in the South Africa Act (1909). This union is interesting both as a political experiment in government and as the culmination of a long process of growth.

By the act of 1909 Cape Colony, Natal, Transvaal Colony, and the Orange River Colony were united in a legislative union, under one government. The four colonies became provinces of the Union, all except the Orange River Colony—which became the Orange Free State—retaining their names. The executive government is vested in the king, represented by a governor-general, assisted by an executive council. The parliament of the Union consists of the king, a Senate, and a House of Assembly. The governor-general may appoint such times for holding such sessions as he thinks fit, and has authority—by proclamation or otherwise—to prorogue parliament, and to dissolve both the Senate and the House of Assembly simultaneously, or the latter alone; but the Senate was not to be dissolved within a period of ten years after the establishment of the Union. Cape Town is the seat of the legislature. The Senate consists of eight members nominated by the governor-general-in-council, and eight elected members from each province. Vacancies are filled by election in the provincial council. The Senate elects its own president, whom it may remove from office by a vote. Twelve senators at least are necessary to constitute a meeting of the Senate for the exercise of its powers. The president of the Senate has a casting vote. A member of the Senate may not be a member of the House, nor vice versa. The House of Assembly is composed of members directly chosen by the voters of the Union, and for the first parliament of the Union the number of members was as follows:—Cape Colony, 51; Natal, 17; Transvaal, 36 (now 50); Orange Free State, 17. This number, however, may be increased from time to time as may be necessary, but may not in the case of any original province be diminished until either the total number of members of the House of Assembly for these provinces reaches 150, or ten years have elapsed from the establishment of the Union. Members of both Houses are paid, and are fined for absence.

The parliament has full power to make laws for the peace, order, and good government of the Union. Each province has an administrator, appointed by the governor-general-in-council, and a provincial council, consisting of the same number of members as are elected in the province for the House of Assembly, except in such cases as where these representatives number fewer than twenty-five the number of members of the provincial council is raised to twenty-five. These councils in turn elect executive committees for the purpose of administration. The powers of the provincial councils are restricted to domestic policy. The chief matters in respect of which they have power, subject to the assent of the governor-general-in-council, to make ordinances are:—(1) Direct taxation within the province in order to raise a revenue for provincial purposes; (2) the borrowing of money on the sole credit of the province with the consent of the governor-general-in-council, and in accordance with

regulations to be framed by parliament; (3) education; (4) agriculture; (5) hospitals, etc.; (6) municipal institutions; (7) local works and undertakings—roads, outspans, bridges, etc. Free trade was introduced throughout the Union, but until parliament otherwise provided the duties of custom and of excise leviable under the laws existing in any of the colonies meantime remained in force.

Provision was also made by the Act of Union for a Supreme Court of South Africa, with an Appellate Division. The Supreme Courts of the colonies forming the Union became provincial divisions of the Supreme Court of South Africa, and their judges continued in office. From the establishment of the Union, the chief justice of South Africa, the ordinary judges of appeal, and all other judges of the Supreme Court were to be appointed by the governor-general-in-council. All laws in force in the several colonies at the establishment of the Union were to continue in force until repealed or amended by parliament. English and Dutch are equally official languages of the Union.

Provision is made in the constitution for the admission of Rhodesia, but so far that colony has declined to join the Union.

The chief problem of the Union is that connected with the natives, which is one of population complicated by cultural differences and economic competition. No satisfactory solution has been found, segregation being possible only in certain areas and to a limited extent.

A. P. Newton, "The Unification of South Africa," 2 vols., 1924; B. Williams, "The Selborne Memorandum . . . 1907," 1925; A. S. Cripps, "Africa for the Africans," 1927; W. M. Macmillan, "The Cape Colour Question," 1927; G. McC. Theal, "History of South Africa from 1505 to 1795," 3 vols.; "History of South Africa since 1795," 5 vols. (up to 1872), 1892 and 1915; "History of South Africa, 1873–1884," 2 vols., 1919; "History of South Africa, 1486–1691"; G. E. Cory, "The Rise of South Africa," 6 vols., 1910–1926; E. A. Walker, "A Modern History for South Africans," 1926; W. B. Worsfold, "A History of South Africa," 1900; F. R. Cana, "South Africa from the Great Trek to the Union," 1909; Sir C. P. Lucas, "Historical Geography of the British Colonies," vol. iv., South Africa, in 3 parts, 1913–15; R. H. Brand, "The Union of South Africa," 1909; Sir E. Walton, "The Inner History of the National Convention of South Africa," 1912; P. Knaplund, "The Unification of South Africa," 1924. [H. R.]

Southampton, from its geographical position, has played an important part in English history. The English who settled in Wessex founded the town, called Hantune and Suth-Hamtun in the "Anglo-Saxon Chronicle," near the site of the Roman town of Clausentum. It was frequently attacked by the Danes (in 837, 980, and 994), and Canute used it as a chief point of embarkation. It was a royal borough before 1086, and obtained a charter from Henry II, which was amplified in 1189, 1199, 1256, 1401, 1445, 1447, etc., and finally by Charles I in 1640. It has returned two members to parliament since 1295, and its right to hold a cattle-market was confirmed by Henry IV and Elizabeth. In 1338 it was sacked by a fleet of French and Genoese, and was afterwards fortified with care. Southampton was frequently used as a port of embarkation during the Hundred Years' War; it was there that Henry V, in 1415, just before setting out for France, executed the Earl of Cambridge, Lord Scrope, and Sir Thomas Grey for treason. Southampton espoused the Yorkist cause during the Wars of the Roses, after the Lancastrians had made an attempt to take it. Henry VIII used the town as a basis of operation by sea in his attacks on France. Philip of Spain landed there in 1554. Since then its main importance has been commercial.

G. R. Howell, "Early History of Southampton," 1887; F. J. C. Hearnshaw, "Short History of Southampton," 1910; H. W. Gidden (ed.), "Charters of Southampton," 1910.

Southampton, Earls of. [Wriothesley.]

South Australia, one of the original states of the Commonwealth of Australia (q.v.).

South Georgia. [Falkland Islands.]

South Orkney is a dependency of the Falkland Islands Colony (q.v.).

South Sandwich is a dependency of the Falkland Islands Colony (q.v.).

South Sea Company, The (1711–1720). In 1711 a company was formed for trading to the "South Seas," which was induced to lend ten millions to the government during Harley's treasurership, and to allow the debt to be funded, in return for a monopoly of the trade with the Spanish colonies. In 1717 Walpole persuaded the South Sea creditors to make a further advance of two millions to the government. In 1720 the South Sea Company, desirous of further government credit, agreed to take over the whole of the national debt (£51,300,000), and to persuade the holders of government annuities to take in exchange South Sea Stock. The government annuities had borne 7 or 8 per cent. interest; the company was to receive 5 per cent. till 1727, and 4 per cent. afterwards. In order to outbid the offers of the Bank of England and other associations, the South Sea Company agreed to pay to government a heavy premium of more than seven millions. The transaction was embodied in an act of April 7, 1720. The company had thus weighted itself heavily, and it was doomed to failure if the public did not subscribe for its shares readily. At first there seemed no danger of this. The public rushed in to subscribe, and the company's stock was taken with the utmost eagerness. But the success of the South Sea scheme had developed a frenzy of speculation in the nation. Companies of all kinds were formed, some on the most outrageous projects, and the public hastened to subscribe, to sell their shares at a premium, and to buy others. The South Sea Company, whose own shares rose to 1,000 per cent. by July, took action against some of the bubble companies and exposed them. This produced an instan-

taneous effect. A panic set in. Everybody was now anxious to sell. All shares fell at once, and the South Sea Company's own stock fell in a month (September 1720) from 1,000 to 175, and by November to 135. The ruin was widespread, and extended to all classes of the nation. Popular feeling cried out for vengeance on the South Sea directors, though in reality the calamity had not been caused by them, but by the reckless speculation which had been indulged in. A retrospective act of parliament was passed, remitting the seven millions due to the government, appropriating the private property of the directors for the relief of those who had suffered, and dividing the capital of the company, after discharging its liabilities, among the proprietors. John Aislabie, the chancellor of the Exchequer, Charles Stanhope, and Secretary James Craggs and his father, were tried and implicated in the matter; and an inquiry, ordered by the Commons, resulted in the expulsion of Aislabie, and the acquittal of Stanhope by three votes. The younger Craggs died before the inquiry was over, and the elder committed suicide.

Lewis Melville, "The South Sea Bubble," 1921.

South Shetland is a dependency of the Falkland Islands Colony (q.v.).

Southwold Bay, THE BATTLE OF (May 28, 1672), was fought between the English fleet under the Duke of York, and the Dutch under de Ruyter. After a desperate struggle the English gained the day, though with the loss of some vessels, and one of their commanders, the Earl of Sandwich. [SOLEBAY.]

Spa Fields Riots, THE (December 2, 1816), were the result of the extreme depression of trade, the severity of the government, and the intrigues of the Spencean philanthropists (q.v.). A great meeting was convened in Spa Fields, Bermondsey, which was to be addressed by "Orator" Hunt (q.v.) and Major Cartwright; but before Hunt arrived the mob, led by one Watson, had rushed into the City, plundered a gunsmith's shop, and threatened the Exchange. They were checked by the police here and dispersed. The ringleaders were charged with high treason, but the prosecution failed.

Spencer Walpole, "History of England from 1815," 1879.

Spain, RELATIONS WITH. Serious relations between England and the Spanish kingdom began with the reign of Henry II. The marriage of Henry's second daughter, Eleanor, to Alfonso VIII of Castile; his arbitration between Alfonso and King Sancho of Navarre; even the younger Henry's pilgrimage to Compostella—always a favourite shrine with Englishmen—Richard I's marriage with Berengaria of Navarre, all contributed to form a close friendship between the two countries which became traditional all through the Middle Ages. The marriage of Blanche of Castile to Louis, son of Philip Augustus, was regarded as a safe means of ensuring peace between John, her uncle, and the French king. The continued possession of Gascony by the English kings made them almost neighbours of some of the Spanish monarchs. The appointment by Henry III of his son, Edward, as regent of Guienne in 1250 was quickly followed by the marriage of Edward with Eleanor, sister of Alfonso X, whose claims through the elder Eleanor to that duchy made it necessary to conciliate him, but whose legislative instinct may well have established sympathy between him and his brother-in-law. Edward I had constant dealings with Spain. He sought earnestly to mediate between France and Castile in 1276. In 1288 he visited Catalonia in order to reconcile the French and Aragonese claimants to Naples; but Alfonso X's death, and the want of success of a policy which rested entirely on mediation, caused Edward's relations to Spain to become less cordial towards the end of his reign, despite the political necessity of seeking in the south a counterpoise to French influence. Again under Edward III the relations were renewed. The Black Prince marched with a great army into Castile to protect Pedro the Cruel against Henry of Trastamara, and his victory at Navarrete (April 3, 1367) (q.v.) for a time kept the tyrant on his throne. Pedro's final discomfiture led to fierce hostility between England and the house of Trastamara, which thus gained possession of the Castilian throne. John of Gaunt and Edmund of Cambridge both married daughters of Pedro. Through his wife, Constance de Padilla, John claimed to be King of Castile, but the brilliant naval victory of the Spaniards over the Earl of Pembroke, which restored La Rochelle to the French (1375), the practical failure of Edmund in Portugal [PORTUGAL, RELATIONS WITH], and the equally unlucky expedition of John to Spain (1385) as pretender and crusader, showed that his chances were hopeless. At last he concluded a treaty with John II of Castile, in which by marrying Catherine, his daughter by Constance, to the heir of Castile, he practically resigned his claims. This marriage renewed the old friendliness. The kings of Castile sympathized with the misfortunes of the house of Lancaster as with those of their own kin. Edward IV in 1467 concluded a treaty with Castile which gave equal trading rights to Castilians and English. The "Libel of English Policy" shows how important Spanish trade was. Yet Edward would not marry his daughter to a Spanish prince, and not until the final Lancastrian triumph under Henry VII was the alliance of the two countries really renewed, and then on conditions that made England almost a satellite of Spain. The marriage of Katharine, daughter of Ferdinand and Isabella, to Princes Arthur and Henry in succession, was the most important result of the restoration of intimate relations. Although Ferdinand hardly treated Henry well, and although his League of Cambrai isolated England from foreign politics, Henry VIII, after

breaking up the Cambrai confederation by the Holy League, fully renewed the Spanish connexion. During the war of the Holy League, and the war which broke out in 1521, Henry was the decided supporter of Ferdinand and Charles his successor. At last fear for the balance of power led Henry to a neutral attitude after the battle of Pavia (1525). The divorce of Katharine involved personal and religious differences, which for a time dissolved the Spanish alliance. For some years England feared a Spanish invasion, but so strong were the ties which bound the two states that in 1541 the English and Spaniards were again fighting side by side against the French. Charles's desertion of Henry at Crépy, and the strongly Protestant policy of Somerset and Northumberland, again produced coolness, until Mary's marriage with Philip, and her subsequent participation in the last of Charles's great wars against France, brought the nations more together than ever. But the catastrophe of Mary's reign was the death-blow of the traditional connexion with Spain. Though it was Elizabeth's policy to keep on fair terms with Spain, the prevalence of religious over political considerations during the crisis of the Catholic Counter-Reformation, the alliance of England and the revolted Netherlands, that of Spain with the pretender to the English throne, and the rise of an English naval power which saw in the Spanish colonies an easy and rich prey, and whose piratical forays soon more than counteracted the friendliness which long and settled trade between the two nations had produced, brought about a state of chronic irritation worse than war, and a series of acts of hostility, which in any other period both parties would have regarded as *casus belli*. At last, on the very eve of the Armada (q.v.), the long-threatened war broke out. Henceforth hatred of Spain became a mark of the patriotic and Protestant Englishman. James I's Spanish policy and Spanish marriage scheme made him intensely unpopular, and Charles I, though less decided than his father, and actually at war with Spain in the beginning of his reign, and often rather opposed to it, was regarded with some suspicion for the same reason. Cromwell revived Elizabeth's policy of uncompromising hostility to Spain as the centre of Catholicism in Europe. Though successful in execution, his policy was quite obsolete in idea, and tended to promote the ambitious schemes of Louis XIV. Clarendon, who also pursued the Elizabethan tradition, incurred disgrace and exile for what had brought glory to the Protector. Still, the hostility to France, which began with the Triple Alliance (q.v.—1668) and the marriage of William and Mary, and which culminated in the Revolution, did not involve any very cordial alliance with the Spaniards, though the effect of the anti-French policy was to help them. So little did William regard Spain as his ally that he joined with Louis XIV in the Partition Treaties (q.v.). The mismanagement of the allies in the Spanish Succession war made the French King of Spain the representative of Spanish national feeling, and consequently renewed an active hostility between the two countries which the retention of Minorca and Gibraltar as the spoils of the British triumph did much to increase. After the Treaty of Utrecht, Alberoni plotted to restore the Pretender, though the collapse at Cape Passaro (1720) showed that the Spaniards were unable to cope directly with the British. Ripperda's Austrian alliance was equally hostile to Great Britain, and involved a short war which, but for Walpole's peace policy, would have proved serious (1727). The commercial clauses of the Treaty of Utrecht (q.v.) gave the British a limited permission to trade in South America, which involved constant disputes with Spanish revenue officers, and resulted in the war of 1739, the prelude to the more general Austrian Succession war. The Family Compact of the Bourbon kings of France and Spain (q.v.) involved Great Britain in a new hostility to the Spaniards at the close of the Seven Years' War. Spain took advantage of the American Revolution to try to regain what her former ill success had caused her to lose. But the long siege of Gibraltar (q.v.) proved a failure. The affairs of the Falkland islands (1770), and of Nootka Sound (1789), again almost involved a conflict. During the French Revolution the weakness of Spain soon compelled her to lend her still imposing fleet to the Republican and Napoleonic governments, and thus to enter into a naval war with Great Britain which cost her many of her colonies. At last Napoleon's reckless imposition of his brother on the Spanish throne involved a national insurrection in Spain, which led to the establishment of a new alliance with Great Britain. During the whole of the Peninsular War (q.v.) Spanish troops assisted the armies of Wellington, but the pride, inefficiency, and procrastination of his allies were one of Wellington's greatest difficulties. The Spanish popular movement, however, showed how Napoleon could be beaten, and without their irregular forces the Peninsular campaigns would hardly have turned out as they did. Subsequent political relations between Great Britain and Spain have been of inferior importance. Canning recognized the independence of the revolted South American colonies in December 1824. The British aided Queen Christina against the Carlists. [British Legion; Spanish Marriages.] In 1907 Alfonso XIII married Princess Ena of Battenberg, a niece of Edward VII.

M. A. S. Hume, "Spain, 1497–1788," revised edn. 1913, and "Philip II," 1897; E. Armstrong, "The Emperor Charles V," 2 vols., 1902; H. B. Clarke, "Spain, 1815–98," 1906; C. E. Chapman, "History of Spain," 1918.

[T. F. T.]

Spanish Blanks, The (1593), was the name given to eight papers seized on the person of a man named George Ker, who was about to convey them to Spain. These papers were blank sheets, signed by the Earls of Huntly, Errol, and Angus, and by Sir Patrick Gordon

of Auchendoune. It was proved by the confession of Ker that the sheets were to have been filled up by two Jesuits, named William Crichton and James Tyrie, and were to have contained assurances that the persons who signed them would not fail to render material aid to the Spanish armies on their landing in Scotland. The result of this discovery was immediate action on the part of the government against the popish lords, who were compelled to fly, and were finally defeated by Argyll at Glenlivet (October 4, 1594).

C. S. Terry, "History of Scotland," 1920.

Spanish Marriages. From 1840 the marriage of Queen Isabella of Spain had become a question of interest to Europe, and especially to Great Britain and France. The French plan was that Isabella should marry the Duke of Cadiz, and her sister the Duc de Montpensier, having in view the eventual succession to the Spanish throne of the children of the latter couple. The British, who strongly disliked this scheme, contended that Isabella should marry the man whom she and the Spanish people selected, and that the welfare of Spain, and not the interest of the Orleans house, should be chiefly consulted. The British government therefore declined actively to recommend any candidate, even Leopold of Saxe-Coburg, who was desirable in every way, and who would have been the British candidate had there been one. In 1841 Prince Albert and Lord Aberdeen both declared that Great Britain would not interfere. In 1845, during Queen Victoria's visit to the King of the French, the latter declared "that he would never hear of Montpensier's marriage with the Infanta of Spain." This pledge was kept as long as Aberdeen remained in office, but the accession of Palmerston in 1846 changed the views of the French. The defeat of their Eastern policy by Palmerston in 1839–40 still rankled in their minds, and he was an object of their settled distrust. Use was therefore made of an indiscretion committed by Lord Dalling, the British ambassador at Madrid, and also of a rather violent dispatch of Palmerston, and on August 29, 1846, the proposed double marriage between the Dukes of Cadiz and Montpensier, and the Spanish Queen and Infanta, was announced. This statement, communicated shortly by M. Guizot to Lord Normanby, British ambassador at Paris, was received in Great Britain with a great deal of indignation. An official protest was made by the British government, and an unofficial one by the queen; but they were disregarded, and the double marriage was celebrated simultaneously at Madrid (October 10). The conduct of Louis Philippe gave an immense shock to his reputation in Europe, and did a great deal to break off the hitherto friendly intercourse with Great Britain. Indignation at his perfidy was increased by sympathy for the young queen thus sacrificed to his policy, and a coolness in consequence arose. The British fears of French aggrandizement were, however, soon removed by the birth of a son and successor to the Queen of Spain.

"Cambridge History of British Foreign Policy," vol. ii. 1923; Lord Stanmore, "Life of Aberdeen," 1890.

Spanish Succession, The War of the, was caused by the refusal of Louis XIV to abide by the settlement of the succession question agreed on by him and William III in the Partition Treaties (q.v.). Besides accepting the will of Charles II, which made his grandson, Philip of Anjou, King of Spain, Louis had reserved his grandson's right to succeed to the French crown, had put French garrisons into the towns of the Spanish Netherlands, and had acknowledged the Pretender as King of England. This last proceeding had roused the English. William III in 1701 had laid the foundation of a grand alliance between Great Britain, Holland, and the Empire. It was now concluded. But on March 8, 1702, William died. War was at once declared on the accession of Anne. The emperor, with the Electors of Brandenburg, Hanover, and the Elector Palatine, Denmark, Holland, and in 1703 Savoy and Portugal, were the allies of Great Britain. France had only the Electors of Cologne and Bavaria, and the Duke of Mantua in Italy. Marlborough, commander of the British and Dutch armies, at once went to Holland with the object of capturing the Netherland fortresses occupied by the French. Venloo, Liége, and other towns on the Meuse were taken, and the French cut off from the Lower Rhine. On the Upper Rhine, Louis of Baden had taken Landau, but was defeated by Villars at Friedlingen. In Italy, Eugene had defeated Villeroi at Cremona, but the French still held the Milanese. (For the war in Spain see p. 992.) In France the Protestants of the Cevennes had broken into open rebellion under Cavalier. In 1703 but little was done. Villars wished to march on Vienna, but was thwarted by the Elector of Bavaria. Marshal Tallard recaptured Landau. Marlborough, who had formed a great plan to reconquer Antwerp and Ostend, was foiled by the Dutch, and had to content himself with the capture of Bonn on the Rhine, and Huy and Limburg on the Meuse. In 1704 Louis set on foot no fewer than eight different armies. His chief effort was to be in the direction of Vienna in concert with the Elector of Bavaria. The Hungarians had been incited to revolt. The position of the emperor seemed desperate. Marlborough, however, in a famous march from the Lower Rhine to the Danube, joined Eugene in Bavaria, and marched upon the French commanders Marsin and Tallard. In August the battle of Blenheim was fought. After that disastrous defeat the French withdrew beyond the Rhine. Landau was taken, and Marlborough, marching into the Moselle valley, conquered Trèves and Trarbach. In this year Gibraltar was captured by Sir George Rooke; while the merciful policy of Villeroi put an end to the rebellion of the

peasantry in the Cevennes. In Italy, Vendôme had nearly reduced the Duke of Savoy to despair. Eugene was sent thither with Prussian troops (1705). Marlborough wished to invade France by the Moselle valley, but was thwarted by the weak co-operation of Louis of Baden. Villeroi suddenly invested Liége, but on Marlborough's return to Flanders affairs were re-established there. Towards the end of the year Louis of Baden won a great battle at Hagenau. In 1706 Marlborough determined by a vigorous effort in Flanders to make a diversion to Eugene in Italy. In Brabant he encountered Marshal Villeroi at Ramillies. By that victory the allies gained the whole of the Netherlands. Marlborough wished to besiege Mons, but was deterred by the slowness with which the Dutch forwarded supplies. In Italy, Eugene by his brilliant relief of the siege of Turin accomplished a work hardly inferior to that of Ramillies. Italy was lost to France, and compelled to join the Grand Alliance. Louis offered terms of peace, but they were, somewhat unreasonably, rejected by Marlborough. The campaign of the next year (1707) was unsuccessful. Marlborough in vain attempted to bring on a pitched battle. On the Rhine, Villars took and destroyed the lines of Stolhofen. Eugene attempted to attack Toulon by invading France from the south-east; but he had no supplies, and withdrew before Marshal Tessé. In 1708 Marlborough resolved to complete the conquest of the Netherlands in conjunction with Eugene. But the latter experienced great difficulty in raising an army. Vendôme suddenly assumed the offensive, deceived Marlborough by a feint on Louvain, captured Ghent and Bruges, and sat down before Oudenarde. In July the battle of Oudenarde was fought. The results, though it was a victory for the British, were not decisive. Eugene's troops at length joined Marlborough; Berwick reinforced the French. The allies determined to besiege Lille. It fell in October, Marshal Boufflers having made a gallant resistance. Ghent and Bruges were reconquered. General Stanhope had captured Port Mahon in Minorca. France was now absolutely exhausted. Louis once more proposed terms. Once more the demands of the allies were intolerable, consisting of the surrender of the Dutch frontier towns, and all claims to the Spanish succession. Louis appealed to the French people. Villars was sent against Marlborough. He allowed Tournai to fall, but when the allies invested Mons he was obliged to risk a battle. By the advice of Eugene the attack was deferred until troops could be brought up from Tournai. The result was that Villars had time to entrench himself, and that the victory of Malplaquet was almost as disastrous for the allies as for the French. Mons fell, but the campaign was closed. A conference was opened at Gertruydenberg; the British and Dutch consented to treat, but were opposed by Austria and Savoy, and the war was resumed. Douai was captured. The next year Marlborough fought his last campaign. He was hampered by the withdrawal of Eugene to superintend and guard the Diet summoned to Frankfort to elect a successor to the Emperor Joseph. By skilful manœuvres he passed Villars's lines at Arras, which the French commander called the *non plus ultra*, and besieged and took Bouchain. But the Tory ministry had already proposed terms of peace. Marlborough was dismissed on his return to England, and Ormonde appointed in his place. He received orders to undertake no offensive operations against the French, but he could not refuse to join Eugene in an attack on Quesnoy. In June 1712 an armistice was declared, and the British troops ordered to separate from Eugene. The imperial general continued the campaign alone. But he was defeated at Denain, and compelled to raise the siege of Landrécies. In March 1713 the Peace of Utrecht (q.v.) was signed. The Germans fought on. But they lost Landau again, and soon afterwards Speyer, Worms, and Kaiserslautern. Villars stormed the lines at Freiburg, and took the town in spite of Eugene's efforts. In the course of 1714 the Treaty of Rastadt was concluded between France and Austria, that of Baden between France and the princes of the empire. Such was the war in continental Europe.

In Spain meanwhile, in 1702, after hostilities had been proclaimed, an armament, under the command of the Duke of Ormonde, appeared off Cadiz. It was ill-conducted, and after plundering the town the British sailed off. On his way back Ormonde destroyed a fleet of treasure ships in Vigo Bay. Some millions of dollars were captured, some millions more were sunk. Next year it was determined to attack Spain from the east and west. The army from the west consisted of Portuguese and British troops commanded by the Earl of Galway. The Archduke Charles, whose claims to the Spanish throne were supported by the coalition, appeared in the camp. But Berwick, the commander of the French, held Galway in check throughout the year 1704. On August 6 Admiral Rooke succeeded in taking Gibraltar. In 1705 Peterborough was sent to Spain with 5,000 Dutch and British soldiers. He was joined by the Archduke Charles. He wished to march at once on Madrid, but was compelled by his instructions to attack Barcelona. The town was almost impregnable; supplies were wanting; he quarrelled with his fellow-commander, the Prince of Hesse. He determined to raise the siege, but suddenly resolved to attack the fortress of Montjuich; it fell. On October 23 Barcelona was captured. Catalonia and Valencia at once declared for the archduke. Peterborough, with 1,200 men, advanced to raise the siege of San Mattheo, where a force of 500 men was surrounded by 7,000 Spaniards. Peterborough deceived the Spanish general as to his numbers, relieved the town, and entered Valencia in pursuit of the Spanish army. Meanwhile an army under the command of Anjou, who was advised by Marshal Tessé, and a fleet under the

Count of Toulouse, were blockading Barcelona. Peterborough attempted to raise the siege, but failed. A new commission was sent him placing him in command of the fleet as well as of the army. He failed to entice the French to battle, but they sailed away, and were followed by the army. In this year Berwick fell back before Galway, and that general occupied Madrid (1706). Philip, Duke of Anjou, fled, and Aragon declared for the Archduke Charles. This was the highest point of the success of the allies. But the hostility of the natives, and the cowardice of Charles, made it impossible to hold the town. Galway fell back and effected a junction with Peterborough at Guadalaxara. Berwick immediately occupied Madrid. Peterborough soon quarrelled with Charles, and left the army. The allies retreated on Valencia. In 1707 Galway was rash enough to attack Berwick in a disadvantageous position on the plain of Almanza, and was utterly defeated. Valencia and Aragon surrendered to the French, and the Archduke Charles was reduced to the province of Catalonia. "The battle of Almanza decided the fate of Spain." Stanhope was sent to command in Spain with Stahremberg, a methodical tactician, as his colleague. For two years nothing was done. At length, in 1710, Stanhope and Stahremberg advanced on Madrid. Philip's troops were defeated at Almenara, and again at Saragossa. Madrid was occupied, and Philip was once more a fugitive. Again it was found impossible to hold the town. The allies retreated to Toledo, and thence to Catalonia. Vendôme, the new French commander, followed hard after them. Stanhope, who had separated from Stahremberg, was surrounded at Brihuega, and had to capitulate; Stahremberg, who marched to his rescue, was defeated after an obstinate resistance in Villa-Viciosa. He fled through Catalonia to Barcelona. Philip was now safe on the throne of Madrid. The war was practically over; for, although Argyll was sent to Catalonia in 1711, he could effect nothing with a demoralized army and no supplies. Perhaps, in view of the impending negotiations, it was not intended that he should effect anything. The Peace of Utrecht was signed in March 1713. The Catalans, faithful to a hopeless cause, deserted by their allies, still fought on. But in September 1714 Barcelona fell, and the war in Spain was at an end.

Marlborough's "Dispatches"; Coxe, "Marlborough," 1818; Mahon, "War of the Succession in Spain"; J. W. Fortescue, "History of the British Army," vol. i, 1889; H. M. A. Parnell, "War of the Spanish Succession," 1905; biographies of Marlborough, etc. [S. L.]

Speaker, The, is the name given to the officers who preside over the House of Lords and the House of Commons. The Speaker of the House of Lords is the lord chancellor or the lord keeper of the great seal; his office is much less important than that of the Speaker of the Lower House. He is allowed to take part in debates, and to vote as an ordinary member; his official duties being chiefly confined to putting the question to the House. The Speaker of the House of Commons, on the contrary, is an official of the highest importance; his duties are not only to preside over the debates and to put the question, but to maintain order, to enforce the decrees of the House, and to act generally as its representative or "mouth": through their Speaker the Commons have the privilege of access to the sovereign. Unlike the Speaker of the Lords, the Speaker of the Lower House, who holds rank as the first commoner of the realm, can take no part in debates, and has no vote unless the numbers are equal, when he has a casting vote. The office, which is filled by vote of the Commons subject to royal approbation, is of very ancient origin. That some spokesman was necessary from the first institution of parliament is sufficiently obvious, but the position and title of Speaker only began to be defined towards the end of the fourteenth century. Henry of Keighley, who in 1301 bore the petition of the Lincoln Parliament to the royal presence; Sir William Trussell, who answered for the Commons in 1343, though not a member of the House itself; Sir Peter de la Mare, the famous leader of the Good Parliament in 1376, who discharged the functions without the title, were all practically in much the same position as the later Speaker; but it is not until 1377 that the title is definitely given to Sir Thomas Hungerford, of whom the rolls report that he "avoit les paroles pur les communes." Henceforward the "prolocutor" appears regularly upon the parliament-roll. The independent, non-partisan Speaker of to-day is, however, the result of a slow process of development which was hardly complete before the nineteenth century.

A. F. Pollard, "The Evolution of Parliament," 1920; J. Redlich, "The Procedure of the House of Commons," 3 vols., 1908; A. I. Dasent, "Speakers of the House of Commons," 1911; E. Lammis, "The Speaker's Chair," 1902.

Speakers of the House of Commons

Sir Thomas Hungerford	1376
Sir Peter de la Mare	1377
Sir James Pekeryng	1378
Sir John Gildersburgh	1380
Sir Richard de Waldsgrave	1381
Sir James Pickering	1383
Sir John Bussy	1394
Sir John Cheyne	1399
John Dorewood	1400
Sir Arnold Savage	1401
Sir Henry de Redeford	1402
Sir Arnold Savage	1404
Sir John Cheyney	1405
Sir John Tivetot	1406
Thomas Chaucer	1407
John Dorewood	1413
Wautir Hungerford	1414
Thomas Chaucer	1414
Richard Redman	1415
Sir Walter Beauchamp	1416
Roger Flou	1416
Roger Hunt	1420
Thomas Chaucer	1421
Richard Banyard	1421
Roger Flou	1422
John Russel	1423
Sir Thomas Wauton	1425
Richard Vernon	1426

SPEAKERS OF THE HOUSE OF COMMONS—*continued*

John Tyrrell	1427
William Alyngton	1429
John Tyrrell	1431
John Russel	1432
Roger Hunt	1433
John Bowes	1435
Sir John Tyrrell	1437
William Boerley	1437
William Tresham	1439
William Burley	1445
William Tresham	1447
John Say	1449
Sir John Popham	1449
William Tresham	1449
Sir William Oldham	1450
Thomas Thorp	1453
Sir Thomas Charleton	1454
Sir John Wenlok	1455
Thomas Tresham	1459
John Grene	1460
Sir James Strangways	1461
John Say	1463
William Alyngton	1472
John Wode	1483
William Catesby	1484
Thomas Lovell	1485
John Mordaunt	1487
Sir Thomas Fitzwilliam	1489
Richard Empson	1491
Sir Reginald Bray	1495
Sir Robert Drury	1495
Thomas Ingelfield	1497
Edmund Dudeley	1504
Thomas Ingelfield	1510
Sir Robert Sheffield	1512
Sir Thomas Nevile	1515
Sir Thomas More	1523
Thomas Audeley	1529
Sir Humphrey Wingfield	1534
Richard Rich	1536
Sir Nicholas Hare	1539
Thomas Moyle	1542
Sir John Baker	1547
Sir James Diar	1553
John Pollard	1553
Robert Brooke	1554
Clement Heigham	1554
John Pollard	1555
William Cordell	1558
Sir Thomas Gargrave	1559
Thomas Wylliams	1563
Richard Onslow	1566
Christopher Wray	1571
Robert Bell	1572
John Popham	1581
Serjeant Puckering	1584
Serjeant Snagg	1589
Edward Coke	1593
Serjeant Yelverton	1597
Serjeant Croke	1601
Serjeant Philips	1603
Sir Randolph Crewe	1614
Sir Thomas Richardson	1621
Sir Thomas Crewe	1624
Sir Heneage Finch	1626
Sir John Finch	1628
John Glanvill	1640
William Lenthall	1640
Francis Rous	1653
William Lenthal	1654
Sir Thomas Widdrington	1656
Chaloner Chute	1659
Thomas Bamfield	1659
Sir Harbottle Grimston	1660
Sir Edward Turner	1661
Sir Job Charlton	1673
Edward Seymour	1673
Sir Robert Sawyer	1678
Edward Seymour	1678
Serjeant Gregory	1679
William Williams	1680
Sir John Trevor	1685
Henry Powle	1689
Sir John Trevor	1690
Paul Foley	1695
Sir Thomas Littelton	1698
Robert Harley	1701
John Smith	1705
Sir Richard Onslow	1708
William Bromley	1710
Sir Thomas Hanmer	1714
Spencer Compton	1715
Arthur Onslow	1728
Sir John Cust	1761
Sir Fletcher Norton	1770
Charles Cornwall	1780
William Grenville	1789
Henry Addington	1789
Sir John Mitford	1801
Charles Abbot	1802
Charles Manners-Sutton	1817
James Abercromby	1835
Charles Shaw-Lefevre	1839
John Evelyn Denison	1857
Sir Henry Brand	1872
Arthur Peel	1884
William Court Gully	1895
James William Lowther	1905
John Henry Whitley	1921
Edward Algernon Fitzroy	1928

Speights Bay, THE BATTLE OF (1651), was fought in Barbados between the colonists (who were Royalists) under Lord Francis Willoughby of Parham, and a Parliamentary force under Admiral Sir George Ayscue and Colonel Alleyne. The victory lay with the Royalists, but in January 1652 Willoughby was forced to treat. Barbados submitted to the Parliament.

Spencean Philanthropists were followers of Thomas Spence (1750–1814), a Yorkshire schoolmaster, who wished to nationalize the land and support the people on the produce. They arranged the Spa Fields Meeting (q.v.), December 2, 1816. Thistlewood (q.v.) and other notorious demagogues were members of the society.

Spencer, CHARLES, 3RD EARL OF SUNDERLAND (1674–1722), in 1698 married Anne, daughter of John Churchill, Duke of Marlborough. He quarrelled with his father-in-law (1702). In 1705 he was sent as envoy extraordinary to Vienna. The Whigs were anxious that he should be admitted to office, as they hoped thereby to draw Marlborough over to their side. The queen disliked him for his impetuosity of temper. However, Godolphin's threats of resignation, and the prayers of Marlborough, induced her to create him secretary of state (1706). In 1710 he foolishly advised Sacheverell's impeachment, and was therefore to a great extent the cause of his party's overthrow. On the accession of George I he was much disgusted at being appointed lord-lieutenant of Ireland, a post he imagined to be inferior to his merits. He began to cabal with the seceders from the Whigs against Townshend and Walpole. In 1716 he went to Hanover, where he gained the ear of George I and Stanhope. He accused Walpole and Townshend of questionable dealings with the Duke of Argyll. George was opposed to Townshend for his opposition to his German plans, and dismissed him; Walpole followed his brother-in-law out of office. Sunderland became secretary of state, and subsequently exchanged offices with Stanhope. The ministry was strong; and in 1719 Walpole and Townshend finding opposition

useless formed a coalition with him. The defeat of the government on the Peerage Bill (q.v.), suggested by Sunderland in order to thwart the future king, had done them but little harm. In 1720 came universal distress owing to the bursting of the South Sea "Bubble." [South Sea Company.] The original scheme had been laid before Sunderland, and therefore it was chiefly on him that odium fell. He was accused of having received £50,000 stock as a present. He was most probably guiltless; indeed it is said that he had lost heavily by the transactions of the company. He was declared innocent by the Lords; but the popular indignation was so great that he was forced to resign. During the last year of his life he is said to have intrigued with the Pretender. "Lord Spencer," says Coxe, "in person was highly favoured by nature, and no less liberally gifted with intellectual endowments. In him a bold and impetuous spirit was concealed under a cold and reserved exterior. He was a zealous champion of the Whig doctrines in the most enlarged sense. Associating with the remnant of the Republicans who had survived the Commonwealth, he caught their spirit. His political idol was Lord Somers, although he wanted both the prudence and temper of so distinguished a leader."

Spencer, John Poyntz, 5th Earl Spencer (1835–1910), was elected M.P. for South Northamptonshire in 1857, but was summoned to the House of Lords in the same year. From 1868 to 1874, and from 1882 to 1885, he was lord-lieutenant of Ireland; from 1880 to 1882, and again in 1886, lord president of the council; and from 1892 to 1895 first lord of the admiralty. In 1901 he was made keeper of the privy seal, and in 1902 became leader of the Liberal peers in the House of Lords until 1905, when he retired from political life.

Spencer, Robert, 2nd Earl of Sunderland (1640–1702), only son of Henry Spencer, 1st earl, was in his early career a supporter of the Exclusion Bill (q.v.) and of the Prince of Orange. But a singularly ambitious and self-seeking disposition made him never hesitate to change his side when it was likely to be unprosperous. He became a strong Tory, the leading minister of James II, and ultimately, though quite destitute of religious convictions, professed his conversion to Catholicism. James found in him a subtle and accommodating minister of very great ability, and quite without scruples. The Revolution of 1688 drove him into exile; but in a few years he returned, and managed to insinuate himself into William III's favour. He was William's adviser in forming a Whig ministry, and was made one of the lords justices in 1697.

Spithead Mutiny, The, took place on April 15, 1797, and was the result of the legitimate grievance of the seamen at a naval system honeycombed with corruption and abuses, which subjected the sailors to barbarous treatment, while keeping their pay at the rate fixed under Charles II and leaving their commissariat to the control of venal and greedy pursers. In conjunction with the still more famous Mutiny at the Nore under Richard Parker (May 12), it was a formidable danger in the midst of the Revolutionary War. Every ship refused to obey the order to sail. At a council on board the *Queen Charlotte*, the meeting was organized, and petitions addressed to the admiralty. Lord Howe (q.v.) succeeded by great tact in winning the mutineers back to their duty, and even persuaded them to express full sorrow, a confession which resulted in an act that removed their worst grievances.

Saturday Review, articles by D. Hannay, June 6—July 4, 1891; C. Gill, "Naval Mutinies of 1797," 1913.

Sports, The Book of, is the name generally given to James I's Declaration, issued in 1618, which permitted the use of "lawful" recreations on Sunday after church time. Dancing, the setting up of maypoles, archery, leaping, and Whitsunales were among the list of lawful sports. Bear-baiting, bowling, and interludes were declared unlawful. Those not attending church were not allowed to join in the sports. In 1633 Charles I reissued the Declaration, and enforced the reading of it in all churches. It was bitterly opposed by the Puritans, and the Long Parliament ordered all copies of the Declaration to be burnt.

Spottiswood, John (1565–1639), Archbishop of St. Andrews, accompanied James VI to England (1603), receiving the archbishopric of Glasgow in the same year in succession to Beaton, and that of St. Andrews in 1615. In 1633 he crowned Charles I at Holyrood, and two years later was made chancellor of Scotland.

Spottiswoode Gang, The (1837), was the name given to an association in London which was formed to collect subscriptions to test the legality of Irish elections. Mr. Spottiswoode, one of the queen's printers, presided over it, and from this circumstance the name arose. Sir Francis Burdett (q.v.) was a zealous supporter of the association. It was attacked in the House by Mr. Blewitt, member for Monmouth, but he met with little support.

M. W. Patterson, "Sir Francis Burdett."

Spragge, Sir Edward (*d.* 1673), was a distinguished naval commander during the reign of Charles II. He took a prominent share in many battles against the Dutch, and, in particular, gallantly, though unsuccessfully, defended Sheerness in 1667. In 1671 he took part in an expedition against the Algerine pirates. In 1673 he was killed in action against Van Tromp (August 11).

Sprat, Thomas, Bishop of Rochester (1635–1713), was educated at Wadham College, Oxford, and took deacon's orders in 1660. He became a fellow of the Royal Society in 1663.

He was created by rapid promotion canon of Westminster (1668), canon of Windsor (1680), Dean of Westminster (1683), and Bishop of Rochester (1684). He was weak enough to accept a seat on James's ecclesiastical commission board in hopes of obtaining the archbishopric of York. He read the Declaration of Indulgence in Westminster Abbey. Soon afterwards he resigned his place on the commission. When William of Orange landed he declined to sign a declaration of fidelity to James. He voted for a regency, but took the oaths of fidelity to William and Mary without hesitation, and assisted at their coronation. In 1692 he was involved in a supposed Jacobite conspiracy, designed by one Robert Young (*d.* 1700), and for a while imprisoned; but his innocence was clearly proved. His chief works are "A History of the Royal Society" (1667) and "An Account of the Rye-House Plot" (1685). Macaulay declared that his prose writings prove him to have been "a great master of our language, and possessed at once of the eloquence of the preacher, of the controversialist, and of the historian. His moral character might have passed with little censure had he belonged to a less sacred profession; for the worst that can be said of him is that he was indolent, luxurious, and worldly; but such failings, though not commonly regarded as very heinous in men of secular callings, are scandalous in a prelate."

Sprigg, Joshua (1618-84), was born at Banbury, entered at New Inn Hall, Oxford, in 1634, became a preacher in London, and fellow of All Souls College, Oxford (1649). He was author of "Anglia Rediviva" (1647), a history of the successes of the New Model, of which book, according to Clement Walker, Nathaniel Fiennes was chief compiler.

Sprott, George (*d.* 1608), a notary of Eyemouth, was legal adviser to Robert Logan of Restalrig, from whom he acquired information concerning the Gowrie conspiracy (q.v.). Having incautiously revealed his knowledge, he was tortured, and, having confessed all he knew, was executed.

Spurs, The Battle of the (1513). [Terouenne.]

Stafford, Edward, 3rd Duke of Buckingham (*d.* 1521), the eldest son of Henry, 2nd Duke of Buckingham, was restored by Henry VII to all his father's dignities and possessions. In 1521 he was tried and executed for high treason, the chief evidence for the charge being that he had unguardedly let fall some expressions to the effect that he would be entitled to succeed to the throne should the king chance to die without issue. No doubt his connexion with the royal line was his real offence in the eyes of the king. The office of constable, which the Duke of Buckingham inherited from the Bohuns, Earls of Hereford, was forfeited by his presumed offence, and was never afterwards revived in England.

Stafford, Henry, 2nd Duke of Buckingham (*d.* 1483), was the grandson of Humphrey, 1st Duke of Buckingham, by Margaret Beaufort, daughter and heiress of Edmund, Duke of Somerset. He was doubly connected with the royal family, and his marriage with Catherine Woodville, daughter of Earl Rivers, made him brother-in-law to Edward IV. He was one of Richard III's great supporters, and was the chief agent in obtaining the crown for him. But before Richard had been on the throne many months Buckingham became alienated from him, the chief reason being apparently Richard's failure to carry out his pledge to give him the moiety of the inheritance of the Bohuns, to which Buckingham had a claim. Influenced by Morton, Bishop of Ely, he entered into a project for calling over Henry, Earl of Richmond. This scheme was supported by the Woodville party, and Buckingham arranged that he should head a rising in the west of England, while Richmond was to land in the south. But the insurrection ended in failure. Buckingham had raised a small force in Wales, but all the bridges over the Severn were broken down, while unusually heavy rains had so swelled the rivers as to make them impassable. Being unable to get provisions, most of his men deserted, and Buckingham himself took refuge in Shropshire, but was betrayed by one of his retainers, taken to Salisbury, and there executed.

J. Gairdner, "Richard III," 1878 and 1898.

Stafford, Sir Humfrey (*d.* 1450), was cousin to the 1st Duke of Buckingham, and nephew of John Stafford, Archbishop of Canterbury. On the outbreak of Jack Cade's rebellion (q.v.) he and his brother were sent with a detachment against the insurgents, whom they met at Sevenoaks; an encounter took place, in which the brothers were defeated and slain.

Stafford, John, Archbishop of Canterbury (*d.* 1452), was a member of one of the most illustrious families in England in the fifteenth century. After holding several minor preferments, he was made Bishop of Bath and Wells in 1425, and in 1443 was translated to Canterbury. He held many important civil offices, being appointed keeper of the privy seal in 1421, treasurer in 1422, and lord chancellor in 1432. He held the great seal till 1450. Stafford was a strong supporter of Beaufort and the peace party, and was zealous in promoting the marriage of Henry VI with Margaret of Anjou. He seems to have played some part in the suppression of Jack Cade's rebellion, and to have helped restore tranquillity to the country by a judicious admixture of firmness and leniency. He was a cautious and experienced administrator, and while he lived he was able to do something to keep the rivalry between the Yorkists and Lancastrians within bounds. He perhaps deserves no higher praise than is bestowed upon him by Fuller, who says—"No prelate hath either less good or less evil recorded of him."

Stafford, Thomas (1531 ?–1557), was the son of Lord Henry Stafford, and the nephew of Cardinal Pole. He was for a long time an exile at the court of France during the reign of Mary, but in April 1557 headed an expedition to the Yorkshire coast, and took the castle of Scarborough (April 25), with the object "of delivering his country from foreign tyranny," though "not to work his own advancement touching possession of the crown." The castle was retaken at once by the Earl of Westmorland, and Stafford was put to death (May 28).

Stafford, William Howard, Viscount (1614–80). [Howard.]

Stair, Earls and Viscount of. [Dalrymple.]

Stamford Bridge, The Battle of (September 25, 1066), was fought between the English, under King Harold II, and the Norwegians, led by Harold Hardrada and Tostig. The early success of the invaders at Fulford, and the submission of York, had not prepared them for the sudden advance of Harold, and they seem to have been taken unawares, as they were encamped on the banks of the Derwent, east of York. The details of the battle are completely unknown, since the narrative of the "Heimskringla" is totally untrustworthy. All that is certain is that after a hard struggle, the English gained a complete victory. Harold Hardrada and Tostig lay dead on the field, and of the Norwegian host very few escaped to their ships. The victory affords testimony to the military capabilities of Harold.

E. A. Freeman, "Norman Conquest," 1867–71.

Stamp Act, The (1765), was one of the immediate causes of the war with the American colonies. George Grenville, as chancellor of the exchequer, in 1764, asserted for the first time the right of the imperial legislature to impose taxation on the colonies; and under the act customs duties were charged upon the importation into the colonies of various foreign products. The proceeds of these duties were, on a totally new principle, to be paid into the imperial exchequer, and to be applied, under the direction of parliament, towards defraying "the necessary expenses of defending, protecting, and securing the British colonies and plantations." This act was also accompanied by a resolution, passed by the Commons, that "it may be proper to charge certain stamp duties" in America, as the foundation of future legislation. A year's delay was allowed by Grenville before passing the threatened bill, but in 1765, in spite of the unanimous protests of the American colonies, and their assertion of their constitutional right to be taxed only through their representatives, the fateful bill passed almost without opposition. It received the royal assent on March 22, and was to come into operation on November 1. The colonists, however, resisted its execution, convening a general congress at New York on November 7, and their discontent became so marked that parliament was reluctantly obliged to take notice of it. Pitt, who had been prevented by illness from being present at the discussions on the bill (January 1766), now came forward, and, insisting that taxation without representation was illegal, urged the immediate repeal of the tax, while he proposed to uphold the dignity of the mother country by asserting the general legislative authority of parliament over the colonies. From this act he expressly excepted the right of taxation, but the Crown lawyers were against him, and, in spite of the fact that Lord Rockingham was now at the head of the government, the exception was eliminated, and the bill was passed maintaining the absolute right of England to make laws for the colonies. Though defeated in this particular, Pitt carried his original proposal, and in 1766 the Stamp Act was repealed in the Commons on March 11 (by 275 to 167) and in the Lords a week later (by 105 to 71); while at the same time several of the obnoxious duties which had been imposed in 1764 were withdrawn, and others were modified.

May, "Constitutional History," ed. F. Holland, 1912; Burke, "American Taxation."

Standard, The Battle of the (1138), was fought near Northallerton in Yorkshire. David of Scotland invaded England on the pretext of assisting Maud against Stephen; but the hatred and dread of the Scots united all the English of the North against him. Under the authority of Thurstan, Archbishop of York, and the leadership of Raoul, Bishop of Durham, an army was collected, while, to inspire courage, the consecrated banners of St. Cuthbert of Durham, St. Peter of York, St. John of Beverley, and St. Wilfrid of Ripon were entrusted to the army. These were all suspended from one pole, like the mast of a vessel, surmounted by a cross, in the centre of which was fixed a silver casket, containing the consecrated wafer of the Holy Sacrament. The pole was fixed into a four-wheeled car, on which the bishop stood. The Scots were completely routed, and fled in disorder.

Standing Orders are orders drawn up by the Houses of Parliament for the regulation of its conduct and proceedings. They continue in force from one parliament to another, until they are repealed or suspended.

Stane Street was the name of two Roman roads, (1) in Sussex, running from Chichester, by way of Bignor Hill, Halnaker Down, Pulborough, Billingshurst, Dorking, and Epsom, to London, (2) in Essex, branching from Ermine Street (q.v.) near Braughing, and proceeding through Bishop's Stortford to Dunmow and Marks Tey, where it joined the London-Colchester road. [Roman Roads.]

T. Codrington, "Roman Roads in Britain," 3rd edn., 1918.

Stanhope, Charles, 3rd Earl Stanhope (1753–1816), took a prominent part in politics, until his extreme partisanship of the French Revolution lost him all influence. His

advocacy of Republicanism often left him single in a minority in the House of Lords. He succeeded to the peerage in 1786, and won notoriety by his attack on Pitt's sinking fund, his chairmanship of the Revolutionary Society (founded in 1788), the firing of his house by a mob in 1794 after his motion to recognize the French Republic, and his construction of calculating machines (1777).

Biography by Ghita Stanhope, 1914.

Stanhope, Lady Hester Lucy (1776–1839), eldest daughter of Charles, 3rd Earl Stanhope, and niece of William Pitt, is remembered for her life in the East. She left England for the Levant in 1810, and settled on the slopes of Mount Lebanon in 1814. From her castle-mansion at Dahar-Jûne she intrigued against British consuls and Ibrahim Pasha, and endeavoured to firm the central authority of Sultan Mahmud II. Her fearlessness secured for her almost despotic power in the neighbourhood, and she won the reputation of a prophetess.

Meryon, "Memoirs of Lady Hester Stanhope," 1845; A. W. Kinglake, "Eöthen," ch. viii; biographies by Paule Bordeaux, 1924; P. Descoux, 1901; Catherine L. W. Primrose, 1897 and 1914; Julia Roundell, 1909.

Stanhope, James, 1st Earl (1673–1721), in 1695 served as a volunteer in Flanders, and was given a colonel's commission by William III. In Anne's first parliament he sat as member for Newport (I. of W.) and Cockermouth. He was made brigadier-general in 1704. At the siege of Barcelona he was second in command to Peterborough (1705), and afterwards returned to England. In 1708 he brought forward a bill for the dissolution of the Highland clans; but as the danger of a Jacobite invasion passed away, the bill was dropped. In the same year he was appointed commander in Catalonia [Spanish Succession, War of]. Unsuccessful on the mainland, he took Port Mahon in Minorca, and in 1710 advanced on Aragon. The Spaniards were utterly defeated at Almenara, and again at Saragossa. Madrid was occupied, but Stanhope was caught, defeated, and taken prisoner by Vendôme at Brihuega (December 9). He was ransomed in 1712, and became on his return leader of the Whig opposition. Owing to his firmness, no attempt at rebellion was made by the Jacobites on the death of Anne. He was prepared, if necessary, to seize the Tower. On the accession of George I he became secretary of state, and was dispatched to Vienna to persuade the emperor to agree to the Barrier Treaty (q.v.). His vigorous measures checked a serious outbreak in England during the rebellion of 1715. He went with George to Hanover (1716), and began negotiations with the Abbé Dubois for the establishment of friendly relations with the regent of France. The result was the triple alliance between Great Britain, France, and Holland (1717). On the retirement of Walpole and Townshend from the ministry in April, Stanhope became first lord of the treasury and chancellor of the exchequer until March 1718, when he was removed from the treasury and became secretary of state for the Southern department. At home he succeeded in repealing the Schism Act (q.v.), but his Peerage Bill (q.v.) was thrown out by large majorities in the Lower House (1719). In 1720 came the downfall of the South Sea scheme. [South Sea Company.] Stanhope had no share in the speculation; and even proposed that ministers who had received bribes from the company should be accounted guilty of "notorious and dangerous corruption." During the examination of the directors the young Duke of Wharton directed a violent attack against the administration, especially against Stanhope himself. He rose to reply; but his passion brought a rush of blood to his head, which next day proved fatal (February 4, 1721).

F. L. Edwards, "James, 1st Earl Stanhope, and British Foreign Policy," 1925.

Stanhope, Philip Dormer, 4th Earl of Chesterfield (1694–1773), was educated at Trinity Hall, Cambridge. After the accession of George I he was made gentleman of the bedchamber to the Prince of Wales. He sat as M.P. for St. Germans in 1715. The division between the Prince of Wales and the court soon drove him into opposition in spite of the entreaties of General Stanhope, and he joined the discontented Whigs. [Walpole, Sir Robert.] He had great expectations from George II on his accession (1727); but had the misfortune to offend Queen Caroline. The death of his father a year previously removed him to the Upper House. In 1728 he was sent as ambassador to The Hague, and on his return was made high steward of the household, but was dismissed in 1733 by Walpole for his opposition to the excise scheme. Forthwith he became a prominent member of the opposition, and in 1737 made a magnificent speech against the Playhouse Bill (q.v.). In 1741 he went abroad; and at Avignon met Ormonde, with whom it is said he attempted to concert measures for a Jacobite combination against Walpole. He was excluded from office under Pelham's administration; and continued in opposition, directing his attacks especially against the employment of Hanoverian troops, and the foreign policy of Carteret. At length, in 1744, the king's repugnance was so far overcome that he was made lord-lieutenant of Ireland. His administration of this office deserves the highest praise, and his firm government checked any tendency there might be to imitate the example of the Scottish rebels in 1745. In 1745 he was again sent to Holland, where his negotiations induced the Dutch to send troops to the campaign which terminated in the battle of Fontenoy. In 1746 he became secretary of state. He aimed at governing the king through the latter's mistress, Lady Yarmouth, but finding he could make no progress in bringing about a peace, he resigned in 1748. He still continued to speak, and in

1751 proposed and carried out the reformation of the calendar (q.v.). In 1752 he lost h s hearing. In 1757 he was asked to negotiate between Pitt and Newcastle during the intrigues which led to the formation of that great ministry known by their names. In 1768 his natural son, Philip, the object of the greatest care and affection on his part, and to whom he had addressed his famous " Letters to his Son " on which his literary fame largely rests, died, and from that time Chesterfield's life was desolate and cheerless. " Chesterfield was," says his biographer, Dr. Maty, " a nobleman unequalled in his time for variety of talents, brilliancy of wit, and elegance of conversation." Lord Stanhope, referring to his political career, says that " diplomacy was especially suited to his taste and talents. At home, his career, though never inspired by a high and pervading patriotism, deserves the praise of humane, liberal, and far-sighted policy. His defects were a want of generosity, dissimulation carried beyond justifiable bounds . . . and a looseness of religious principle."

Maty's " Life," prefixed to Chesterfield's " Works," 2 vols., 1777 ; W. Ernst-Browning, " Memoirs . . ," 1893 ; R. Coxon, " Chesterfield and His Critics," 1925 ; and biography by W. H. Craig, 1907.

Stanhope, William, 1st Earl of Harrington (1690 ?–1756), was sent as ambassador to Spain in 1717, and two years later went on a mission to the French army. He was plenipotentiary at the Congress of Soissons (1728). In 1729 he was again dispatched to Spain, where he concluded the Treaty of Seville (q.v.). He was immediately created Lord Harrington, and shortly afterwards became secretary of state. He consistently supported Walpole for many years, but in 1738 he joined the opposition and warmly advocated war with Spain. In 1742 he was created an earl, and lord president of the council, but on the resignation of Lord Granville he again became secretary of state. In 1746 he resigned in pique against George II, and was transferred to the lord-lieutenancy of Ireland, which appointment he resigned in 1751.

Tindal, " History " ; Coxe, " History of England " ; Stanhope, " History of England."

Stanley, Edward, 3rd Earl of Derby (1508–72), on the death of Edward VI, declared in favour of Mary, and by his example aided materially in preventing any recognition of Lady Jane Grey by the country at large. He filled the office of lord high steward at Mary's coronation, and subsequently did all he could to prevent the queen's marriage with Philip of Spain. Under Elizabeth, Lord Derby's religion prevented him from finding any great favour at court ; but in spite of strenuous efforts made by the Catholic peers to entice him into taking an active part in the Northern rebellion of 1569, he refused to implicate himself.

Derby's " Correspondence," 1890.

Stanley, Edward George Geoffrey Smith, 14th Earl of Derby (1799–1869), entered parliament in 1822 as member for Stockbridge. He made his first speech, after two years' silent voting, in favour of a private bill for lighting Manchester with gas, and its ability was noticed by Sir James Mackintosh. In 1827 he took office under Canning as under-secretary for the colonies. On the death of Canning, Stanley retained his office under Goderich, but refused to serve under Wellington in 1828. He was a strenuous advocate of Catholic emancipation, parliamentary reform, reciprocity in free trade, with a moderate fixed duty on corn, and the foreign policy of Canning. Therefore, from 1828 to 1830 he remained in opposition. He then took office under Lord Grey as chief secretary for Ireland. Stanley was quite as earnest as Lord John Russell himself, and much more vehement, in his advocacy of the Reform Bill. The state of Ireland was full of danger. The triumph in the matter of Catholic emancipation, and many grievances, real or fancied, had incited the people to attempt an agitation for repeal of the Union, and every kind of outrage was rife. It fell to Stanley's lot to introduce a Coercion Act in this emergency, and, as a consequence of this, he became very unpopular in Ireland, and was frequently embroiled with Daniel O'Connell. In May 1833 Stanley was charged with the duty of bringing forward the measure for the emancipation of the slaves, and made a speech of remarkable eloquence. In 1834, being now by courtesy Lord Stanley, he separated himself from the Whigs on the question of the Irish Church, and with Sir James Graham, the Duke of Richmond, and some others, formed the intermediate party known as the " Derby Dilly " (q.v.). He rejected the overtures made to him by Sir Robert Peel in 1834, but accepted them in 1841, and took office as secretary of state for the colonies. But on the question of free trade in 1846 Stanley separated from Peel, and was installed, by the advice of Wellington, in the leadership of the Tory party, with Lord George Bentinck and Disraeli as his lieutenants.

In 1852 he held office for ten months, but by the end of the year had to give way to the coalition ministry of Lord Aberdeen. In 1858, being prime minister again, he succeeded in passing his India Bill, but was defeated on the question of parliamentary reform. An appeal to the country was ineffectual, and he resigned office in June 1859. In 1866 his party succeeded in defeating Lord Russell's new Reform Bill, but only to pass next year a similar one, which its opponents declared to be of a still more sweeping character. Early in 1868 Lord Derby surrendered the leadership of his party into the hands of Disraeli, and retired into private life. He died on October 23, 1869. From 1852 to his death he was chancellor of the University of Oxford. He was a man of cultured taste, and a good Greek scholar, and in 1864 published a blank-verse translation of the *Iliad*, which attracted a considerable amount of notice at the time. Lord Derby's speeches

were greatly admired for their eloquence and fire, and he is often referred to as the "Rupert of Debate."

Biography by G. E. B. Saintsbury, 1892 and 1906.

Stanley, Edward George Villiers, 17th Earl of Derby (*b.* 1865), son of Frederick Arthur, 16th earl, was M.P. for the West Houghton division of Lancashire from 1892 to 1906, financial secretary to the war office from 1900 to 1903, and postmaster-general from 1903 to 1905. He is best known for the Derby Scheme of voluntary military service which he devised in 1915, during the Great War, while director of recruiting. He subsequently became secretary for war 1916–18 and 1922–4, and was British ambassador in Paris 1918–20.

Stanley, Edward Henry, 15th Earl of Derby (1826–93), son of Edward, 14th earl, entered parliament in 1848 for King's Lynn, and became under-secretary for foreign affairs in his father's first ministry. In Lord Derby's second administration, in 1858–9, he was secretary for India, and managed the transfer of the government from the directors of the East India Company to the Crown. He was secretary for foreign affairs in 1866, and succeeded to his peerage in 1869. In 1874 he was secretary for foreign affairs in Disraeli's cabinet, but resigned simultaneously with the Earl of Carnarvon, the colonial secretary, owing to differences with his colleagues on the Eastern question in 1878. In 1880 he abandoned the Conservatives, and in 1882 joined Gladstone's ministry as colonial secretary. In 1886 he parted company with Gladstone on the Home Rule question, and became one of the leaders of the Liberal Unionists.

Stanley, Edward Smith, 13th Earl of Derby (1775–1851), was first returned to parliament in 1796 as Whig member for Preston. In 1812 he was elected for Lancashire, which he continued to represent till the changes effected by the Reform Bill. In 1832 he was called to the House of Lords, by the title of Baron Stanley of Bickerstaffe, to strengthen the Whig ministry. In 1834, on his father's death, he succeeded to the earldom of Derby.

Stanley, Ferdinando, 5th Earl of Derby (*d.* 1594), was the grandson of Eleanor, Countess of Cumberland, who was herself the granddaughter of Henry VII, through his daughter Mary, the wife of Charles Brandon, Duke of Suffolk. The Jesuits, upon his succession to the title, urged him, through an agent named Hesketh, to assume the title of King of England; but the earl revealed the plot to the government, and was poisoned for his loyalty by the conspirators.

Stanley, James, 7th Earl of Derby, (1607–51), at the outbreak of the Civil War was appointed by the king lord-lieutenant of Cheshire and Derbyshire, as he was then generally believed to have a great influence upon the people of those two counties. He is said to have shed the first blood of the Civil War in a skirmish at Manchester, July 15, 1642. But his influence was overrated, and his ability was apparently insufficient for the post he held: he was distrusted by the king, and not supported by the people. In spite of several successes, he was forced to abandon the struggle and retire to the Isle of Man. Lathom House was heroically defended by his countess, Charlotte, till December 1643. In 1651 he joined Charles II on his march into England, but whilst endeavouring to raise Lancashire, was surprised and defeated by Robert Lilburn at Wigan. He himself escaped, and took part in the battle of Worcester; but was taken prisoner, tried by court-martial, condemned to death, and beheaded at Bolton, October 15, 1651. The countess continued to hold the Isle of Man till it was reduced by Fairfax in November 1651. "He was a man," says Clarendon, "of great honour and clear courage, and all his defects and misfortunes proceeded from his having lived so little time amongst his equals that he knew not how to treat his inferiors."

Biography by J. G. Cummings, 1867; F. S. Hampson, "Execution of James Stanley, 7th Earl of Derby," 1909.

Stanley, Thomas, 1st Earl of Derby and 2nd Baron Stanley (*d.* 1504), was a nobleman who played a prominent part during the reigns of Edward IV, Richard III, and Henry VII. He married Warwick's sister Eleanor, and gained Edward IV's favour, which he retained in spite of his temporary support of the Lancastrian cause in 1471. In Edward's pretended war upon France (1475), in support of Charles the Bold, Stanley was the ready recipient of the bribes of the French king, and it was in a great measure in consequence of his counsel thus inspired that Edward IV became a party to the Treaty of Pecquigny (q.v.), September 13, 1475. During the brief reign of Edward V Lord Stanley figured as a loyal upholder of the rights of his young sovereign, and was one of the nobles arrested at the council board in Richard of Gloucester's *coup d'état* of June 13, 1483. Gloucester, however, not only forbore proceeding to extremities with him, but sought to secure his service by conferring upon him the high office of constable of England after the fall of Buckingham. On the death of his first wife, Eleanor Neville, Lord Stanley married Margaret Beaufort, mother of Henry Tudor, Earl of Richmond. On the landing of Henry Tudor at Milford Haven, Lord Stanley, on a plea of illness, refused to join Richard, and was only kept from following the example of his brother, Sir William Stanley, who had openly united with the invader, by the fact of his son, Lord Strange, being detained in Richard's hands as a security for his father's good faith. He still, however, kept in the neighbourhood of the invaders with a force of some 5,000 men; and although it was his brother's intervention on Richmond's side in the heat of the battle that decided the day, it was Sir Thomas who placed Richard's crown

upon the head of Henry of Richmond. At the coronation of his stepson, Henry VII, at which he officiated as high constable, he was raised to the dignity of Earl of Derby; and apparently continued in friendly relations with Henry VII until his death.

Stanley, Sir William (*d.* 1495), was the brother of Henry VII's stepfather, justiciar of North Wales, under Richard III, and the nobleman to whose treacherous conduct Henry Tudor's victory at Bosworth Field was chiefly due. In consideration of his important services on this occasion, Henry made him lord chamberlain, and one of his counsellors. Stanley, however, was not satisfied. His continued demands alienated the king, for whom Stanley conceived a growing dislike. He became involved in some way with the affair of Perkin Warbeck. On the evidence of the king's spy, Sir Robert Clifford, he was suddenly arrested on a charge of treason, and after the merest semblance of a trial, was condemned and executed on that charge (February 16, 1495).

Stanley, Sir William (1548–1630), who had been employed for some time in Ireland, was in 1585 recalled and sent to the Low Countries, where he became governor of Deventer. He was a traitor to Elizabeth, and a friend of the Jesuits, and is supposed to have been privy to Babington's conspiracy (q.v.). After the discovery of the plot, Sir William accomplished a long-meditated piece of treachery, and surrendered Deventer to the Spaniards, himself entering Philip's service with 1,300 men (January 1587). Guy Fawkes was his subaltern officer.

Stannary Courts, The, were the courts of the administration of justice among the tinners of Cornwall and Devonshire, held before the lord warden and his steward. The privilege of the tin-workers to be subject to the jurisdiction of these courts only was confirmed by a charter in 1305, and by a statute in 1377, pleas of life, land, and member excepted. There was no appeal to Westminster, but to the council of the Duke of Cornwall after reference to the warden in person. These courts became the engines of an arbitrary prerogative which robbed the mining districts of the west of the benefit of the common law. The Stuarts largely availed themselves of them; and in consequence of the complaints made, the Long Parliament (16 Car. I, c. 15) passed an explanatory and regulating act concerning them, at the same time that it abolished some analogous special jurisdiction. Since that date the proceedings of the Stannaries Courts have ceased to possess any great historical importance.

Stapledon, Walter de (*d.* 1326), was made Bishop of Exeter in 1307, and in 1320 lord high treasurer. He sided with Edward II against Isabella and Mortimer, and soon after the landing of the latter in England he was seized by the citizens of London, and barbarously murdered. This tenure of the treasurership was marked by a series of important exchequer reforms, which form part of the general attempt to rehabilitate the royal authority after the defeat of the Ordainers and the death of Thomas of Lancaster.

Staples, or **Marts,** for the sale of the chief commodities of England, viz., wool, woolfels (skins), leather, lead, and tin, were established in certain places by Edward I and Edward II. They were continuous marts, the principle of which was to "regulate the stream of commerce and force it into definite channels . . . to facilitate the collection of the customs revenue." The foreign staple was fixed first at Antwerp and then at St. Omer; Edward I established staples in England at Newcastle, Hull, Boston, Yarmouth, Ipswich, London, Sandwich, Southampton and Bristol (1297). Edward II issued in 1313 the Ordinance of the Staple, ordering the setting up of a fixed staple for wool. No home staple was set up, however, until the Ordinance of 1326 appointed 14 places —8 in England, 3 in Ireland and 3 in Wales— at the instigation of Hugh le Despenser. When the English took Calais a staple was set up there (1348) which, on the loss of Calais in 1558, was moved to Bruges. After some changes the staple system was established in 1353 by another Ordinance. The ten English staple towns are enumerated, Dublin, Waterford, Cork, and Drogheda being fixed on for Ireland, and Carmarthen and other places for Wales; the ancient customs payable on staple goods are recited; all merchants, save merchants of the staple, are forbidden to buy or export these goods, and arrangements are made for the government of each staple by its own mayor and constables. The appointment of staple towns was a measure of considerable importance. As a matter of administration it facilitated the collection of the customs. Constitutionally, it bore on the relative rights of the Crown and the parliament as regards taxation. Possessing exclusive privileges, and under the special protection of the Crown, the merchants formed a body apart from the estates of the realm, and the king negotiated with them separately. Commercially, the staples were of importance as ensuring the quality of English exports, for at the staple ports the officers viewed and marked the goods of the merchants. From the jurisdiction of the courts of the staples arose a species of estate defeasible on condition subsequent, called *statute staple* of the same nature as that founded on the statute, De Mercatoribus, 13 Edw. I, being a security for debt whereby not only the person and goods of the debtor might be taken, but his lands might be delivered to the creditor until out of the profits the debt should be satisfied. "So much more readily did the feudal restraints on alienation yield to considerations of a commercial kind than to any others" (Stephen's "Blackstone," i, 317). This security, originally granted only to traders, was extended as a recognizance in the nature of a statute staple to all subjects by 23 Hen.

VIII, c. 6. Such securities have been superseded by the law of bankruptcy.

E. Lipson, "Economic History of England," vol. i, 4th edn., 1926; W. E. Lingelbach, "Merchant Adventurers" (in Royal Historical Society's Trans., 1902).

[W. H.]

Star Chamber, The. It was at one time usual to trace the origin of this court—of such great constitutional importance in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries—to the famous statute of 3 Henry VII, c. 1, which, after reciting the evils caused by maintenance, and the giving of liveries, by the abuse of the power of the sheriffs, by the bribery of jurors, and by the riots and unlawful assemblies which prevented the administration of justice, empowered the chancellor, treasurer, and keeper of the privy seal, or any two of them, with a bishop and temporal lord of the council, and the chief justices of the King's Bench and Common Pleas, or two other justices in their absence, to call before them persons offending in the above-mentioned respects, and to inflict such punishments, not extending to death, as might be imposed were they convicted in the ordinary course of law. It has been generally recognized, however, that the jurisdiction exercised under the Tudors by the Court of Star Chamber was not new, and that the most the statute accomplished was to give parliamentary recognition to powers long claimed and exercised under the Tudors by the council, while at the same time limiting their exercise to what has been described as a committee or specialized aspect of that body. The council had long been accustomed to meet in the Star Chamber, but now the term Star Chamber began to be particularly applied to the new court which, according to the commonly-accepted theory, had separated from the council as a result of the act of 1487. The fact that the Court of Star Chamber, as it emerges in the later Tudor and Stuart periods, bears little resemblance either in composition or powers to the tribunal of Henry VII's statute discourages an unqualified acceptance of the traditional views of its origin. In the reigns of James I and Charles I its jurisdiction included "most misdemeanours of an aggravated nature, such as disturbances of the public peace, assaults accompanied by serious violence, conspiracies and libels. Besides these every misdemeanour came within the proper scope of its inquiry, those specially of public importance, and for which the law provided no sufficient punishment." At the same time the limitations of the statute as to judges were disregarded, since any member of the privy council was allowed to sit. This divergence between the actual and what were accepted as the statutory powers of the court was regarded in the seventeenth century as the result of usurpation, and was made one of the chief grounds for its abolition by the Long Parliament. Within recent years, however, the origins of the Star Chamber have been the subject of careful investigation, and the original relation between the statute of 3 Henry VII and the court supposedly derived from it has been called in question. Professor Pollard has suggested a new explanation of the discrepancy between the theoretical and the actual Star Chamber. He boldly maintains that the act of 1487, so far from creating either the court or its jurisdiction, had no concern with either. The tribunal it established was, he contends, designed to deal with special problems of a temporary nature, and had only a transitory existence. For this view he finds negative evidence in the fact that the words "Star Chamber" do not once occur in the act itself and that the title "pro Camera Stellata" is obviously a much later addition to the roll. The Court of Star Chamber of the later Tudor and the Stuart reigns he prefers to regard not as the creation of any specific enactment, or even as an outcome of that tendency to differentiation and devolution which marked the growth of the Tudor conciliar system; but rather as the residuum which remained after that differentiation had taken place. He sees in it the direct lineal descendant of the old undifferentiated royal council of the Middle Ages, exercising such of its ancient functions (mainly judicial in character) as had not been assigned to the numerous courts and councils which had branched off from the parent stem in the course of the sixteenth century. "The mediæval king's council," he says, "continued its existence under the Elizabethan disguise of the Court of Star Chamber," while its former political power passed to its offspring, the Tudor privy council. If a parliamentary sanction for its jurisdiction be needed it can, he avers, be found in the repeated delegation to the council in the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries of statutory authority to hear and determine cases with which parliament had not itself leisure to deal.

It can scarcely be doubted that during a great part at any rate of the Tudor period the power of the court was beneficially exercised. "It is the effect of this court," says Sir Thomas Smith in his treatise on the "Commonwealth of England" written early in the reign of Elizabeth, "to bridle such stout noblemen or gentlemen who would offer wrong by force to any manner of men, and cannot be content to demand or defend the right by order of the law." It was able to provide equitable remedies for cases which could not be fairly dealt with by the ordinary law courts, and its procedure, whereby juries were dispensed with and the accused was examined upon oath, undoubtedly had its advantages in the days when maintenance and bribery were still rife. But its powers were such as to be liable to grave abuse, and in the later period of its history it became an instrument of tyranny. Juries were summoned before it for verdicts disagreeable to the government, and were fined or imprisoned, so that although the Star Chamber could not itself condemn to death, the fear of its displeasure made juries pliant to its will. It imposed ruinous fines (though in

many cases they were remitted), and began in the later Tudor period to sentence to the pillory, whipping, and cutting off of ears. Under James I and Charles I it became the chief weapon of defence used by the government against its assailants and a court of politicians.

The punishments inflicted by it in such cases as those of Prynne (q.v.), Burton (q.v.), and Bastwick (q.v.) excited general indignation, and the Long Parliament proceeded to its abolition by the famous act of July 1641. A committee of the Lords in 1661 reported "that it was fit for the good of the nation that there be a court of like nature to the Star Chamber," but the government did not venture to submit a bill to that effect to the Commons. The restoration of the monarchy was unaccompanied by a restoration of the Prerogative Courts.

J. R. Tanner, "Tudor Constitutional Documents," 1922; C. L. Scofield, "Star Chamber," 1900; I. S. Leadam, "Select Cases Before the Star Chamber," 1903; A. F. Pollard, "Council, Privy Council and Star Chamber" (in the *English Historical Review*, 1922); W. P. Baildon, "Les Reportes del Cases in Camera Stellata," 1894.

State Trials, The. Collections of trials for treason and others of political interest have been made and published under the designation of "State Trials." They are often invaluable sources of historical information, especially in the seventeenth century. The earliest collection was in six volumes folio, published early in the eighteenth century. T. B. Howell's edition in thirty-four volumes with index includes all up to 1820. (Vols. 1–10, covering the period 1163–1685, were edited by Cobbett and published 1809–11; Howell's work (vols. 11–34) covers the period 1685–1820, and was published 1811–26.) A useful series of selections from the State Trials was issued from the Cambridge Press under the editorship of Mr. Willis Bund in 1880.

Statutes may be defined as written laws, established by the sovereign, with the advice and assent of the Lords spiritual and temporal, and of the Commons in parliament assembled. Our legislation, however, did not take this form for a long time. The edicts, or assizes of Henry II, are declarations of methods of procedure rather than enactments, and most of the legislative work of Edward I was done without the co-operation of the Commons. The declaration of Edward II in 1322, that matters touching the state of the king, the kingdom, and people should be established in parliament by the king with the assent of the prelates, earls, barons, and the commonalty, forms an era in the history of our legislation. Nevertheless, the author of the "Mirror," writing in this reign, declares that ordinances made by the king and his clerks, by aliens and others, took the place of laws established by parliament, and for a long time our kings constantly neglected to gain the full concurrence of the three estates, legislating by ordinances or temporary regulations put forth by the council rather than by statute. So long also as statutes were founded simply on petition, it sometimes happened that one estate only gained a statute, and more often that the statutes which were drawn after the parliament had broken up, and which purported to be answers to the petitions presented, were more or less contrary to them. To obviate this, the Commons in the reign of Henry V demanded and obtained that the judges should frame the statutes before the end of each parliament. In the next reign the present system of making statutes by act of parliament was introduced. Statutes are written laws; yet such laws as were made before legal memory—i.e., the beginning of the reign of Richard I—though written, form part of our *lex non scripta*. Some written statutes also are extant that are not of record, being contained only in chronicles and memories, yet even though a statute be not of record, it is still part of the written law if it is within legal memory. The earliest statute of record is 6 Edward I, called the Statute of Gloucester. The first statute in the printed collection is the Great Charter, 9 Hen. III, as confirmed and entered on the statute roll of 25 Edward I. The statutes from the Great Charter to the end of Edward II are said to be *incerti temporis*, and are called *antiqua*, while all those that follow are called *nova statuta*. A statute takes effect from the moment that it has received the royal assent, unless some special time is expressed in the statute itself. Among the rules to be observed in interpreting statutes, it may be noted that a statute is to be interpreted not by the letter, but according to the spirit and intention with which it was made: and so judges, whose business it is to interpret statutes, sometimes depart from the mere words; that remedial statutes are to be interpreted in a wider, penal in a narrower fashion; and that though it was formerly held that if a statute repealing an earlier one was itself repealed, the earlier statute was thereby revived; since 13 & 14 Vict. c. 21, this is no longer the rule. Statutes have been named in different ways at different times, being called sometimes by the name of the place where they were made, as the Statute of Merton, sometimes by their subject, as "De Donis Conditionalibus"; and sometimes by their first words, as "Quia Emptores" (q.v.). They are now described by the year of the king's reign in which they were made, with the chapter, and when two sessions have been held in one year, with the statute denoting the session in which it was enacted, as 1 William & Mary, st. 2, c. 2 (the Bill of Rights). Statutes are now divided into Public General Acts; Local and Personal Acts, declared Public; Private Acts printed and Private Acts not printed. At first the usual language of our statutes was Latin, but as early as the reign of Edward I we find French also occasionally used, and it had become the normal language of legislation by the reign of Henry VI. Some of the statutes of Henry VI and Edward IV are in English; but Henry VII is the first

king whose statutes are all expressed in our own tongue.

"Statutes of the Realm," 10 vols., 1810; "Statutes at Large"; Chitty, "Statutes," ed. W. H. Aggs; T. F. T. Plucknett, "Statutes and Their Interpretation in the First Half of the 14th Century," 1922.
[W. H.]

Steele, Sir Richard (1672–1729), was born in Dublin. At Oxford he became acquainted with Addison, and when, after failing there and in the army, he aspired to a literary career, Addison secured him introductions to the Whig leaders, on whose behalf he soon distinguished himself. In 1709 he entered parliament, but his pamphlets, "The Crisis" and "The Englishman," led to his expulsion by the Tory majority. After the accession of George I he was knighted, elected a member of parliament, and wrote numerous political pamphlets. He quarrelled with his party about the Peerage Bill of 1719 (q.v.), and, not succeeding in his literary and stock-jobbing projects, retired to Carmarthen, his wife's home, where he died. Of his literary eminence there is no need to speak here. As a political writer Steele was one of the boldest and most sagacious of the Whigs, and at the same time he was, in a great degree, free from the narrowness which came over some of the "old Whigs" in George I's reign. His political pamphlets are among the most important contributions to the controversial literature of the period. The *Tatler* first appeared on April 12, 1709, and ended on January 2, 1711. The *Spectator* began on March 1, 1710, and ran to 555 numbers.

Biography by G. Aitken, 1889.

Steenie was the pet name given by James I to his favourite, George Villiers, 1st Duke of Buckingham (q.v.).

Steinkirk, The Battle of (August 3, 1692), was fought between William III and the French soon after the naval victory of La Hogue. The French had taken Namur. On the frontier of Brabant Marshal Luxemburg was left to oppose William, whose head-quarters were at Lambeque; Luxemburg's were about six miles off at Steinkirk, while still farther off lay a large force under Marshal Boufflers. The country between the armies was exceedingly difficult. A spy in the English army had habitually informed Luxemburg of the movements of the allies. His correspondence was discovered, and with pistol at his breast he was forced to write false information dictated by William. The French commander was thrown off his guard. The whole of the allied army marched down upon him in the night, but the progress of William's forces was obstructed by several fences and ditches, and Luxemburg was able to get his troops into order. Meanwhile, Boufflers was coming up. Mackay's division was the first to engage. The enemy were attacked and routed. It was determined to send Louis XIV's household troops against the English, who, after a bloody struggle, were borne down. Count Solmes refused to bring up his infantry to their support, and the division was nearly destroyed. The French loss was about 7,000, and that of the allies was not much greater. The English army and the English nation loudly expressed their resentment against Solmes.

J. W. Fortescue, "History of the British Army," vol. i, 1889.

Stephen, King (*b.* c. 1094, *r.* 1135–54), was the third son of Stephen, Count of Blois, and Adela, daughter of William the Conqueror. He was brought up at the court of his uncle Henry I, from whom he received in marriage Matilda or Maud of Boulogne, niece of the queen. He took the oath of fealty to his cousin the Empress Maud, but immediately on the death of Henry I he caused himself to be proclaimed king. The dislike of Maud's husband, Geoffrey of Anjou, contributed in great measure to Stephen's success, and at first he met with no opposition. But his misgovernment and his conduct towards the Church and the officials of the administration rapidly alienated his friends, and in 1138 the empress invaded England in company with her brother, Robert of Gloucester. From 1138 to 1145 was a period of complete anarchy, sometimes one, sometimes the other party gaining the upper hand. Every lord of a castle acted as king in his own domain. The fearful effects of feudal government were for the first and last time fully exemplified in England. In 1147 Robert of Gloucester died, and in 1148 the empress retired to Normandy leaving Stephen master of England. But in 1153 her son Henry landed in England, and the war was renewed. A treaty was made at Wallingford (q.v.) by which Stephen was to retain the crown during his lifetime, when it was to pass to Henry. In the next year Stephen died at Dover Priory on October 25. By his marriage with Matilda, Stephen had three sons and two daughters—Eustace, his intended heir, who died in 1153; William, who received the patrimonial estate and the earldom of Surrey, and died in the service of Henry II at the siege of Toulouse in 1160; Mary, who became a nun, but leaving her convent married Matthew of Flanders; Baldwin and Maud, who died young. Stephen possessed bravery, generosity, and the other simple virtues of a soldier; but his position required him to be false, and no man trusted him, knowing that he could trust no one. He was quite commonplace, and might have been more successful if more unscrupulous or less honest. A terrible picture of the anarchy of Stephen's reign is drawn by the English chronicler. "When the traitors [i.e., the barons] perceived that he was a mild man, and soft and good, and did no justice, then did they all wonder . . . every powerful man made his castles, and held them against him. They cruelly oppressed the wretched men of the land with castle-works. When the castles were made, they filled them with devils and evil men. Then they took those men that they thought had any

property, both by night and by day, peasant men and women, and put them in prison for their gold and silver, and tortured them with unutterable tortures . . . Many thousand they killed with hunger; I cannot and may not tell all the wounds or all the tortures which they inflicted on wretched men in this land, and that lasted the nineteen years while Stephen was king; and ever it was worse and worse. They laid imposts on the towns continually, and when the wretched men had no more to give they robbed and burned all the towns, so that thou mightest well go all a day's journey, and thou shouldest never find a man sitting in a town, or the land tilled . . . Never yet had more wretchedness been in the land, nor did heathen men ever do worse than they did. . . . The bishops and the clergy constantly cursed them, but nothing came of it; for they were all accursed and forsworn, and forlorn. However a man tilled, the earth bare no corn, for the land was all fordone by such deeds; and they said openly that Christ and his saints slept."

G. B. Adams, "Political History of England, 1066–1216," 1905; H. W. C. Davis, "England Under the Normans and Angevins," 1915; J. H. Round, "Geoffrey de Mandeville," 1909. [F. S. P.]

Steward, The Lord High, was in origin an official of the household of the Norman kings. The office became hereditary in the house of Leicester, and later in that of Lancaster; and was inherited by Henry IV, and so absorbed into the royal dignity. Since that date it has only been conferred for some special occasion, and the office ceases when the business which required it is ended. Such occasions are the coronation of the king or queen, in connexion with which the steward had certain ceremonial functions to perform. Formerly part of his duties consisted in presiding over the Court of Claims, which heard cases connected with the performance of coronation services; but this function is now discharged by commissioners. More important is his relation to the question of the trial of peers. In 1397 John of Gaunt, as lord high steward, presided in parliament at the trial of the Earl of Arundel and the other appellant lords; and in the fifteenth century it became the custom, when the hereditary stewardship had disappeared, to appoint a steward *pro hac vice* to preside at the trial of a peer when parliament was sitting, or to preside over a special court assembled for the purpose when parliament was not in session.

L. W. Vernon Harcourt, "His Grace the Steward and Trial by Peers," 1907; J. H. Round, "The King's Serjeants"; "The Complete Peerage" (G. E. C.).

Stewart, Alexander, Earl of Buchan, "the Wolf of Badenoch" (*d.* 1405?), was the brother of Robert II of Scotland, and lord of Badenoch, Buchan, and Ross. He was governor of the northern part of Scotland, where in 1390 he ravaged the lands of the bishops of Moray and Ross, who had censured him for deserting his wife, and burned Elgin cathedral.

Stewart, Alexander, Earl of Mar (*d.* 1435), the natural son of Alexander, Earl of Buchan, surnamed "the Wolf of Badenoch," was in his youth a sort of Highland robber. In 1404 he seized and carried off Isabella, Countess of Mar, whose husband he had caused to be slain in the previous year; having married her, he became Earl of Mar, and in that capacity led the royal troops to victory over the men of the Western Isles at Harlaw (q.v.), 1411. In 1431 he was defeated at Inverlochy by a Highland force under Donald Baloch.

Stewart, Francis, 2nd Earl of Bothwell, the son of John Stewart, prior of Coldingham (an illegitimate son of James V and Lady Jane Hepburn, sister of the 1st Earl of Bothwell), was a favourite of James VI, by whom he was created Earl of Bothwell, 1587. His life was a series of rebellions against the king, whom he attempted to seize at Holyrood, 1592—an attempt which was frustrated by the citizens of Edinburgh. The same year he made another unsuccessful attack on the king at Falkland; and in 1593 suddenly appeared at Holyrood, at the head of an armed band, to ask pardon, as he said, for his treason. In 1594 he again attacked Edinburgh, but was beaten off by the citizens. From this time his power was broken, and he was forced to quit the country.

Stewart, James, Earl of Moray (1531?–1570), Regent of Scotland, was the illegitimate son of James V, and the half-brother of Mary, Queen of Scots. In 1562 he married a daughter of William, earl marischal, and was created Earl of Mar, a title which he soon changed for that of Moray. Vehemently opposed to his sister's marriage with Darnley, he headed the combination of lords against the queen and her wretched husband. In 1567, shortly after the murder of Darnley, he was appointed regent on the abdication of his sister. After an interview with the queen in Lochleven Castle, Moray set himself vigorously to the task of governing Scotland. On Mary's escape (1568) he hastily collected a body of troops, and defeated her at Langside. He was one of the commissioners for James VI at York in 1568. His implacable enemies the Hamiltons formed a combination against him, and measures were freely canvassed for bringing back Mary and ousting him. Moray seized the chief conspirators, and was then obliged to devote his attention to quieting the border. On January 21, 1570, he was assassinated by James Hamilton of Bothwellhaugh. [Scotland; Mary, Queen of Scots.]

F. Taylor, "The Regent Murray," 1895. And see authorities for article Mary, Queen of Scots.

Stewart, John, Earl of Buchan (*d.* 1424), the second son of Robert, Duke of Albany, led a Scottish army of about 7,000 men to France, to aid Charles VI against the English. After winning the battle of Beaugé (q.v.) he was created constable of France and Count of Aubigny. He was slain at Verneuil, 1424.

Stewart, John, Earl of Mar (*d.* 1479 ?), was a brother of Alexander, Duke of Albany, and James III. He is described as "comelie in all his behavioures," and as a bold warrior and skilful politician. His popularity aroused the jealousy of Cochrane, the favourite of James III, at whose instance he was arrested and imprisoned at Craigmillar Castle. He is said to have been murdered by Cochrane's orders (1479 ?).

Stewart, John, 1st Earl of Traquair (1599–1659), son of John Stewart of Traquair, was a great favourite of Charles I, who created him an earl in 1633, and in 1636 made him lord high treasurer of Scotland, and in 1639 high commissioner. In 1641 Traquair, who had made enemies, was found guilty of high treason, but pardoned by Charles, who was convinced of his loyalty. In 1648 he fought at the battle of Preston, where he was taken prisoner, and confined in Warwick Castle for four years by command of the Parliament.

Stewart, Robert, Viscount Castlereagh and 2nd Marquis of Londonderry (1769–1822), second son of Robert, 1st Marquis of Londonderry, was born in Ireland and educated at Armagh and St. John's College, Cambridge. On coming of age he stood for County Down (at a ruinous cost of £60,000) and was returned to parliament on the strength of a pledge to support the claims of the Catholics for representation. He made his maiden speech on behalf of Ireland's right to trade with India despite the company's monopoly. The Whigs welcomed him as a valuable addition to their party, but on the recall of Lord Fitzwilliam he supported the government's coercive measures in Ireland. In reward he was appointed chief secretary for Ireland in 1798, and vigorously advocated the policy of Union. After the Union he sat in the united parliament as member for County Down, and was appointed by Pitt president of the board of control in 1802. He did not resign with Pitt, but continued to hold his post under Addington, and on Pitt's return he became secretary at war until Pitt died in 1805, when he resigned. He became again secretary at war on the fall of Grenville in 1807, but the Walcheren expedition (q.v.), which was undertaken at his advice and under his management, brought him much unpopularity, and involved him in a duel with Canning, who did not disguise his disapproval of the secretary at war. Canning was wounded in the duel (September 21, 1809), and both men resigned office. Castlereagh remained out of office until 1812, when he was appointed foreign secretary under Lord Liverpool. He held this post until his death, and soon became virtually prime minister. In December 1813 he went to the continent to negotiate a general peace, but the overtures came to nothing. In 1814–15 he represented Great Britain at the Congress of Vienna, and played a part in the Bourbon restoration in France for which due credit has only recently been accorded him. Napoleon roundly condemned him for his alleged inattention to the real prosperity of his country; and his conduct at Vienna won him unpopularity at home. But his foreign policy was statesmanlike and his outlook European. His policy abroad in the seven years following the Vienna Treaties was new, and opposed to British prejudice. Inscrutable, resourceful, and patient, he kept all the threads in his own hands, and adhered to the new principles of diplomacy by conference, exemplified in the Congresses of Aix-la-Chapelle (1818), Troppau and Laibach (1820–1), and Verona (1822). The system failed because it was purely conservative and ignored the rising force of nationalism. Castlereagh finally committed suicide on August 9, 1822, his mind suddenly giving way under the strain of overwork.

Castlereagh's "Memoirs and Correspondence," 12 vols., 1848–53; Wellington, "Dispatches," 3rd Series, vol. i, 1867; Alison, "Lives of Castlereagh and Stewart," 1861; A. Hassall, "Life of Castlereagh," 1908; C. K. Webster, "Congress of Vienna," 1919, and "Foreign Policy of Castlereagh, 1815–22," 1925.

[A. C. F. B.]

Stewart, William, Viscount Mountjoy (1653–92), was one of the few members of the Established Church who held office in Tyrconnel's Jacobite administration (1689). Master of the ordnance and colonel of an Irish regiment, he was also president of a royal society formed in imitation of the Royal Society of London. When it was seen that Ulster was determined to hold out for William III, he was sent there to win over the people. The inhabitants of Londonderry permitted him to leave a portion of his regiment there, but the Enniskilleners declined to listen to his proposal. Shortly afterwards Tyrconnel, wishing him out of the way, sent him on a mission to St. Germains, with Sir Stephen Rice, who was to tell James that he (Mountjoy) was a traitor at heart. He was accordingly thrown into the Bastille. After three years he was exchanged for Richard Hamilton, and, converted by his wrongs to Whiggism, volunteered in William's army. He fell at Steinkirk.

Stigand, Archbishop of Canterbury 1052–1070, is first heard of as a chaplain, adviser, and minister of Queen Emma. In 1043 he was made Bishop of Elmham, but was almost immediately afterwards deposed on the occasion of a quarrel between his patroness and the king. But the next year he made his peace with Edward, and was restored to his see. During the whole of the reign of Edward the Confessor we find Stigand heading the English party in the Church, and strongly opposing the Normanizing tendencies of the king. The bishopric of Winchester was given to him in 1047, and on the flight of Robert of Jumièges (q.v.) in 1052 Stigand obtained the archbishopric. He still continued to hold the bishopric of Winchester, with its various abbeys, of which Gloucester was certainly one. He played his part in facilitating the Norman conquest of England, since the

schismatical position in which his appointment placed the English Church enabled William to obtain papal support for his enterprise and to endow it with something of the aspect of a crusade. On the death of Edward, Stigand summoned the witenagemot, which elected Harold, but, probably owing to the irregularity of his position, the archbishop did not actually crown the king. After Harold's death it was Stigand who anointed Edgar the Atheling as king, but when the cause of the young prince was proved to be hopeless he made his peace with the Conqueror. Stigand was present at William's coronation, and did homage to him, and was one of the Englishmen whom the king took over with him to Normandy in 1067. In 1070, however, at a council held at Winchester he was deposed from his archbishopric, three charges being brought against him: (1) That he held the bishopric of Winchester together with his archbishopric, this being uncanonical; (2) that he had assumed the archbishopric during the lifetime of Robert, who had been unlawfully deposed; and (3) that he had received the pallium from the anti-Pope Benedict. There can be little doubt that it had been William's intention from the outset to displace him, and no credence need be given to the stories which ascribe his fall to his adhesion to the party of Hereward. He was placed by William in custody at Winchester, where he remained for the rest of his life, which appears to have terminated in 1072.

Stile, John, was a servant of Henry VII, and his messenger on several important occasions, notably to Ferdinand of Aragon. From the mention of his name in the instructions given to Wolsey with regard to the treaty of marriage between Henry and Margaret of Savoy, he seems to have taken some part in the more private arrangements on the subject, and he was also one of Henry's confidential messengers with reference to the king's matrimonial plans in Naples. In 1502, for some unknown reason, John Stile seems to have fallen temporarily into disgrace, as there is a mention of a pardon being granted him on June 16 of that year.

Stillington, Robert (*d.* 1491), after holding minor preferments, was in 1466 made Bishop of Bath and Wells. He was a strong Yorkist, and in 1467 was entrusted with the great seal. He held it till 1470, and again from 1472 to 1475. After Edward's death Stillington became an adherent of Richard, and drew up the act by which Edward's children were bastardized. On the accession of Henry VII he was imprisoned for a short while, but soon obtained pardon. In 1487, however, he was implicated in the attempt of Lambert Simnel, for which he was kept in prison till his death.

Stirling, a town of Scotland, situated on the Forth, was one of the four burghs given up to the English (1174) as security for the fulfilment of the conditions of the Treaty of Falaise, but was restored to Scotland by Richard I (1186). In 1297 it was the scene of the battle between Wallace and the Earl of Surrey, and in 1304 was taken by Edward I, after being defended for three months by Sir William Oliphant. In 1313–14 it was besieged by Edward Bruce, and after the battle of Bannockburn (q.v.), which was fought in the endeavour to relieve it, was surrendered by the governor. Edward Baliol surrendered it to Edward III in 1334, but in 1339 it again fell into the hands of the Scots, being given up by its governor, Thomas Rokeby. In 1571 an attempt was made on it by the party of Queen Mary, and in 1583 it was taken by the Ruthven conspirators. During the disturbances of 1639 it was in the hands of the Covenanters, and in 1715 was occupied by Argyll against the Jacobites. In 1746 it was unsuccessfully besieged by the Pretender.

E. S. Kerr, "Stirling Castle," 1913.

Stirling (or Cambuskenneth), The Battle of (September 11, 1297), resulted in a complete victory for William Wallace and the Scots over the English, who were led by Warenne and Cressingham. Wallace fell on the English as they were in process of crossing a narrow bridge over the Forth, and cut them to pieces, killing Cressingham.

P. Hume Brown, "History of Scotland," 1911.

Stockdale *v.* Hansard, Cases of (1837), arose from the publication by T. C. Hansard, by order of the Commons, of a report which described a book published by John Joseph Stockdale as indecent. Stockdale suing Messrs. Hansard for libel, the Queen's Bench, presided over by Lord Denman, decided that the order of the House was no justification (May 31, 1837). After five suits had been brought, and Stockdale and the sheriffs had been committed by the Commons, an act was passed (3 and 4 Vict. c. 9) preventing any suit in future concerning papers printed by order of either House.

Sir Erskine May, "Constitutional History," ed. F. Holland, vol. ii, 1912; and C. Grant Robertson, "Select Statutes, Cases and Documents," 4th edn., 1923.

Stoke, The Battle of (June 16, 1487), the last battle between the rival houses of York and Lancaster, was fought between the Yorkist adherents of Lambert Simnel (q.v.) and Henry VII at a small village near Newark. John de la Pole, Earl of Lincoln, Lords Lovel and Fitzgerald led the revolters, assisted by an experienced German general, Martin Schwarz (q.v.), at the head of 2,000 mercenaries. After an obstinate conflict of three hours' duration, numerical superiority caused the royal forces, commanded by Henry VII in person, to prevail. Not one of the rebel leaders escaped. Simnel was taken prisoner, and the revolt was thoroughly suppressed.

Gladys Temperley, "Henry VII," 1917.

Stone, George, Archbishop of Armagh (1708–64), was the son of a banker. Through the influence of the Duke of Newcastle he became

in early life dean of Derry (1734), and then successively Bishop of Kildare and Derry (1745), and in 1747 primate. During Lord Dorset's viceroyalty he was virtually governor of Ireland, and he ruled it by means of the pension list. In 1755 he was dismissed from the privy council, but in 1758 again joined the ministerial party. He was called the "Beauty of Holiness," and was very unpopular. He was, however, a liberal man, and in favour of the removal of Catholic disabilities.

Stonehenge, situated upon Salisbury Plain, midway between the valleys of the Nadder and the Avon, is a megalithic monument without equal in this country. Much controversy has centred around the question of the date of its origin, the provenance of the material of which it is constructed, and the purpose for which it was erected. It consists of a ring (diameter 108 feet) of hewn Sarsen stones with imposts, enclosed by a circular earthwork. Within is a circle of less perfectly hewn foreign stones; and within this again stands a series of great trilithons arranged in horseshoe form, and enclosing a series of foreign stones in similar formation. In the centre of all is a recumbent slab, popularly known as "the Altar Stone." Outside the earthwork stands a large unworked stone (the Hele Stone, or Friar's Heel), over the summit of which it has been observed that the sun rises in a direct line with the axis of the monument, at the summer solstice. This fact has given rise to the view that Stonehenge was associated with sun worship; and much has been said and written of its connexion with the Druids. The exact use to which the circle was put is, however, still a matter of conjecture, although it seems reasonable to conclude that it had a definite religious significance. The date of its erection has been estimated by Sir Norman Lockyer, mainly on astronomical evidence, at roughly 1700 B.C.; and excavations have proved that it was the work of a race of men who had but a slight knowledge of bronze and no knowledge of iron—perhaps of the Goidels, with whose appearance in Britain the earliest use of bronze appears to have synchronized. The provenance of the "foreign" stones has long puzzled archæologists; but recent investigations have shown beyond reasonable doubt that they were quarried in South Wales, shipped across the Bristol Channel, and up the Avon, whence they were brought along a specially constructed avenue to the chosen site. Stone circles are to be found in many parts of Britain, but Stonehenge is probably the latest, as it is certainly the most elaborate, still extant.

F. Stevens, "Stonehenge," 1919. [H. M. C.]

Story, Dr. John (1510 ?–1571), was in January 1548, whilst a member of the House of Commons, committed to the custody of the serjeant-at-arms, probably for some ebullition of virulence against the changes of religion. Under Mary, Story became one of the most violent enemies of the Reformation, and a leading persecutor. He was queen's proctor at the trial of Archbishop Cranmer (1555), and in 1559 made a violent speech in the House against the Supremacy Bill. He was subsequently imprisoned for refusing to take the oath of allegiance, and on his release went abroad, where he occupied himself in plotting against Elizabeth's government. He is said to have been plotting the death of James VI of Scotland, in order to smooth the way "for his mother's marriage with some Catholic prince," when he was inveigled on board a vessel at Antwerp by a man named Parker, one of Burghley's spies, and carried to Yarmouth. He was tortured to extort his secrets, and shortly afterwards was hanged (June 1, 1571).

Stowell, William Scott, Baron (1745–1836). [Scott.]

Strafford, Thomas Wentworth, Earl of (1593–1641). [Wentworth.]

Straffordians, The. The bill of attainder against Strafford passed the third reading in the Commons (April 21, 1641) by a majority of 204 against 59. William Wheeler, M.P. for Westbury, took down the names of the minority, copies of the list got abroad, and one was posted up in the Old Palace Yard, Westminster, with the addition "these are the Straffordians, betrayers of their country." The list included the names of Selden, Lord Digby, Orlando Bridgeman, and Holborne. It did not contain those of Falkland and Hyde, who voted for the bill. The publication of the division lists was at this time a breach of privilege. The House itself first published the names of members voting in the year 1836.

J. L. Sanford, "Studies of the Great Rebellion," 1858.

Straits Settlements. [Malaya, British.]

Stratford, John, Archbishop of Canterbury (*d.* 1348), first appears as sitting in parliament in 1317. He was frequently employed on embassies by Edward II, and in 1323 was made Bishop of Winchester by the pope, contrary to the wishes of the king, who, however, eventually recognized him. He took an active part in the deposition of Edward II, but though he saw the necessity of getting rid of the infatuated king, he did not wish to put the power into the hands of Isabella and Mortimer. His opposition to the guilty pair led to his persecution, and he was compelled to go into hiding until the fall of Mortimer. Edward III made him chancellor in 1330, and he was translated to the see of Canterbury in 1333. He held the great seal twice again, from 1335 to 1337 and for a short period (April–June) in 1340. In this latter year occurred the great quarrel between the king and the archbishop. There is little doubt that Stratford was a faithful minister to Edward, but it was impossible for him to find money sufficient to defray the expenses of the costly French wars. Edward, angered by his lack of

money and the ill-success of his expedition, wreaked his indignation on his ministers. The chancellor—Archbishop Stratford's brother, the Bishop of Chichester—and the treasurer were dismissed from office; and a number of the justices were arrested and imprisoned. The next step was to launch a public accusation of treason against the archbishop, in the *libellus famosus* of February 1341. A lengthy dispute followed, Stratford refusing to answer the charges brought against him except before his peers in parliament. On April 23 parliament assembled and the question was referred to a committee of the Lords, who reported after deliberation in Stratford's favour. Their decision is generally regarded as having established an important constitutional principle—viz., the right of peers to be tried by their own order. The archbishop having got parliament on his side, the king was compelled to give in, and a reconciliation followed (May 7, 1341). Stratford was subsequently often employed by the king on important affairs, but he never again received the chancellorship. Though they can hardly rank as statesmen, the archbishop and his brother seem to have been able and faithful ministers, anxious to check the extravagance of the king and intent on maintaining the privileges of their order rather than the liberties of the people.

J. Mackinnson, "Edward III," 1906; O. Pike, "House of Lords," 1894; L. V. Harcourt, "His Grace the Steward and the Trial of Peers," 1907.

Stratford de Redcliffe, Stratford Canning, Viscount (1786–1880). [Canning.]

Stratton, The Battle of (May 16, 1643), took place during the Civil War. The Parliamentary forces under General Chudleigh, Sir Richard Buller, Sir Alexander Carew, and the Earl of Stamford were defeated by the Cornish army under Sir Ralph Hopton and Sir Bevil Grenville. The Parliamentary forces were weakened by the detachment of Sir George Chudleigh with all their cavalry. They were posted on the top of Stratton Hill, which the Cornish army after several hours' hard fighting succeeded in storming. General Chudleigh and 1,700 prisoners were taken, together with thirteen guns and all the baggage and stores of the defeated army.

Strode, William (1599–1645), was returned to the House of Commons in the last parliament of James I, and the five parliaments of his son. In the third parliament of Charles he took part in the tumult caused in the House of Commons by the Speaker's refusal to put Eliot's resolutions, for which he was called before the council and imprisoned until January 1640. In the Long Parliament he is mentioned by Clarendon as "one of those ephori who most avowed the curbing and suppressing of majesty," and "one of the fiercest men of the party, and of the party only for his fierceness." On December 24, 1640, he introduced the bill for annual parliaments, and on November 28, 1641, moved that the kingdom should be put in a posture of defence. He did not scruple to avow that the safety of the parliament depended on the Scottish army. "The sons of Zeruiah," he said (referring to the court party), "are too strong for us." He was one of the Five Members (q.v.) impeached by the king (January 1642). After the Civil War began he took an active part against the king in Somerset, and in the Commons opposed all proposals to treat.

Strongbow. [Clare, Richard de, Earl of Pembroke.]

Stuart Family. The Stuarts were descended from a certain Walter Fitz-Alan, lord of Oswestry, who entered the service of David I, by whom he was created high steward of Scotland. The office became hereditary in the family. Alexander, the fourth steward of the Fitz-Alan stock, commanded at the battle of Largs in 1263; the fifth, James, was one of the regents appointed on the death of Alexander III; the sixth, Walter, supported Robert Bruce, commanded a division at Bannockburn, and was rewarded in 1315 by the hand of Bruce's daughter, Marjory. Marjory's son, Robert, ruled Scotland as regent during the minority of David II and his captivity in England, and upon David's death, in 1371, succeeded to the Scottish throne. (For the history of the Stuart sovereigns of Scotland see Robert II and III, James I, II, III, IV, V, and Mary.)

With the accession of James VI of Scotland to the English throne (1603) as James I, the history of the Stuart rule in England begins; it is that of the transition from the personal government of the Yorkist and Tudor periods to the parliamentary system of Hanoverian times. Such a transition was, in England, inevitable; but to the character and policy of the Stuart kings it was due that the change had to be effected by means of a rebellion and a revolution. Parliament had already in the later years of Elizabeth begun to assume a more independent attitude; but that queen had tact enough to keep it in good temper, and, as in the question of monopolies, knew when to yield. But James I was devoid of tact, and never succeeded in making himself respected. More than this, he continually forced upon men's attention a doctrine of prerogative which cut at the root of English liberties. Moreover, his Scottish experience had rendered him singularly unfit to deal with English ecclesiastical difficulties. The time had come for concessions to, or at any rate considerate treatment of, the Puritans. But James, though he did not, as Charles I, regard Episcopacy as a sacred institution, valued it highly as a means of keeping the clergy in order; any concession to the Puritans would, he thought, weaken episcopal authority, and so prepare the way for that independence of the clergy which in Scotland had proved so dangerous to the State; therefore he refused all change, and so brought about the union against himself of the political and

religious opposition. His domestic difficulties were increased by his ill-advised foreign policy. James knew far better than his subjects the true position of affairs on the continent; and, although his policy of mediation could never have succeeded, a frank statement of reasons would have done much to lessen the opposition of the Commons; but as he took no pains to make his people understand him, it was inevitable that the Protestant feeling of the country should be offended by the marriage negotiations with Spain, and by the king's refusal to interfere energetically to save the Palatinate. So firm was the distrust which his action inspired, that even when, under pressure from Buckingham, James declared war against Spain, parliament would not believe that a great continental war was seriously intended, and refused supplies. The question more and more clearly defined itself: could the king persist in a certain policy, or retain a certain minister, against the will of parliament? The actual parliamentary gains of James's reign were but few; more important was it that the imposition had raised the question of unparliamentary taxation, and that the revival of impeachment had given parliament a weapon against the king. But it is clear that if the king determined to carry out a certain policy against the wish of his subjects, and to raise the necessary funds by unparliamentary means, and if parliament in vain attacked ministers, the ultimate issue would depend on the preponderance of power, and this could be decided only by war. This is what came to pass under Charles I.

But while the victory of parliament was inevitable, it was well that it should not be premature. Had Charles yielded to all the demands of the Commons in 1629, had he given them complete control of taxation, and recognized the responsibility of ministers, he would have handed over his sovereignty to them. But the Commons were not yet fit to exercise such a power. Their supremacy would have established a gross tyranny in ecclesiastical matters, for all opinions disliked by the majority of average Englishmen would have been proscribed in the national Church. Nor were the Commons as yet fit to govern. Nothing existed comparable to the modern system of cabinet and party government.

Then followed eleven years without a parliament (1629–40). At first the country was quiet; but Laud's action upon becoming archbishop, and the attempt to raise ship-money (q.v.), strengthened and bound more closely together the Puritan and the constitutionalist opposition; and when the Scottish attack forced Charles to put himself into the hands of parliament the opposition saw their own strength, and Charles had to surrender one by one the powers and prerogatives by which he had attempted to govern. But the redress of political grievances left the religious difficulties still unsolved. It became clear during the struggles of 1641–2 that the main question left was that of the existence of Episcopacy; from the Episcopalian party arose the Cavalier party; and though the attempt to seize the Five Members (q.v.) and the consequent introduction of the Militia Bill were the immediate causes of the war, the religious element was far more important than the constitutional in the early years of the war.

The constitutional questions of the second Stuart period differ from those of the first. No longer was there a direct assertion of "absolute power"; no unparliamentary taxation was attempted; there was no exercise of judicial power by council or Star Chamber. Charles II ruled not against, but through, a parliament which he tried to make subservient. Yet the judges were still under court influence; prerogative lingered in the "dispensing power"; and divine right reappeared under the doctrine of "non-resistance." The fall of the Whigs after the dissolution of 1681 showed how strong the royalist feeling of the country remained, in spite of eighteen years' misgovernment; and even after the lessons of the Civil War the Stuarts might at the eleventh hour have succeeded in creating a despotism, had not James II attacked the English Church, and so united all classes against him.

The reigns of William and Mary and of Anne, though the sisters were of the Stuart house, are more closely connected with later than with earlier history. In them begins the development of party cabinet government; and instead of a shifting policy of neutrality or a truckling to France, the great rivalry begins between France and England which was to last till the close of the nineteenth century. [RIGHT, THE PETITION OF; REBELLION, THE GREAT, ETC.]

S. R. Gardiner, "History of England, 1603–1642," and "Great Civil War, 1642–1649," for Charles I and James I; S. Cowan, "The Royal House of Stuart," 1908; T. F. Henderson, "The Royal Stewarts," 1914; P. M. Thornton, "Stuart Dynasty," 1891; C. H. Frith (ed.), "Stuart Tracts, 1603–93," 2 vols., 1903; G. M. Trevelyan, "England Under the Stuarts"; "Political History of England," vols. vii and viii.

Stuart, ALEXANDER, 3RD DUKE OF ALBANY (*d.* 1485), was the second son of James II, and brother of James III, from whose jealousy he was compelled to take refuge in France, 1479. In 1482 he joined Edward IV of England, executing a secret deed, in which he acknowledged the feudal supremacy of England over Scotland in return for recognition as King of Scots. After the affair at Lauder Bridge (q.v.) Albany returned to Scotland and assumed the government for a short time; but on the news of his dealings with Edward leaking out was again compelled to seek an asylum in England. Here he joined the Earl of Douglas in 1484 in an invasion of Scotland, which was defeated at Lochmaben, Albany being obliged to go to France, where he enjoyed the favour of Louis XI until his death in 1485.

"Chronicle of Pittscottie"; P. Hume Brown, "History of Scotland," 1911; C. S. Terry, "History of Scotland."

Stuart, LADY ARABELLA (1575–1615), was the daughter of Charles Stuart, Earl of

Lennox, brother of Lord Darnley. Thus she was first cousin to James I and great-grand-daughter of Margaret, daughter of Henry VII. During her early life Queen Elizabeth often spoke of Arabella as her possible successor, in case James did not conduct himself according to her satisfaction; and though on Elizabeth's death James I succeeded to the English crown without opposition, there were some who maintained that Arabella, having been born in England, had a better title to the crown than James, who was an alien. [STUART, FAMILY OF.] One of the objects of the Main Plot would seem to have been to depose James and place Arabella on the throne, though it is very improbable that Arabella herself knew anything of the designs of the conspirators. She continued to live at court till 1610, when, contrary to the king's wishes, she privately married Sir William Seymour, afterwards Marquis of Hertford, and a member of the Suffolk branch of the royal family. This union of two possible claimants to the throne was regarded by James with great apprehension; Seymour was at once sent to the Tower, and Arabella confined at Lambeth, to be shortly after conveyed to Durham. While on her way thither she managed to escape, and took ship for France, her husband having escaped from the Tower and fled to Ostend. But before Arabella could reach Calais, the vessel was captured, and she was committed to the Tower. Her reason gave way, and after four years' imprisonment she died. Her character was remarkably amiable, and she never appears to have engaged personally in the intrigues carried on in her name.

Biographies by B. C. Hardy, 1913; E. T. Bradley, 1889; M. Lefuse, 1913.

Stuart, CHARLES EDWARD LOUIS PHILIP CASIMIR, known as the YOUNG PRETENDER (1720–88), was the son of James Edward Stuart and Maria Clementina, daughter of James Sobieski, eldest son of the King of Poland. He was born at Rome. His education was very much neglected. He became of political importance on the renewal of the hostility between Great Britain and France after the fall of Walpole. Cardinal Tencin, the French minister, was in favour of an invasion of England, and in 1743 Charles came to Paris. Louis XV, although he refused to see him, was not unfriendly to his cause; 15,000 veterans under Marshal Saxe were stationed at Dunkirk, while fleets were collected at Brest and Toulon. But the French admiral, Roquefeuille, feared to attack the British under Sir John Norris; his ships were dispersed by a storm, and the French ministry, abandoning the design, appointed Saxe to command in Flanders. The Pretender retired to Paris, whence he communicated with his Scottish adherents through Murray of Broughton. The results of the battle of Fontenoy (1745) caused him to hasten his plans. He embarked at Nantes (1745) in a privateer, attended by a French man-of-war, but the latter vessel was attacked and disabled by a British ship, so that Charles arrived in Scotland stripped of supplies, and with only seven companions. [JACOBITES.] After the battle of Culloden Charles fled, and succeeded, after five months' wanderings in the Hebrides, in escaping to France. He owed his life to Flora Macdonald (q.v.). On his return to Paris he found that no more help was to be expected from the French court. On one occasion Tencin proposed that he should be supplied with French troops on condition that in the event of his success Ireland should be given to Louis. Charles replied, "Non, M. le Cardinal, tout ou rien, point de partage." In 1747 he went to Spain, and in 1748 to Prussia, to try to get assistance, but without success. He quarrelled with his father and brother when the latter became a cardinal. He was compelled to leave France by the conditions of the Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, but he obstinately refused to go, and was imprisoned. He resided chiefly after this with his friend, the Duc de Bouillon, in the forest of Ardennes. In 1750, and perhaps in 1752 and 1754, he paid mysterious visits to England. On the death of his father he repaired to Rome. His character had become degraded; his former chivalrous promise had quite vanished, he was a confirmed drunkard, and his friends were alienated by his refusal to dismiss his mistress, Miss Walkinshaw, who it was said betrayed his plans. In 1772 he married Princess Louisa of Stolberg, a girl of twenty, but the union was unhappy, and she eloped with Alfieri. His adherents had sent him proposals that year of setting up his standard in America.

A. C. Ewald, "Life of Prince Charles Edward"; Vernon Lee, "The Countess of Albany"; biography by Andrew Lang, 1900.

Stuart, ESMÉ, DUKE OF LENNOX (1542–83), the son of John d'Aubigné, captain of the Scots Guard in France, and the nephew of Matthew, Earl of Lennox, came to Scotland in 1579, where his polished manners soon recommended him to the favour of James VI, who created him Duke of Lennox in 1581, having previously made him governor of Dumbarton, captain of his guard, and Earl of Lennox. Hated by the Scots nobles as a foreigner and a favourite, Lennox sought to increase his popularity by becoming a Protestant, and to secure his power by the ruin of Morton. He became an object of dread to Elizabeth, who imagined that he would set himself to draw closer the connexion between Scotland and France. Hurled from his high position by the "Raid of Ruthven" (q.v.), Lennox was compelled to return to France, where he died at Paris, May 1583.

Stuart, HENRY, LORD DARNLEY (1545–1567), was the son of Matthew Stuart, Earl of Lennox and Lady Margaret Douglas, a niece of Henry VIII. In 1565 Mary of Scotland, his cousin, saw and at once fell in love with him. The marriage was celebrated in the summer of the same year, in spite of violent opposition on

the part of Moray and the Protestants, who viewed the union of their queen with a Roman Catholic family with great distrust. Darnley was created Duke of Albany, and was soon afterwards, by order of his wife, illegally proclaimed King of Scots. Mary soon found her mistake in marrying a man who was at once foolish and profligate. A coldness sprang up between them, and the murder of Rizzio, to which Darnley was a party, only increased it. Loathed as he was by the queen, and endangered by her reconciliation to his bitterest enemies, Darnley endeavoured to escape to France, but was not permitted to leave Scotland. After the birth of his son, afterwards James VI, whose christening he refused to attend, Darnley was seized at Glasgow with a violent illness, from which he had barely recovered when Mary paid him a visit and urged his removal to Edinburgh. He was accordingly conveyed to a small house close to the city walls, in a district known as Kirk o' Field. During the night of February 10, 1567, the house was blown up with gunpowder, and Darnley's body was found next morning lying in the garden by that of his page; but neither corpse bore traces of burning. Public feeling at once pointed to Bothwell as the murderer, and more than suspected Mary of complicity in the crime. The strongest circumstantial evidence points to the same conclusion.

Hosack, "Mary, Queen of Scots," 1888; Schiern, "Bothwell," 1880.

Stuart, James, Earl of Arran (*d.* 1596), was a son of Lord Ochiltree, and a brother-in-law of Knox. In 1581 he received the estates and title which the house of Hamilton had forfeited, as the reward of his zeal in procuring the condemnation of the Regent Morton. Later, taken prisoner at the "Raid of Ruthven" (q.v.), Arran quickly revenged himself by collecting an army in the interest of James VI, and by taking the lead against the conspirators; and having extorted a confession from Gowrie by fair promises, used it against him to his ruin. He became chancellor and lieutenant-general of Scotland, and on the strength of the king's favour, set himself in opposition to the rest of the Scottish barons, rousing their hatred by his arrogance. The English government found means to accuse him of instigating a border raid, and he was ordered to withdraw from the Scottish court in 1584. Shortly afterwards, on a combination against him of the Hamiltons (whose estates he held) and the banished lords, Arran had to escape as best he could to the hills of Ayrshire. He was slain by James Douglas of Torthorwold in revenge for the death of Morton.

Stuart, James Francis Edward, known as the Chevalier de St. George and as the Old Pretender (1688–1766), was the son of King James II and Mary of Modena. It was generally believed at the time that he was a supposititious child; but without just cause. When James II contemplated flight, the child was conveyed to France by Lauzun. In 1701, at his father's deathbed, he was acknowledged by Louis XIV, who undertook to uphold his claims. In 1708 Louis fitted out an expedition against Great Britain, but James, who was to have accompanied it, was taken ill of the measles, and the expedition failed completely. He then joined the French army, and was present at the battles of Oudenarde and Malplaquet. On the fall of the Whigs his prospects considerably improved. In 1711 Harley opened negotiations for peace with the French court through the Abbé Gautier, who was also a Jacobite agent. In 1712 James ventured to write to his sister Anne. On the conclusion of the Peace of Utrecht (1713) he was compelled to leave France, and removed to Bar-le-Duc in Lorraine. During this period it was constantly urged upon him that he should change his religion, but he distinctly refused to do so. In June 23, 1714, proclamations against him were issued by both Houses of Parliament. On receiving the news of the death of Anne, he went from Bar-le-Duc to Plombières, where he issued a proclamation claiming the crown, and thence to Commercy. With Bolingbroke as secretary of state, the Pretender's schemes seemed to have a chance of success. It was hoped that Louis might be induced to break the peace; the Jacobites in England were supposed to be eager to rise. But the flight of Ormonde from England was followed by the death of Louis XIV. Despite Bolingbroke's advice Mar rose in Scotland. [Jacobites.] It was not until Mar's expedition was doomed to failure that James arrived in Scotland. He went to Scone, where he assumed the style of royalty. But it was evident that he lacked all energy. Argyll advanced on Perth; James and Mar withdrew before him, and, deserting their followers, secretly fled to France. On his return James most unjustly laid the blame of the failure on Bolingbroke, and dismissed him. His place was taken by Mar. In 1717 Charles XII of Sweden, and the Spanish minister Alberoni, resolved to bring about a Stuart restoration. But their plans failed. Soon afterwards the regent of France was compelled by the British government to expel James from the French dominions. He went to Rome (1717). He was betrothed to Maria Clementina, granddaughter of John Sobieski, King of Poland, but on her way to Rome she was arrested by the emperor and detained prisoner. In 1719 Alberoni fitted out an expedition against England. The Pretender was invited to Spain, and there publicly received. The expedition under Ormonde was scattered in the Bay of Biscay. This year Princess Sobieski escaped from Austria, and went to Italy, where she married the Pretender. In 1720 Charles Edward was born. In 1722 Atterbury's plot (q.v.) seemed for a short period likely to succeed. James sent an extraordinary declaration from Lucca, offering to allow George II the succession to the throne, and the title of King of Hanover, if he would quietly surrender the British crown.

In 1728 an unsuccessful attempt to incite a rebellion in the Highlands was made by Allan Cameron. James had quarrelled with Mar, and now had as a favourite Colonel Hay, who was made secretary of state and Earl of Inverness. Maria Clementina, jealous of Inverness, left her husband, which alienated the emperor and Spain from him. On the death of George I he repaired to Lorraine full of hopes. They were soon dashed to the ground, and the French government was compelled to send him from France. He returned to Italy and was reconciled to his wife, who died in 1735. He now took as his adviser James Murray, Inverness's brother-in-law, whom he created Earl of Dunbar. On the outbreak of war between Great Britain and France (1740) the Jacobite hopes revived. An association of seven was formed in Scotland; the English Jacobites were roused; the French minister was friendly to his cause. The ultimate result of these intrigues was the Young Pretender's expedition in 1745. James Edward now ceased to exercise any real influence. He quarrelled with his son in 1747. James had fair abilities, but was thoroughly selfish, faithless, and licentious.

Jesse, "Memoirs of the Pretender"; biographies by H. D. Roome, 1904; M. Haile, 1907; C. S. Terry, 1901 and 1915.

Stuart, John, 4th Duke of Albany (1481–1536), regent of Scotland from 1515 to 1524, was the son of Alexander, Duke of Albany, and nephew of James III. On the death of James IV, Albany, who was lord high admiral of France, was summoned to Scotland to assume the regency, a position which his French education had by no means fitted him to fill. On his arrival in Scotland one of his first acts was to crush the power of the Earl of Angus, who had married the queen-mother Margaret; his next, to bring to trial all whom he conceived to be in league with the Douglas party. In September 1522 he collected an immense army for the invasion of England, to retaliate upon Henry VIII for having demanded his expulsion from the Scots Estates. Henry, however, contrived by diplomacy to stay the blow before it had fallen, and Albany shortly after returned to France, leaving Scotland to the tender mercies of the Earl of Surrey. In 1523 he appeared once more with a body of French auxiliaries; but, failing to capture Wark Castle, he retired to France in disgust, May 1524, and never returned.

"Chronicle of Pittscottie"; Lesley, "History of Scotland"; P. Hume Brown, "History of Scotland," 1911.

Stuart, John, 23rd Earl of Atholl (*d.* 1578), was a staunch Romanist and supporter of Mary, Queen of Scots. He was named one of the commission of regency established on the abdication of Mary, 1567. On Moray's return from France he accompanied him to Lochleven and had an interview with the queen. In 1569 he was suspected of planning a rebellion against Moray. In 1577 he combined with Argyll against the Regent Morton, whose deposition was in great part owing to his exertions, and about the same time was appointed chancellor of Scotland; he died soon afterwards at Stirling, poisoned, it was said, by Morton.

Stuart, John, 3rd Earl of Bute (1713–1792), son of James, 2nd earl, married, in 1736, Mary, daughter of the celebrated Lady Mary Wortley Montagu, in whose right he inherited a large fortune. In early life he became by accident acquainted with Frederic, Prince of Wales, and soon acquired great influence over him, though it is difficult to see what were the charms which endeared him to the prince, since he is described as "cold and unconciliating in his manners, proud and sensitive in his nature, solemn and sententious in his discourse." During the later years of George II he had remained attached to the court of the widowed Princess of Wales; and scandal attributed to their relations a character which there is no real evidence to show that they possessed. But no sooner was George III seated on the throne than Bute took advantage of his ascendancy over the young king to come to the front in politics. After the dissolution of parliament early in 1761 he became one of the secretaries of state as the colleague of Pitt, to whom he was warmly opposed on the question of the continental war. Pitt resigned in October, leaving Bute supreme. The discovery of the Family Compact (q.v.) between France and Spain, which Pitt had suspected, led to a rupture with Spain; but Bute was none the less resolved to come to terms with France and to desert Germany, and to reverse the policy of his predecessors. On November 3, 1762, the preliminaries of peace were signed at Fontainebleau, and peace was definitely concluded in the following February. [Paris, Treaty of, 1763.] But the ministry was unpopular; and this unpopularity gradually developed into a fierce hatred, which amused itself in burning the prime minister in effigy in almost every public place. This extreme feeling can scarcely be said to have been justified by Bute's public measures; and three, at any rate, of his chief sins in the popular view are well set forth by a contemporary writer, who says that he was utterly "unfit to be prime minister of England, because he was (1) a Scotchman, (2) the king's friend, (3) an honest man." In April 1763 he had to yield to the storm of indignation which he had aroused; and he never afterwards filled any prominent office in the state. But he retained his influence over the king, and was all-powerful in the closet, until George Grenville, after the failure of Bute's attempted intrigues with Pitt, insisted on his complete dismissal from the court as a condition of his own return to power. From this time forward there is little evidence that Bute had any hand in the politics of the day, though his withdrawal could not remove the suspicion of his secret influence at the back of the throne. During the last twenty-five years of his life he

lived in almost complete retirement at Christchurch, in Hampshire.

Walpole, "Memoirs of the Reign of George III," 1845; "Letters of Junius"; Macaulay's second essay on "Chatham"; biography of Bute by J. A. L. Fraser, 1912. [W. R. S.]

Stuart, MATTHEW, 4TH or 12TH EARL OF LENNOX (1516–71), was a member of the French house of d'Aubigné. On his marriage with the daughter of the Earl of Angus and Queen Margaret he joined the party of Henry VIII in Scotland, but subsequently threw him over at the same time as the Assured Lords (q.v.). He was the father of Darnley, on whose murder he endeavoured without avail to bring Bothwell to justice, for he dared not appear at the trial as his accuser. In 1567, on Mary's abdication, he was appointed one of the council of regency, and the following year collected evidence against the Queen of Scots at the Westminster commission. In 1570 he was elected regent of Scotland, and at once attacked and took the castle of Dumbarton, one of the strongholds of Mary's party. He was mortally wounded by a bullet in a fray at Stirling in September 1571.

Stuart, MURDOCH, 2ND DUKE OF ALBANY (*d.* 1425), succeeded his father, Robert, as governor of Scotland, 1420, during the captivity of James I in England. Upon James's return he was condemned and executed at Stirling, May 1425, together with two of his sons, for having misused his power as regent.

Stuart, ROBERT, 1ST DUKE OF ALBANY (c. 1340–1420), the second son of Robert II, and the brother of Robert III, of Scotland, during his brother's later years practically governed the kingdom. His inertness on the invasion of Scotland by Henry IV gave rise to the suspicion that he was plotting for the death of his nephew, David, Duke of Rothesay, who was besieged in Edinburgh Castle. That there may have been some truth in the supposition is likely; for soon afterwards Rothesay was seized at Albany's instigation, and imprisoned in Falkland Castle, where he died, perhaps as a result of foul play, in 1402. On his nephew's death Albany became governor of the kingdom, and in that character gave support to a man whom he declared to be Richard II of England, and whom he hoped to be able to make use of against Henry IV. The capture of the young Prince James by the English was also ascribed to his intrigues, whether justly or not is uncertain. On the death of Robert III Albany continued to govern the kingdom as regent, until his own death, September 3, 1420. In spite of his odious private character, Albany seems to have ruled Scotland with vigour, justice, and moderation.

See the "Scotichronicon" and Wyntoun, bk. ix, for different views of his character; and P. Hume Brown, "History of Scotland," 1911.

Stuart - Wortley - Mackenzie, JAMES ARCHIBALD, 1ST BARON WHARNCLIFFE (1776–1845), was the grandson of John, 3rd Earl of Bute. He was educated at the Charterhouse, entered the army in 1790, and quitted it in 1801 after having obtained the rank of lieutenant-colonel. In 1797 he was elected to parliament for the borough of Bossiney in Cornwall. In 1812, after the failure of many ministerial negotiations, he was chosen to move an address to the Prince Regent praying that he would form a strong and efficient ministry. In 1818 he succeeded to his large inheritance, and was elected for Yorkshire, which he represented till 1826, when, having offended his constituents by his opinions on the Catholic question, he was not re-elected. He was, however, elevated to the peerage. He strenuously opposed the Reform Bill in 1831, but was reconciled to it later by Earl Grey. He opposed the Whigs as long as they were in power, but when Sir Robert Peel was recalled from Italy (November 1834) to form a Conservative government he took office as lord privy seal, until April 1835. In 1841, on the return of Peel to power, Wharncliffe became president of the council.

Stubbs, JOHN, a Puritan lawyer, and brother-in-law of Cartwright (q.v.), published in September 1579 a pamphlet entitled "Discovery of a Gaping Gulf," against the proposed marriage of Elizabeth with the Duke of Anjou. For this he was sentenced to have his right hand cut off; and on the infliction of the penalty is said to have waved his hat in his left hand, crying, "Long live Queen Elizabeth!" This story is, however, doubtful. Stubbs was in 1587 employed by Burghley to answer the libels of Cardinal Allen. In 1588 he was elected to parliament for Yarmouth.

Stukeley, THOMAS (1525 ?–1578), an adherent of Protector Somerset, was compelled to leave England in 1553 after being imprisoned in the Tower by Northumberland for obtaining alleged false information as to the policy of Henry II of France. He was sacrificed to Northumberland's desire to preserve the friendship of France. Stukeley subsequently became a noted pirate or privateer. He afterwards went to Ireland and acquired considerable possessions there. In 1570 he betook himself to Spain, and entered into negotiations with Philip II, declaring that his influence was sufficient to procure an easy conquest of Ireland; but the contemplated invasion came to nothing. A few years later (1577) Stukeley again projected an attack on Ireland, this time with papal aid; he was killed, however, on his way at Alcazar in battle with the Moors.

Subinfeudation was the process of creating inferior feudal obligations by the lord of a fief. For example, a lord who held an estate of the Crown would grant part of it to a sub-tenant of his own, who would henceforward stand in an analogous relation to him to that in which he stood to his lord. Very often the process of subinfeudation went so far that the nominal holder of a fief had not enough left in

his own hands to perform the services required of him. Fraudulent acts of this type were not uncommon. At last the statute *Quia Emptores* (July 1290) (q.v.) practically abolished further cases of subinfeudation by enacting that in future transfers of land the purchaser should not enter into feudal relations of dependence with the alienor, but should stand to the lord of the fief in the same relation in which the alienor had himself stood. [FEUDALISM.]

Submission of the Clergy, THE (May 13, 1532), was an agreement forced upon the Convocation of Canterbury by Henry VIII, that no new canons should be enacted without the king's sanction, and that a review of the existing canons should be made, and all those disapproved of struck out. In 1534 this submission was embodied in an act of parliament called the Statute of the Submission of the Clergy (25 Hen. VIII, c. 19), which moreover gave the king power to summon convocation by his own writ, annul everything done without his licence, and appoint commissioners to review the canon law. The exact significance of these acts was fiercely debated during the stormy period that preceded the virtual suspension of convocation in 1717.

Subsidy, a parliamentary grant to the Crown, which began to supplement the tenth and fifteenth, and in the early sixteenth century soon became stereotyped. It was made up of a tax of 4s. in the pound on the annual value of land and 2s. 8d. in the pound on the value of goods. Originally much care was taken in assessing the subsidy. "Just as a tenth and fifteenth had come to be a mere fiscal expression for £30,000, so a subsidy became a mere fiscal expression, at first for £100,000, and by the end of the reign of Elizabeth for about £80,000" (Tanner). Aliens paid double subsidy. The clergy were separately assessed and taxed by authority of convocation, the clerical subsidy being equivalent to about £20,000. The "Subsidy Rolls" give an account of how the taxes were raised. This tax should not be confused with the much older subsidy on wool and leather and the subsidy on cloth paid by unprivileged foreigners.

J. R. Tanner, "Tudor Constitutional Documents," 1923.

Sudan. [ANGLO-EGYPTIAN SUDAN.]

Sudbury, SIMON OF, Archbishop of Canterbury (1375–81), was born at Sudbury, studied canon law at Paris, and became attached to the Papal Curia. He also attached himself to John of Gaunt. In 1360 he was made chancellor of Salisbury, and in 1361 Bishop of London. He took part in several embassies. He incurred unpopularity by his enlightened aversion to pilgrimages. In 1375 he was made Archbishop of Canterbury and in 1380 chancellor. He was murdered in 1381 by the insurgent peasantry when they took possession of the Tower.

Sudreys, THE (*Sudreyjar*), was a name given by the Norwegians to the Hebrides, or Western Islands, in contradistinction to the Orkneys or Nordreys. Some authorities say that the Western Islands themselves were divided into the Nordreys and Sudreys, the point of division being Ardnamurchan. The name is still preserved in the designation of the Manx bishop, as Bishop of Sodor and Man, though none of the Southern Islands have for many centuries been included in his diocese. [HEBRIDES; ORKNEYS AND SHETLANDS.]

Suetonius Paulinus was Roman commander in Britain from 59 to 62. His first action was the reduction of the island of Mona (Anglesey), the stronghold of the Ordovices and the chief seat of Druidism. From this he was recalled by the news of the great revolt of the Iceni, under Boudicca (q.v.), the capture of Verulamium, Camulodunum, and other posts, and the slaughter of the Romans and their allies. After a tedious campaign Suetonius gained a decisive victory over the Britons near London; but his harshness having greatly conduced to the rebellion, he was, despite his ultimate success, recalled in the year 62.

Suez Canal, THE, conceived by Haroun al-Raschid in the eighth century, and subsequently by the Venetians in the sixteenth century, by Leibnitz in 1671, by the Sheik al-Balad Ali Bey in 1770, and by Bonaparte in 1798, was begun by M. Ferdinand de Lesseps in 1859 and opened in November 1869. The British government became a shareholder in 1875, when Disraeli purchased the Khedive's shares in the canal for £4,000,000.

J. Charles-Roux, "L'Isthme et le Canal de Suez," 2 vols., 1901.

Suffolk, EARLS AND DUKES OF. [BRANDON; HOWARD; POLE.]

Sugden, EDWARD BURTENSHAW, BARON ST. LEONARDS (1781–1875), was the son of a hairdresser of Duke Street, Westminster. He was called to the bar at Lincoln's Inn (1807). In 1822 he became a king's counsel and bencher of Lincoln's Inn. He at different times was returned to the House of Commons for Weymouth, Melcombe Regis, and St. Mawes; took a prominent part in parliamentary discussions; and was foremost among those who opposed the Reform Bill. In June 1829, when the Duke of Wellington was prime minister, he was appointed solicitor-general; and in 1834, when Sir Robert Peel formed a ministry, Sugden went to Ireland as lord chancellor. Resigning that office on the retirement of the cabinet, he was returned for Ripon, and vacated his seat in September 1841, on resuming under Sir Robert Peel his position as lord chancellor of Ireland, in which he continued until the disruption of the Conservative party in 1846. He accepted the post of lord chancellor in Lord Derby's first administration in 1852, and was raised to the peerage as Lord St. Leonards. In 1858 Lord Derby was desirous that he should again receive the great seal, but he declined the responsibility in consequence of his advanced

age. He nevertheless afterwards took an active and influential part in the business of parliament, and exerted himself to keep up the character and efficiency of the House of Lords as a judicial tribunal and to correct by legislation several anomalies in the law of property.

J. B. Atlay, "Victorian Chancellors," vol. ii, 1908.

Sunderland, Earls of. [Spencer.]

Supplicants, The, was the name assumed (1637) by those persons in Scotland who petitioned or "supplicated" against the introduction of Laud's "Service Book," and the "Book of Canons." The Supplicants were so numerous and strong that on the presentation of the Great Supplication (which embraced charges against the "Service Book," the "Book of Canons," the bishops, and the government), the privy council found it necessary to authorize the election of delegates from the Supplicants to confer with the executive: these delegates were called "The Tables." In 1638 the Supplicants signed the Covenant, and thenceforward became known by the name of Covenanters. [Covenant.]

Supremacy, Acts of. (1) 26 Hen. VIII, c. 1 (1534), embodied the recognition of convocation, and enacted "that the king shall be taken, accepted, and reputed the only supreme head on earth of the Church of England," and that he shall have "full power to visit, repress, redress, reform, restrain, and amend all heresies, errors, and enormities, which by any manner of spiritual jurisdiction ought lawfully to be reformed." (2) 26 Hen. VIII, c. 13 (1534), or the Treason Act, made it high treason "to imagine or practice any harm to the king, or deprive him of any of his dignities and titles." Under this act More and Fisher suffered. (3) 1 Eliz. c. 1 (1559), "restoring to the Crown the ancient jurisdiction over the state ecclesiastical," and empowering the queen to visit, reform, and amend errors, heresies, and schisms as in Henry VIII's act. But some limitations were secured in the clause that nothing was to be judged as heresy but what was proved so out of the Bible, the canons of the four general councils, or what convocation and parliament should judge to be so. Elizabeth was also declared no longer "supreme head," but "supreme governor" of the Church. (4) 5 Eliz. c. 1 (1563) was a more stringent Act of Supremacy, with sterner penalties, and further obligations in new classes to take the oath of supremacy. By all the above acts the "oath of supremacy" was enforced.

Supremacy, The Royal, was in its earlier forms merely the necessary result of the *imperial* rights of the English Crown. Even as against the Church, which in mediæval times was in a sense a state within the State, there are many mediæval examples of the exercise of the royal supremacy. The Customs of William I, preserved by Eadmer, the Constitutions of Clarendon, the Statutes of Provisors and Præmunire all embodied the principle. But Henry VIII brought out the principle with a new clearness in his definite claim to be "in all causes and over all persons as well ecclesiastical as civil supreme." Admitted with reservation by convocation, and enforced by acts of parliament, this newly-formulated doctrine soon proved incompatible with the power of the Papacy, and even with the independence of the English Church. Henry VIII's interpretation of the supremacy hardly put him in an inferior position to German princes whom the Reformation made *summi episcopi* of their dominions. Under it Cromwell received his extraordinary commission. Through it Somerset and Northumberland revolutionized the Church. Never abandoned even by Mary, it was asserted in a new and less insidious form by Elizabeth, and has ever since been part of the prerogatives of the British Crown.

See note in H. O. Wakeman, "History of the Church of England," 1894.

Suraj-ud-Dowlah (*d.* 1757), ruler of Bengal, was grandson of Ali Vardi Khan, and succeeded him in 1756. He perpetrated the abominable crime of the Black Hole of Calcutta (1756—q.v.), was beaten by Clive at Plassey (1757), whence he fled, but was recaptured, brought back, and put ignominiously to death by Mir Jafar's son Miran (1757).

Surat is a town in the Konkan, in India, situated near the mouth of the Tapti. It was the port to Persia, and one of the largest cities in India. It was originally the chief English factory on the west coast. The Gaekwar and the Peshwa both had claims on it, but in 1800, in consequence of the misgovernment of the Nawab, Lord Wellesley ordered it to be annexed. The Gaekwar was easily persuaded to surrender his claim, and in 1802 by the Treaty of Bassein (q.v.) the Peshwa consented also.

Surat, The Treaty of (March 6, 1775), was concluded between the Bombay Presidency, without the authority of Calcutta, and Ragoba, a deposed Peshwa. Its stipulations were that the Bombay government should furnish Ragoba with 3,000 British troops; and that in return Ragoba should pay eighteen lacs of rupees a year, should make an assignment to the value of nineteen lacs, and should cede Salsette and Bassein.

Surgee Anjengaom, The Treaties of (1) (December 4, 1803), concluded between the East India Company and Dowlat Rao Sindhia. Its stipulations were: the cession of all his territories lying between the Jumna and the Ganges, and north of the Rajput kingdoms of Jeypur and Jodhpur, the fortress and territory of Ahmadnagar in the Deccan, and Baroach, with its dependencies, in Gujarat; the relinquishment of all claims on the Nizam, Peshwa, Gaekwar, and British government; the recognition of the independence of all the British allies in Hindustan. (2) (November 23, 1805),

concluded between the company and Dowlat Rao Sindhia. Its stipulations were that all the provisions of the first treaty which were not modified by the new arrangement were to remain in force; that Golind and Gwalior were to be restored to him as a matter of friendship, on his engaging to assign three lacs of rupees from the revenues to the Rana. Pensions which had been granted to different officers of his court were relinquished, and annuities were settled on himself, his wife, and his daughter. The Chumbul was to form the boundary of the two states.

Surrey, Earls of. [Howard.]

Susa, The Peace of (April 14, 1629), was made between England and France, through the mediation of the Venetian ambassador, Contarini, and largely through the good offices of Queen Henrietta Maria. It tacitly recognized the principle that each king was free to settle his dealings with his own subjects as he thought fit.

Suspending Power, The, is that prerogative of the executive which claims to abrogate, for a longer or shorter period, the entire operation of a law. The royal letters patent from John onwards show how frequently the king suspended ordinances on trade, the collection of taxes, and shipping. Direct abrogation of statutes, though very rare, can be found from the reign of Edward I. Moreover, the many licences granted against the statutes on aliens, wool, corn, and, in the post-reformation period, on religion, amounted in many instances to a virtual suspension of these laws. The political changes wrought by the Puritan revolution affected this power even more than the dispensing power. When Charles II and James II employed it to secure toleration for their Dissenting subjects, parliament resisted and in 1689 declared it illegal.

W. S. Holdsworth, "History of English Law."

Sussex, Kingdom of. According to tradition, the first Saxon attack upon Britain after the conquest of Kent by the Jutes was that under Ella and his three sons (one of whom, Cissa, is said, with little probability, to have given his name to Chichester). According to the "Anglo-Saxon Chronicle" the South Saxons, after landing with a small force at Selsey in 477, slowly fought their way eastward, conquering the strip of land between the Andredes-weald and the Channel, until in 491 they reached Anderida. After a desperate struggle the fortress was taken, and "all that were therein slain." But they were unable to advance farther, for immediately to the east of Anderida a dense forest belt came down to the sea and barred progress. The kingdom of Sussex was always one of the least important of the English powers. It fell under the overlordship, first of Kent and then, in the latter half of the seventh century, of Mercia. Hitherto it had remained heathen, but in 661 its king, Ethelwalch, was baptized in the presence of Wulfhere of Mercia, and at the same time the overlord added to his dominions the Jutish region of the Isle of Wight, and the lands of the Meonwara along Southampton Water, hitherto subject to Wessex. But the mass of the people were still heathen, and in 681–6 St. Wilfrid occupied his enforced leisure among them in bringing about their conversion. In 685 Ceadwalla brought Sussex under West Saxon supremacy, and from this time it ceases to have any separate history.

Sussex, Kings of. Besides Ella (q.v.), the traditional founder of the kingdom of Sussex, and according to Bæda the first English prince who held an *imperium* or *ducatus*, few of the South Saxon princes were of importance. Even Ella's bretwaldaship could have meant little more than the command of a confederation of tribes united for purposes of war. Ethelwalch, the first Christian king, and his successor, Eadric, fell in battle against Ceadwalla of Wessex at the end of the seventh century. Mention is also found of the names of Huna, Numa or Nunna, Nothelm and Wattus, as ruling under Ine, and of Osmund, Ethelbert, and Sigebert as later princes.

Sussex, Thomas Radcliffe, 3rd Earl of (1526 ?–83). [Radcliffe.]

Suttee was the Hindu custom of burning the live widow with the dead husband. It was practised for twenty centuries, and is supposed to be of religious origin, but was really grafted on the original Hindu law, owing to the unwillingness among the Brahmins that the widow should acquire her settled property and celebrate the funeral rites of her husband. The British were at first afraid to interfere, fearing that it would create a religious excitement against the British rule. Lord William Bentinck, however, determined to abolish this custom, and on December 4, 1829, passed a regulation which declared the practice of suttee illegal, and punishable by the criminal courts as culpable homicide. Not the slightest feeling of alarm or resentment was exhibited. A few attempts at suttee were prevented by the police, and now the practice is a matter of history.

Sveaborg, The Bombardment of (August 9–11, 1855), took place during the Crimean War by the second Baltic expedition, under Admiral Dundas. It opened on the morning of August 9, and shot, shell, and rockets were rained into the fortress from British gun and mortar boats, and the batteries which the French had established on one of the many neighbouring islands. By the morning of the 11th it was computed that no less than one thousand tons of shot and shell had been thrown into the place by the British alone. Finding the destruction of the stores and arsenals and every building of importance to be

complete, the admiral resolved to make no further attempt on the fortifications themselves.

Swanimote Court, The, was a forest court. The term has been used at different times to describe various types of court, but originally it meant that which, under the terms of the Charter of the Forest, met three times yearly to deal with business connected with agistment, pannage, and fawnage. Later it is used to denote the inquisitions held to inquire into trespasses to vert and venison, which under Edward I became generalized. They were defined by a statute of 1306. All offences against the forest law, or misdoings of forest officials, could be presented at these inquisitions, which were held in the presence of a deputy of the justice of the forest, most of the forest officials, and a jury. In some places, further, the lords of chase held courts called Swanimotes. [Forests.]

Sweating Sickness, The, was the name given to a most destructive malady which ravaged Europe, and more particularly England, during the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries. Beginning in the form of a violent fever, accompanied by a profuse fetid perspiration, it speedily reduced its victims to a state of utter helplessness and prostration, a few hours only sufficing, as a general rule, to transform a healthy, vigorous man into a loathsome corpse. The mortality caused by a plague of this mysterious and deadly character was enormous, and in England, where its effects were more severely felt than in any other part of Europe, it resulted, according to Stow, in a marked depopulation of the kingdom. The first appearance of the "sweating sickness" in England was in August 1485, when, breaking out seemingly among Henry VII's troops at Milford Haven, it spread with fatal rapidity to London. Here, and generally, the plague raged furiously till about the end of October, when its force began to abate, till eventually on New Year's Day, 1486, all traces of it disappeared. In July 1517 it again broke out among the people, and ran a violent course of six months. In May 1528 its ravages brought about an almost total suspension of business. On this occasion the plague lasted on till July 1529. Its next appearance was in April 1551, when it destroyed in the space of a few days 960 of the inhabitants of Shrewsbury, whence it spread rapidly. It again took its departure in September, and with the exception of a short interval in 1575, when the sickness caused a vast number of deaths, principally in Oxford, we have no record of any subsequent renewal of the visitation. A remarkable circumstance connected with the "sweating sickness" was the comparative freedom which foreign residents in England enjoyed from its effects; upon the native-born population alone, for the most part, and chiefly on the upper classes among them, did the sickness exercise its deadly influence. Hence it has been supposed that the malady was largely due to the immoderate indulgence in beer so common among all classes of English people in the days of the Tudors.

Charles Creighton, "Epidemics in Britain (A.D. 664–1665)," 1891–4.

Sweden, Relations with. There were practically no dealings between England and Sweden during the Middle Ages. Gustavus Vasa at last freed the merchants of Sweden from the commercial yoke of the Lübeckers, as he had previously freed the country from the political yoke of Denmark. A commercial treaty of 1551 between England and Sweden marks the beginning of a trade which ultimately became important. The general leaning of Sweden to France, however, made really cordial political intercourse impossible. Half-mad King Eric's proposal to marry Queen Elizabeth (1560) must not be taken too seriously. Charles IX sought in 1599 the alliance of Elizabeth and her mediation between Sweden and Denmark. Gustavus Adolphus welcomed Scottish settlers into his new commercial town of Gothenburg. But the weak and uncertain policy of James I and Charles I determined Gustavus not to embroil himself in the Thirty Years' War until he had found in Richelieu a stronger ally than the English kings. Though many Englishmen served in his army, and English subsidies and troops were slowly doled out to him, he found no substantial help from England, and both his opposition to an unconditional restoration of the Elector Palatine and Charles I's desire that Germany should be freed from foreign conquerors prevented any close relations between the two countries. Towards the end of Christina's reign England and Sweden drew nearer together, as is shown by Whitelocke's famous embassy in 1654, the treaty of amity concluded by him, and Christina's acceptance of Cromwell's portrait. Though Charles X was generally supported by England in his Danish war, his unexampled success necessitated the union of England and Holland to force on him a peace which would prevent his obtaining the exclusive possession of the Sound. A common corruption and dependence on France united England and Sweden under the minority of Charles XI. In 1667 both countries reversed their policy and united with Holland to check France by the Triple Alliance (q.v.). This wise policy was, however, not pursued again until after 1680, when Charles XI became master of his kingdom and declared against France, an act which secured his friendship with the England of the Revolution. His last act was to mediate at the Congress of Ryswick (1697). But Sweden and England really belonged to very different political systems—a fact strongly illustrated by the very slight connexion of Charles XII and his northern wars with the War of the Spanish Succession raging at the same time. Charles, however, found on his return from Bender that the Elector of Hanover had seized his German duchies of Bremen and Verden; and his anxiety to recover these was a

strong motive for his union with Peter of Russia and Alberoni against George I, and of his schemes to restore the Pretender. Hence Great Britain welcomed the oligarchical revolution, which, on his death, rendered Sweden powerless for nearly two generations. During these "Times of Freedom" the British and Russian ambassadors jointly bribed and intrigued to obtain the supremacy of the "Caps" over the "Hats," though events showed that the Swedish alliance was hardly worth its cost. Twice the ascendancy of the French party involved Sweden in war, first against Great Britain and Russia in 1741–3, next against Prussia, the ally of Great Britain during the Seven Years' War. The failure of both wars restored the Caps to power. At last, in 1772, Gustavus III, with French help, got rid of the corrupt oligarchy of placemen, which was almost a parody of the British Whig connexion. His action was very much resented in Great Britain, and his share in the Armed Neutrality (q.v.) showed that he had become anti-British in policy.

But the abandonment by the younger Pitt of the old British policy of alliance with Russia led to a change in relations with Sweden, and Gustavus's vain attack on Russia (1788–90) was a welcome though ineffectual help to Pitt's plans. At the end of his reign Gustavus's fury against the French Revolution brought him into the coalition against France. But he was assassinated in 1792, and Gustavus IV, though in 1800 he joined the Armed Neutrality, in 1805 united with Pitt in the coalition against France. But after the Treaty of Tilsit the Russians deprived him of Finland, and, having offended the British general of the forces sent to his assistance, he was compelled to resign his throne to his uncle Charles XIII, who sought by adopting a French marshal (Bernadotte) as his heir to appease the fury of Napoleon. Nevertheless the Crown Prince—as Bernadotte was now called—joined in the alliance which dethroned his old master in 1815. Since that period Sweden has had no very striking direct political dealings with Great Britain. Her commercial relations have for the last two centuries been of importance.

R. N. Bain, "Scandinavia," 1905; C. R. L. Fletcher, "Gustavus Adolphus," 1892; Oscar Browning, "Charles II of Sweden," 1899; works on Bernadotte by Sir D. P. Barton, 1914, 1921, and 1925; J. F. Chance (ed.), "British Diplomatic Instructions, Sweden, 1689–1727," 1922. [T. F. T.]

Sweyn, King of Denmark (*d.* 1014), during the lifetime of his father, Harold Bluetooth, threw off the Christianity which had been forced upon him, and distinguished himself as a Viking chief. In 994 he joined forces with Olaf Tryggvason (q.v.) in an attack upon England; and was paid by Ethelred 16,000 pounds of silver as Danegeld. In 1002 the murder of his sister in the massacre of St. Brice's Day gave him a new motive of hostility, and in the next year Sweyn, who had in the meantime established himself in Denmark, returned to England at the head of a great army. He retired after ravaging Wessex, returning again in 1004 and 1006. Thereafter he did not appear again in person until 1013, when he began the systematic conquest of the country. All the Danelagh submitted at once, and the flight of Ethelred to Normandy and the submission of the West Saxons made him practically ruler of England (1013). But as he was never crowned, the chroniclers call him Sweyn the Tyrant. His death in February of the next year left the throne open to his greater son, Canute.

Sweyn, eldest son of Godwin (*d.* 1052), was in 1043 appointed to an earldom, which included the shires of Hereford, Gloucester, Oxford, Berks, and Somerset. We read of his wars with the Welsh, and in 1046, on his return from one of these expeditions, he abducted Eadgifu, Abbess of Leominster. Being forbidden to marry her, he threw up his earldom and retired to Denmark. In 1049 he made overtures to Edward for the restoration of his earldom, which had been divided between Harold and Beorn, but his chances of pardon were destroyed by his treacherous murder of Beorn. Declared a *nithing* by the army, he escaped to Flanders, but in the next year he was restored to his possessions by Edward. In 1051 he was outlawed with his father, and once more retired to Flanders, but did not return with Godwin. "The blood of Beorn, the wrongs of Eadgifu lay heavy on his spirit," a pilgrimage to the Holy Land could alone expiate his crimes. Thither he went barefooted, and on his return "breathed his last in some unknown spot of the distant land of Lycia."

Swift, Jonathan (1667–1745), was born at Dublin, and educated there at Trinity College. In 1688 he was received into the family of Sir William Temple, to whom he was related. In 1695 he was ordained, but soon resigned a small Irish living, and returned to reside with Temple. During his residence with Temple began his mysterious connexion with Esther Johnson, the "Stella" of his Journal. In 1699, failing of promotion to an English living, Swift went to Ireland as chaplain to Lord Berkeley, and was scantily rewarded by receiving, not the deanery which he had expected, but the living of Laracor, in the county of Meath. Swift began his political career as a Whig. In 1704 he published the "Tale of a Tub," a satire on the corruptions of early Christianity and the results of the Reformation. The "Battle of the Books" (1704), on the literary dispute about the "Epistles of Phalaris," added to his reputation. During Anne's reign he paid frequent and protracted visits to England, and became closely connected with the leading Tories. During the last five years of Anne's reign he played a very prominent part in English politics as the leading political writer of the Tories, and the friend and confidant of their leaders. He was on terms of the closest intimacy both with Harley and Bolingbroke, and attempted to allay the quarrel between the

rival statesmen. His pamphlet, "The Conduct of the Allies" (1711), was of immense service to the Tory party; and in a paper called the *Examiner* he upheld their cause with zeal, and supplied the ministry with arguments (November 1710–June 1711). In 1713 he received the deanery of St. Patrick's, Dublin. There he is thought to have been secretly married to "Stella." She died in 1728. On the death of Anne the dean retired to Dublin a disappointed man. In 1724 he wrote the "Drapier Letters," an attack on the monopoly to coin halfpence which had been granted to a man named Wood; and this was followed by several other tracts on Irish affairs in which the treatment of Ireland by the English government was satirized with unsurpassed power. In writing of Ireland Swift thought chiefly of the English colony in Ireland; but his writings made him the idol of the whole Irish people. In 1726 appeared his greatest work, "Gulliver's Travels." Swift outlived his genius, and sank into idiocy; the last years of his life were spent in almost complete mental darkness. Apart from his literary renown, Swift owes his position in history to the fact that in his writings we have the Tory view of politics in Queen Anne's reign set forth with the greatest literary skill. In Irish politics he is the typical representative of the Protestant ascendancy in Ireland, whose attack on the English government prepared the way for Grattan and the Volunteers (q.v.) of 1779.

Swift's "Works," edited by Scott and republished 1883; J. Forster, "Life of Swift," 1875, which was left unfinished; Sir H. Craik, "Life of Swift," 1882; C. Whibley, "Jonathan Swift," 1917.

"Swing, Captain," was the name under which, during the agricultural outrages of the year 1830, which had their origin in the increased use of machinery for agricultural purposes, threatening letters were frequently sent to those proprietors who made use of machinery, ordering them to refrain from doing so, and threatening notices were affixed to gates and barns. This nickname was used in order to identify the various documents with the same movement.

Swinton, Sir John, was a Scottish knight who fought with great gallantry at the battle of Homildon Hill, where he was slain (1402). His son, also named John, crossed over to the aid of France with the Earl of Buchan, and was present at the battle of Beaugé (1421), where he unhorsed the Duke of Clarence. In 1424 he was killed at Verneuil.

Swithin (Swithun), St. (*d.* 862), was not, as has often been asserted, a monk of Winchester, but was probably a secular clerk who won the favour first of Ecgbert and then of his son Ethelwulf. The latter appointed him Bishop of Winchester (852) and retained him as one of his chief counsellors. He was regularly canonized; and his cathedral church, orginally dedicated to St. Peter and Paul, was called by his name from the tenth to the sixteenth century.

Swordsmen was the name given to the able-bodied Irish who in 1652 were allowed to leave their country and enlist abroad. Some 30,000 or 40,000 are said to have availed themselves of this permission. At first this was only a private arrangement between the Irish leaders and the Puritan generals to whom they surrendered. But Parliament legalized their capitulations by a special act; at the same time banishing all officers, while allowing them to enlist more recruits. Spain, France, Austria, and Venice took advantage of this opportunity for strengthening their forces.

J. A. Froude, "English in Ireland," 3 vols., 1872–4.

Swynford, Catherine (*d.* 1403), successively governess, mistress, and third wife to John of Gaunt, was the daughter of Sir Payne de Roelt, who came to England with Queen Philippa, and widow of Sir Hugh Swynford. From her are descended the Beauforts, and consequently Henry VII. Her marriage with John of Gaunt took place in 1396, but all her children were born previously.

Sydenham, Charles William Poulett Thomson, Baron (1793–1841). [Thomson.]

T

Tables, The, was the name given to a national council in Scotland, formed in 1637 to represent all those who objected to the New Service Book, and other changes which the Scottish council, under orders from Charles I, was attempting to introduce. It was virtually an extraordinary parliament, its sixteen members being elected equally from the four classes of nobles, barons, clergy, and burgesses. The creation of the Tables was sanctioned by the privy council in 1637, as a means of intercourse between the Supplicants (q.v.) (or opposition, which included almost the whole nation) and the Crown. The following account of them is given in Gordon, "Scots Affairs":—"These sixteen thus choosen were constitute as delegates for the rest, who were to treat with the Council thereafter in name of the rest, and to reside constantly where the Council sat. These delegates thus constitute were appointed to give intelligence to all quarters of the kingdom to their associates of all that passed betwixt the King, the Council, and them; to correspond with the rest, and to receive intelligence from them, and to call such of them with the mind of the rest as they thought expedient." The council soon discovered that in authorizing the creation of the Tables they had called into being a representative body of an extremely troublesome and dangerous nature. In 1638, on the publication of a proclamation of the king exonerating the bishops, the Tables summoned their adherents to meet at Stirling, and issued the famous Protestation, declaring the "king to be deceived by the prelates, and to be personally

guiltless of the whole." Shortly afterwards they issued the Covenant (q.v.), compelling persons to sign allegiance to it all over Scotland. To the Tables is due the organization of the Glasgow Assembly of 1638, and the indictment of the bishops in the same year. It was the Tables, moreover, which made preparations for the war that broke out the following year.

P. Hume Brown, "History of Scotland," 1911.

Tackers, The (1704), was the name given to a party of zealous Tories, headed by Nottingham, who proposed, in imitation of a plan which had been resorted to in the previous reign in the case of the Irish Resumption Bill, to tack the Occasional Conformity Bill (q.v.) to the New Land Tax Bill, "so that the peers could not fling out the proposal of intolerance without losing the proposal of supply." The moderate Tories, however, headed by Harley and St. John, voted against them, and they were routed by 251 votes to 134.

W. T. Morgan, "English Political Parties in the Reign of Anne," 1920.

Tahiti Question, 1842–4. In September 1842 the French admiral, Du Petit-Thouars, extorted a convention from Queen Pomare, by which the French assumed possession of the island of Tahiti. The question was taken up by Great Britain with great vigour. The French government professed that it did not desire the annexation, but merely the protectorate of the island. The French people were, however, most indignant. Popular feeling ran high in both countries, and it was only the moderation of the governments which preserved peace. In 1844 the two governments were once more embroiled by the indiscretion of the French officials in Tahiti. They had made themselves most objectionable to the natives, and on the night of March 2 one of their sentinels was seized and disarmed. This was made the pretext for seizing and imprisoning George Pritchard, the British consul and a prominent missionary, who was peculiarly obnoxious to the Roman Catholics (March 5, 1844). He was released only on the condition of his instantly leaving the Pacific. This outrage created a profound indignation in Great Britain, and Sir Robert Peel denounced it in parliament as a gross indignity. After some months of negotiation the queen's speech of 1845 announced that the question had been satisfactorily settled, and an indemnity given to Pritchard.

Guizot, "Mémoires," vol. ii; J. MacCarthy, "History of Our Own Times."

Tailbois, Elizabeth Blount, Lady (*d.* 1540 ?). [Blount.]

Talavera, The Battle of (July 27 and 28, 1809), was perhaps the most important, as it certainly was one of the most hard-fought, of the earlier battles of the Peninsular War. The town of Talavera de la Reyna stands on the left bank of the Tagus, 42 miles west of Toledo, in a small plain bounded on the north and west by a range of low hills. Wellesley extended his line along these hills and occupied an old ruined building, the Casa des Salinas, in the plain, while Cuesta with the Spaniards, who composed two-thirds of the allied army, was posted in front of the town on his right. Early on the 27th the British division in the Casa des Salinas was surprised by French skirmishers, but was quickly rallied by Wellesley in person, and withdrawn to the hills, where they formed up behind the troops already posted there. Victor opened a heavy fire on the position, which towards evening was suddenly attacked. The Germans, who were in advance, were completely surprised; but Donkin in the rear repulsed the attack. The French, however, seized an unoccupied eminence on his left, from which they annoyed the British until Hill by hard fighting drove them from it, just as darkness put an end to the fight. At dawn on the 28th a violent onslaught was made on the British left, but the French were driven off with a loss of 1,500 men. Both sides rested under the scorching heat of a midsummer sun; but the British were very short of supplies and were almost starving. In the afternoon the French renewed the attack and fell on the British right, where they were quickly repulsed in confusion. Meanwhile a threatened attack on the left had been checked by a reckless charge of the dragoons, while in the centre the French were completely defeated. The British, however, were too much exhausted to pursue, and the Spaniards could not be trusted, so that Wellesley achieved only the opening up of a safe retreat. He had, however, gained a reputation which was of immense value to him. The losses were roughly 1,000 Spaniards, 6,000 British, and 9,000 French.

J. W. Fortescue, "History of the British Army," vol. vii, 1912; Sir C. W. C. Oman, "Peninsular War," vol. ii, 1902–20.

Talbot, Charles, 12th Earl of Shrewsbury, afterwards the only Duke of (1660–1718), came of a Roman Catholic family, but adopted the reform faith as early as 1679. He was one of the seven who signed the invitation to William of Orange. He became secretary of state in William III's first ministry; but he early quarrelled with Nottingham, and finding himself powerless against the superior powers of Carmarthen, he began to intrigue with the Jacobite court at St. Germains. In 1690 William was obliged to dismiss him. But at length, in 1694, the personal request of William overcame his reluctance to resume office, and he was rewarded with a dukedom and the Garter. In 1696 he was gravely implicated in the confession of Sir John Fenwick (q.v.). He at once wrote to the king declaring that Fenwick's charges were exaggerated. William forgave him; but Shrewsbury, overwhelmed with remorse, retired from London. Again, a spy named Matthew Smith accused him of having been privy to the Assassination Plot (q.v.). William himself offered to prove his innocence, and he was declared guiltless by the peers, but, unable to endure his recollections, he left England. For

five years he lived at Rome. On his return he deserted the Whig party, being angry because he could not get office. As member of the opposition he defended Sacheverell (q.v.) in the House of Lords. In 1710 the queen, wishing to drive Godolphin from office, made Shrewsbury lord chamberlain without consulting that minister. In 1711 he deserted the ministry, and joined his old colleague, Nottingham, in an attack on the proposed peace; but in 1713, on the death of the Duke of Hamilton, he went to Paris as ambassador, with instructions to inform M. de Torcy that peace must be concluded. During the last year of Anne's life his views on the succession question seemed doubtful. In October 1713 Bolingbroke, probably imagining that he was in favour of a Stuart restoration, sent him to Ireland as lord-lieutenant. He himself declared he accepted the office "because it was a place where a man had business enough to prevent him falling asleep, but not enough to keep him awake." But the elections going against the government, and a contest impending between the two Houses of the Irish parliament, he returned to England to watch the course of events. At Queen Anne's deathbed he was introduced by a deputation and the white staff of treasurer put into his hands. "Use it," said the queen, "for the good of my people." This *coup d'état* was the result of a consultation between himself and the Dukes of Argyll and Somerset. By this stroke on the part of the Whig leaders Bolingbroke's schemes were overthrown. [St. John.] Until George I arrived in England several great offices were united in Shrewsbury's hands, but henceforth he ceased to take an active part in politics.

"Shrewsbury Correspondence"; "Life of Charles, Duke of Shrewsbury," 1718 (anon.). [L. C. S.]

Talbot, Francis, 5th Earl of Shrewsbury (1560), a distinguished soldier, did good service in suppressing the Pilgrimage of Grace (q.v.) in 1537. In 1544 he was associated with Lord Hertford in the expedition to Scotland, and again led an army thither four years later. During the reign of Mary he was much favoured by the queen, though he opposed her marriage with Philip II of Spain. In spite of his religion he was admitted by Elizabeth to her privy council, but his unqualified opposition to the Act of Supremacy (1559) lost him her favour.

Talbot, George, 6th Earl of Shrewsbury (1528 ?–1590), was appointed guardian of Mary, Queen of Scots, at Tutbury, Wingfield, and Chatsworth (1569), and treated her so well as to incur the suspicion of disloyalty towards Elizabeth. In 1571 he was privy to the Ridolfi conspiracy (q.v.), but subsequently returned to his allegiance. He presided at the trial of the Duke of Norfolk in the capacity of lord high steward (1572), and afterwards was present as earl marshal at the execution of Mary (1587). He was to the last unable so to establish himself in the confidence of his sovereign as to be exempt from such starts of suspicion and fits of displeasure as kept him in a state of continual apprehension.

Talbot, John, 1st Earl of Shrewsbury (1388 ?–1453), was a younger son of Richard, 4th Baron Talbot. He married the daughter and heiress of Lord Furnivall. On suspicion of Lollard tendencies he was imprisoned in the Tower early in Henry V's reign, but was soon afterwards released and appointed lieutenant of Ireland (1414), a post which he held for some years, though frequently serving in France, where he was one of the strongest supports of the English rule. In 1429 he was defeated and taken prisoner in the battle of Patay, but three years later was exchanged. In 1442 he was created Earl of Shrewsbury, and in 1447 Earl of Waterford. In 1452 he was sent out with troops to France, and captured Bordeaux; but in the next year he was defeated and slain at Castillon. His bravery gained for him the title of "the English Achilles," and with his death the loss of the English conquests in France was assured.

Talbot, Richard, Earl of Tyrconnel (1630–91), was one of the most dissolute and abandoned of the persons attached to Charles II's court. In 1660 he took the lead in the infamous plot to defame the character of Anne Hyde. In 1678, after being engaged in a long course of devious intrigues, he was arrested as a Catholic conspirator and banished. In 1685, however, he was restored to favour, and created Earl of Tyrconnel, and the following year sent to Ireland as commander-in-chief. He now became the champion of the Irish Catholics, and went to England, where he tried to persuade James to repeal the Act of Settlement (q.v.). He returned to Ireland in February 1687, as lord deputy. The magistracy, the judicial bench, and the corporations were at once filled with Catholics, and the troops encouraged in all excesses against Protestants. When the news of James's flight reached Tyrconnel in 1689 he raised over 100,000 men, and in February Londonderry and Enniskillen alone held out against him. At the Boyne he commanded the Irish infantry. In 1690 he was for abandoning Limerick, left it to its fate so far as he himself was concerned, and went to France. In the spring of 1691 he returned to Ireland and was received with great respect, though the Irish had asked for a more energetic leader, and though it was known that he hated Sarsfield and St. Ruth. The fall of Athlone was attributed to his favouritism of Maxwell, and he had to leave the camp and go to Limerick. After Aghrim he was in better favour, but died in August 1691.

Biography by P. W. Sergeant, 1913.

Tallage. [An arbitrary tax fixed by the feudal lord and levied upon his dependents. One of the characteristics of unfree tenure was liability to capricious tallage. Towns on the royal demesne were subject to the payment of tallage whenever demanded; and the burgesses, whose administration of the borough's revenue

in the fixed form of *firma burgi* gave them experience in assessment, were loaded with like responsibility of collecting the occasional tax.] In the Pipe Roll 31 of Hen. I appears a *town aid, auxilium burgi*, or *civitatis*, which seems to answer to the Danegeld in the counties. It is set down in the roll among the ordinary receipts, and it is probable, therefore, that it was an annual payment; but how long it had been exacted it is impossible to determine. After 1163 Danegeld disappeared, but its place was taken, so far as the towns and demesne lands of the Crown were concerned, by a tax described loosely as *donum* or *assisa*, but to which the term *tallage* came later to be definitely attached. The amount to be paid by each county and town was assessed by officers of the exchequer in special fiscal circuits, or by the justices in eyre; in the towns themselves the civic authorities, whoever they may have been, decided how much each citizen was to pay—a power the abuse of which led to the rising in London under William Fitz-Osbert. As the king had the right of tallaging his demesne, so the barons had the right of tallaging theirs; and towns frequently declared they were liable to the royal tallaging in order to escape the heavier exactions of their lords. The exchequer, however, succeeded in gaining a general control over these seigneurial tallages; special permission became necessary before an imposition could be made, and when escheated baronies were regranted it was always with the condition that tallage should only be paid to the lord when the king taxed his own demesne. As late as 1305 the king, probably to prevent opposition to the tallage imposed the year before, granted leave to the barons to tallage their own ancient demesnes as he had tallaged his. The seigneurial right was gradually bought off by the communities, and early disappears. In the Confirmation of the Charters in 1297 Edward I promised only to renounce "aids, tasks, and prises," words which might fairly be interpreted not to include tallage from demesne lands. The document known as "De Tallagio non Concedendo" (q.v.), in which the king expressly renounces the right of tallage, and which has been accepted by Hallam as the basis of his argument on this point, was merely an unauthoritative abstract of the original articles. After 1297 tallage was demanded three times: in 1304, in 1312—when it was objected to by London, not on account of illegality, but on the ground that the metropolis was exempted from such payments by Magna Carta—and in 1332, when, upon the remonstrance of parliament, the commissions were withdrawn, and a tenth accepted instead. Finally, by a statute of 1340, "the real Act '*De Tallagio*,'" it was enacted that the nation should no more "make any common aid or sustain charge" but by consent of parliament—words wide enough to include all unauthorized taxation. After this date it was never exacted, though until the end of the reign the Commons were uneasy, and occasionally petitioned that it might not be imposed.

Tallage was, as Gneist observes, a natural product of feudalism. As military service became the burden of a particular class, it seemed equitable that those who were exempt should contribute by taxation to the national defence. Two causes contributed to ensure for the tallaged class in England more considerate treatment than abroad. In the first place the *fyrd*, or national militia, had been maintained, though partly for other purposes, so that the tallaged had weapons in their hands, with which they did good service; and secondly, the kings frequently promised not to raise the amount of tallage in order to gain an increase of the *firma burgi*.

Madox, "History of Exchequer," 1711, p. 480; Stubbs, "Constitutional History," i, § 161; ii, § 275; Gneist, "Englische Verfassungs Geschichte," 1882, pp. 125, 172; Petit-Dutaillis, "Studies Supplementary to Stubbs," vol. i; Pollock and Maitland, "History of English Law," vol. i; McKechnie, "Magna Carta."

[W. J. A.]

Talmash (Tollemache), Thomas (1651?–1694), first appears in command of the Coldstream Guards at the skirmish at Walcourt (August 1689), under the Duke of Marlborough. He served under Ginkel in Ireland, and distinguished himself greatly at the siege of Athlone (June 30, 1691), and at the battle of Aghrim (July 12). When the notice of parliament was directed to Solmes's conduct at the battle of Steinkirk, it was requested that his place might be filled by Talmash, who, next to Marlborough, was universally allowed to be the best officer in the army. He fought under William at the battle of Landen (July 19, 1693). He was soon afterwards sent in command of an expedition against Brest. The design was betrayed probably by Marlborough to James II, from motives of personal jealousy. Accordingly when Talmash attempted to land he was received by a terrible fire from the French troops, and received a mortal wound, "exclaiming with his last breath that he had been a victim of treachery" (June 8, 1694).

Tandy, James Napper (1740–1803), a Dublin tradesman, commanded in 1782 the Phœnix Park Artillery. He was an ardent Irish "patriot," and as early as 1784 began to correspond with France. He became a member of the Whig Club, and in November 1790 was secretary to the Dublin United Irishmen. In 1792 he had the audacity to challenge the solicitor-general; he was arrested, escaped, and rearrested the day before the close of the session, so that he was only in prison for a day. In 1795 he went over to America, but was in France in 1797, where he represented himself as an officer. In 1798, together with some other Irish rebels, he followed Humbert in a small vessel, but did not arrive in Ireland till after the defeat of the French at Ballinamuck, and at once fled and reached Hamburg in safety. On September 29, however, he was delivered up to the British. France afterwards declared war on Hamburg on his account. He was tried

in Ireland, but was thought much too contemptible to be made a martyr of, and was liberated after the Peace of Amiens (1802).

Tanganyika. [East Africa, British Dominions in.]

Tangier, a seaport of Morocco, was taken by the Portuguese from the Moors in 1471, and ceded by them to England in 1662 as the dowry of Catherine of Braganza on her marriage with Charles II. Colonel Kirke was placed in command of the garrison. It was evacuated by the English in 1684, on account of the climate and the expense of the wars with the Mussulmans, and the works were destroyed. Tangier subsequently became a nest of pirates, who frequently enslaved British subjects, and whom the British government was not ashamed to subsidize in order to keep them quiet. During the reign of Soliman, however (1794–1822), Christian slavery was abolished and piracy suppressed. The place again became prominent at the Algeciras Conference of 1906 (q.v.), when, as a result of the hostile conduct of Raisuli towards Europeans, a regular police force was established, together with European control of the customs. In 1923 a convention was signed between Great Britain, France, and Spain (December 18, 1923—February 7, 1924), by which Tangier, under the sovereignty of the Sultan of Morocco, was declared a neutral international region.

P. Champion, "Tangier," 1924; E. D. Morel, "Morocco in Diplomacy," 1912; Sir J. S. Corbett, "England in the Mediterranean, 1603–1763," vol. ii, 1904; E. M. G. Routh, "Tangier," 1912.

Tanjore, The State of, was founded in the middle of the seventeenth century by Shahji, the father of Sivaji. In 1769 it was conquered by Madras in consequence of a quarrel with Mohammed Ali of the Carnatic, to whom the sovereignty was transferred. The court of directors, however, disapproved of this, and ordered that the raja should be restored, 1780. A succession dispute of 1786 led to Wellesley's assuming the entire administration of Tanjore in 1800, the raja being pensioned.

Tankerville, Forde Grey, Earl of (*d.* 1701). [Grey.]

Tantallon Castle, in Haddingtonshire, the stronghold of the Douglases, was successfully defended (1528) against James V by the Earl of Angus, who had, however, soon afterwards to seek an asylum in England. It was destroyed by the Covenanters in 1639.

Tantia Topi (1819?–1895) was a Mahratta Brahmin of the revolted Gwalior force in the Indian Mutiny (1857). He took the command, and on November 28 encountered General Windham at Cawnpore with some success. In 1858 he marched to the relief of Jhansi, but was routed at the Belwah by Sir Hugh Rose. Joined by the Rani of Jhansi, he concentrated his forces at Kuneh, but was beaten utterly. He then proceeded to Gwalior and incited an insurrection against Sindhia. He was beaten again by Sir H. Rose outside Gwalior, but escaped, and waged a predatory war for some time. His hiding-place was, however, betrayed; he was seized when asleep (April 7, 1859) in the jungle in Malwa, and was tried and executed (April 18).

Tara, The Hill of, situated in Meath, was in ancient days the residence of the kings of Tara. Near here on May 26, 1798, Lord Fingal, with some 400 fencibles and mounted yeomen, routed 3,000 Irish rebels, killing about 400. Here, too, on August 15, 1843, Daniel O'Connell held a monster meeting in support of Repeal, said to have been attended by 250,000 people.

P. F. Kavanagh, "Rebellion of 1798," 1913.

Tara, Kings of. Till the seventh century the *Ard Ri Erind*, or high king of Erin, resided in the palace of Tara. The kingdom of Meath, in which it was situated, formed his appanage. After the overthrow of the Hui Neills by Brian Boru (q.v.), at the beginning of the eleventh century, the position of King of Tara was held by one or another of the provincial kings; it resembled that of the Anglo-Saxon bretwalda. Under this over-king there was a complete hierarchy of provincial kings, princes, and nobles. The nature of the relations of these classes to each other was in most cases of the same shadowy nature as the overlordship of the King of Tara. [Ireland.]

Tariff Reform Movement, The, which began in 1903, was a fiscal policy directed towards giving a preference to colonial goods and protecting Imperial trade by means of retaliative tariffs on certain foreign goods. It was a natural development of the imperialist policy of the later nineteenth century, definitely formulated in the speech of Joseph Chamberlain at Birmingham on May 15, 1903. The movement excited great opposition from free-trade opinion, but it rapidly spread among the ranks of the Conservative Unionist party. The Tariff Reform League was founded in July, and Chamberlain's autumn campaign after his resignation from the Balfour cabinet stirred the country. During 1904 and 1905 the fiscal question remained a burning issue, until it finally split and routed the Unionist party. Mr. Balfour pleaded for a sinking of differences (November 14, 1905), and on Chamberlain still insisting on the adoption of his fiscal policy the government resigned (December 4). At the elections of January 1906 the Unionists were heavily defeated: Joseph Chamberlain was returned for Birmingham, but with only 156 others of his party. The Tariff Reform principle was definitely adopted by the Unionist party. Twenty years after its formulation it again became an election issue, resulting in the defeat of the Conservatives and the accession of the first Labour government (December 1923).

Tasmania, an island off the south-east corner of Australia and one of the original

states to form the Commonwealth of Australia. [Australia, Commonwealth of.]

Taunton was in all probability a Roman station. It was of considerable importance to the kingdom of Wessex; Ina built a castle there [about 700], and it was more than once attacked by the Welsh. After the Conquest the castle was rebuilt by the bishops of Winchester, to whom the town and manor were granted. It first returned a member to parliament in 1295. Taunton was held for some time by the pretender Warbeck, and during the Civil War sustained a long siege under Colonel Blake against the Royalists under Goring, until relieved by Fairfax. Jeffreys held his "Bloody Assize" at Taunton after the failure of Monmouth's rebellion, the duke having previously been proclaimed king there. The charter of the borough which was granted to it by Charles I [1627], was taken from it by Charles II [1677 renewed], and it remained unincorporated until after the Municipal Reform Act of 1835.

"Victoria County History: Somerset."

[A. L. S.]

Taxation. In Anglo-Saxon times the witan alone had the power of imposing extraordinary taxation—a power which was, however, rarely used, as the public expenditure was amply defrayed by the rents of the public lands and by the obligation of *trinoda necessitas*. The only instances of extraordinary taxation before the Norman Conquest were the Danegeld (q.v.) and shipgeld. The former continued to be occasionally levied down to the reign of Henry II, and under Richard I was revived (in 1194) under the name of carucage. After the Norman Conquest the ordinary revenue proved far too small for the needs of the king, and as a consequence we find the finance of the country occupying much of the attention of the executive, whilst by degrees it was found necessary to increase extraordinary taxation to a very large extent. Up to the reign of Henry II the indirect taxation of the country, such as customs, was unimportant, while the extraordinary taxes, such as the Danegeld and scutage (q.v.) fell only on land. In 1188, however, an important innovation was introduced in the Saladin Tithe (q.v.), or the first tax on movables. This tax became very popular with succeeding kings. Under Richard I one-fourth of their goods was demanded from everyone; John levied one-seventh; and subsequent kings usually one-fifteenth in counties and one-tenth in towns. The imposition of taxes under the Norman kings had been practically at the will of the king, though the consent of the barons was often asked as a matter of form, and the exaction grew so heavy that Magna Carta provided (clause 12) that no extraordinary scutage or aid should be imposed by the king "unless by common counsel of our kingdom." The growth of representation is closely connected with the history of taxation, and it early became a recognized principle that the votes of those who were present bound those who were absent; whilst the idea that taxation required the consent of the taxed, which grew up after it became customary to tax movables, made it necessary to summon to parliament the knights of the shire (1254), and burgesses and lower clergy (1265) as well as the barons and the spiritual lords. The fact that we often find the different classes in the kingdom making grants of different rates is the result of the "right of self-taxation being recognized to the extent of each class of the community determining, independently of the rest, what amount it would contribute. The lords made a separate grant. The knights voted their own quota, and the burgesses theirs, while the clergy decided for themselves the amount of their taxation. By 1283 general grants in parliament were substituted for the system of negotiations with separate sections of the community. The Confirmation of the Charters by Edward I declared that henceforth no extraordinary tax should be levied without the consent of the whole kingdom, and a like promise was made in the statute *De Tallagio non Concedendo* (1297) (q.v.). From this time the exclusive right of parliament to impose taxation, though often infringed by the illegal exercise of prerogative, became an axiom of the constitution." In spite of this, however, Edward III, in the face of repeated remonstrances from the Commons (notably in the statute of 1340 forbidding all unparliamentary taxation), frequently resorted to arbitrary taxation, whilst Richard II raised forced loans; but under the Lancastrian kings we find but few cases of illegal imposts. From Richard II the old taxes of hidage (q.v.), scutage (q.v.), and tallage (q.v.) were replaced by subsidies. A tax imposed upon persons in respect of the reputed value of their estates in 1379–80, the imposition of a graduated poll tax, ranging from £4 to 4d., proved the immediate cause of the Peasants' Revolt (q.v.). Soon after this time it became customary to make a grant to each king for life at the beginning of his reign. This grant, under the name of tunnage and poundage (q.v.), continued to be made until the time of Charles I. The frequent demands for money by Henry VII and Henry VIII caused great dissatisfaction to the people. In 1523–5 the arbitrary exactions of Wolsey paved the way for his downfall. Direct taxation, however, formed only a small part of Tudor revenues. The bulk came from hereditary Crown lands, feudal incidents, purveyance, ecclesiastical dues, proceeds of justice, customs, and impositions, most of which were nominally dependent on a parliamentary vote at the opening of the reign. Parliamentary taxation consisted chiefly of the tenth and fifteenth (since 1334 a fiscal expression for a fixed sum—£30,000)—and the subsidy (£80,000). Up to 1588 it had been usual for the Commons to vote one subsidy (£80,000) and two-fifteenths on goods; but in that year two subsidies and four-fifteenths were granted, owing to the expense occasioned by the Spanish Armada, and from

that date a larger number of subsidies were granted. The financial difficulties of the Stuarts led them to resort frequently to illegal imposts. In 1608, under James I, Cecil caused a "Book of Rates" to be issued, which laid heavy duties on merchandise, while the extortions of Charles I led to the first article in the Petition of Right, which provides that "no person from henceforth shall be compelled to make any loans to the king against his will, as having inherited this freedom, that he should not be compelled to contribute to any tax, tallage, aid, or other like charge not set by common consent in Parliament." Taxation under the Commonwealth was heavy; and on the abolition of feudal incidents and aids, excise and customs duties and hearth-money were granted to the king as compensation. In this reign, too, the control of the Commons over taxation (Commons and Lords concurred in grants until 1625) was much increased by the introduction of the custom of appropriation of supplies, while at the same time the Lower House established their right of initiating all money bills as laid down in a famous statute of 1407. In the reign of Charles II the clergy ceased to tax themselves in convocation. James II once more resorted to illegal and arbitrary taxation, and as a consequence the Bill of Rights declared that the king, amongst other things, had endeavoured to subvert the liberties of the kingdom "by levying money for and to the use of the Crown by pretence of prerogative, for other time and in other manner than the same was granted by Parliament," which was illegal. From the reign of William III the customs and excise duties gradually increased, while in 1690 a land tax of 3s. in the pound was imposed, and renewed annually. Walpole intensely disliked the land tax, and wished to abolish it as a means of conciliating the landed gentry and of keeping himself in office. His theory of taxation was that "that tax which is the most equal and the most general is the most just and least burdensome." Hence his Excise Scheme of 1733 [Excise]. He was defeated, however, and by 1742 the principle of a tax on luxuries was in operation. Windows, dogs, horses, and other things were taxed. In 1796 the legacy duty on personal property was imposed by Pitt (the real property tax not being imposed till 1833), and two years later the same minister taxed all incomes over £200. This tax was discontinued in 1816, but renewed by Sir Robert Peel in 1842, since which time it has continued to be levied, the rates being varied by parliament from time to time. [Income Tax.] In 1851 the window tax was replaced by a tax imposed on houses in proportion to their rental. The first permanent tax was hearth-money, imposed in 1662, up to which time taxes had been granted for a year, or other fixed term, as occasion demanded. After the Revolution, however, permanent duties increased. These were generally granted as a security for loans, and the financial policy of permanent taxes increased with the national debt and the extension of public credit. At the present day the power of taxation remains as it was in the days of Lord Chatham, who said—"Taxation is no part of the governing or legislative power. The taxes are a voluntary gift and grant of the Commons alone." Stages on the road to this situation are to be found in the Commons' Declarations of 1661, 1671, 1678, and 1860. [Assessment; Customs; Excise; Rates.]

E. Lipson, "Economic History of England," vol. i, 4th edn., 1926; S. Dowell, "History of Taxation and Taxes in England," 4 vols., 2nd edn., 1888; W. Kennedy, "English Taxation, 1640–1799," 1913; J. R. Tanner, "Tudor Constitutional Documents," 1923; N. A. Brisco, "Economical Policy of Walpole" (in Columbia University Studies in History, etc., vol. 27, 1907); J. F. Rees, "Short Fiscal and Financial History of England, 1815–1918," 1921; D. J. Medley, "Constitutional History," ed. of 1926.

Taylor, Rowland (*d.* 1555), was vicar of Hadleigh in Suffolk, to which living he was presented by Archbishop Cranmer in 1544. He was condemned by Bishop Gardiner and a tribunal composed of the bishops of London, Norwich, Salisbury, and Durham for his Protestantism; and on refusing to recant was burnt near Hadleigh, February 9, 1555. Foxe, who gives an affecting account of Taylor's martyrdom, says of him, that "he was a right perfect divine and parson."

T. Q. Stow, "Memorials of Rowland Taylor," 1833.

Tea Duties, The, were first imposed in 1660. In 1772 the East India Company, being in pecuniary difficulties, were allowed by parliament to export their teas from London warehouses to America free from English duties, and liable only to a small duty to be levied in the colony. Although by this arrangement the colonists obtained their tea cheaper than they would otherwise have done, they looked upon it as a mere bribe to induce them to consent to the right of Great Britain to tax America. Accordingly it was resolved to resist the imposition of the duty, and when the tea-ships arrived at Boston in December 1773 they were boarded and their cargoes thrown overboard. This was one of the incidents which ultimately led to the American War. In Great Britain the East India Company retained its monopoly until 1834. In 1836 new duties were imposed; these were at first 2s. 1d. in the pound, but they were reduced to 1s. 5d. in 1857, to 6d. in 1865, and to 4d. in 1890. They were raised to 6d. in 1900 and in 1904 to 8d.; reduced to 5d. in 1907; raised to 1s. in 1915; reduced to 8d. in 1922, and to 4d. in 1924.

R. O. Mennell, "Tea, a Historical Sketch," 1926.

Tea-room Party, The. Under the Reform Bill of 1867 it was proposed that direct payment of rates by the occupier should be part of the qualification for the parliamentary franchise in boroughs. This excluded a great number of small occupiers who paid their rates through their landlord ("compound householders"). Gladstone proposed to move an Instruction, when the House went into committee, "to alter the law of rating," and to

arrange that while the poorest occupiers were to be neither rated nor enfranchised, all above a certain line should both pay rates and have the vote. But forty-eight Liberals met on April 8 in the House of Commons tea-room, and agreed to support only the first clause of the Instruction as quoted above. Disraeli and Gladstone agreed; but in committee Gladstone gave notice of several important amendments, which Disraeli declared to be the relinquished instructions in another form. The support of the Tea-room Party enabled the government to defeat the amendments, but eventually it established household suffrage in boroughs.

Teignmouth, Sir John Shore, 1st Baron (1751–1834). [Shore.]

Telegraphs, The Purchase of the. In 1870 the government ventured on the bold step of acquiring possession of all the lines of electric telegraph in the United Kingdom, and making the control of communication by electricity a part of the general business of the post office (q.v.).

Templars, The, or the Order of Knights of the Temple of Jerusalem, was a military religious order of knighthood which had its origin in 1118 in an association of knights for the protection of pilgrims to the Holy Land. In 1128 the infant order accepted the Benedictine rule, as recently reformed by the Cistercians. Henceforward its growth was rapid. The Templars did good service in the Crusades, for which they were rewarded with ample grants of land in different countries—England among the rest. They seemed to have appeared in this country early in the reign of Stephen, the first house of their order being established in Holborn. In 1185, however, they removed to more commodious quarters in Fleet Street. This, the New Temple, as it was called, was the chief house of the order in England, to which all the cells or preceptories were subject. The superior of the order was styled Master of the Temple and was frequently summoned to parliament in the late thirteenth and early fourteenth centuries. But the great wealth accumulated by the Templars in time began to excite the cupidity of the needy monarchs of Christendom, while their pride and alleged licentiousness earned them a general unpopularity. Philip the Fair of France determined on their suppression, and obtained the co-operation of his son-in-law, Edward II. In England the order was suppressed in 1308 without the great cruelties practised in France. The knights were allowed to enter monasteries, and their possessions were for the most part given to the Hospitallers, or Knights of St. John (q.v.).

Dugdale, "Monasticon Anglicanum."

Temple, Henry John, 3rd Viscount Palmerston (1784–1865), was the eldest son of Henry, 2nd viscount. He succeeded to the title, which was in the Irish peerage, in 1802, and was promptly chosen by the Tory party in the University of Cambridge to contest the seat, but without success. In 1807, however, he began his parliamentary career as the representative of Newtown (Isle of Wight), and two years later became secretary of war in the Duke of Portland's administration. This office he held under successive governments until 1828, and aided the Duke of Wellington in his great exploits as far as a rotten military system permitted. Palmerston early attached himself to the more liberal section of the Tories, which was led by Canning and Huskisson, and he followed the latter out of office in May 1828. He now joined the Whigs, and in 1830 accepted the foreign secretaryship under Earl Grey, playing an honourable part in the negotiations which led to the independence of Belgium, to the settlement of the Spanish and Portuguese questions, and to the European resistance to the designs of Mehemet Ali, which brought him into so much odium in France. Having retired from office with the rest of his colleagues in 1841, he returned with them, and again became foreign secretary in 1846. Palmerston's attitude towards the European revolutions of 1848, and the quarrel with Greece about the Don Pacifico affair (q.v.), caused his foreign policy to be called in question; a vote of censure was passed upon it in the House of Lords, but in the House of Commons an amendment, moved by J. A. Roebuck in favour of the government, was carried by a majority of forty-six, Palmerston making a magnificent speech on the status of British subjects abroad (June 1850). In 1852 he was dismissed from office by the queen, acting on the advice of Lord John Russell, for expressing, entirely on his own responsibility, the government's approval of Louis Napoleon's *coup d'état*. In spite of Disraeli's saying, "There was a Palmerston," he promptly defeated his late leader on the Militia Bill, and having declined office in Lord Derby's stillborn ministry, became home secretary in Lord Aberdeen's coalition cabinet (December 1852). In that capacity he inaugurated the ticket-of-leave system, but he was chiefly employed the while in studying the Eastern question, and urging his colleagues forward to the war with Russia. On the fall of the Aberdeen administration before Roebuck's vigorous attack, it was felt that Palmerston was, as he said, *l'inévitable*, and in February 1855 he became prime minister. After the peace a period of languor followed until, in 1857, the government was defeated on Cobden's motion condemning the measures taken in "the lorcha *Arrow*" affair, when Palmerston appealed to the country, and came back again to power with a larger majority than before. The Indian Mutiny was followed by his bill for the transference of the authority of the East India Company to the Crown. In February 1858 he was most unexpectedly defeated over the Conspiracy to Murder Bill, caused by Orsini's attempt on the life of Napoleon III, but the Conservative administration that supplanted him proved short-lived,

and in 1859 he came into power again as first lord of the treasury, and continued to hold that office until his death. During his administration the treaty of commerce with France was concluded (1860) through Cobden's exertions. He preserved strict neutrality during the American Civil War; in the *Trent* and *Alabama* affairs (q.v.) he displayed some want of wisdom. Then came the Maori War; the Polish insurrection of 1863, during which his distrust of the Emperor of the French compelled him to discountenance the idea of intervention; and the Schleswig-Holstein question, during which he uttered words that were universally interpreted to imply that Great Britain would intervene on behalf of Denmark. He died on October 18, 1865.

Biographies by Ashley and Dalling, 1870–4, reissued 1879; L. C. Sanders, 1888; Marquis of Lorne, 1892; and Philip Guedalla, 1926.

Temple, Richard Temple Grenville, Earl (1711–79). [Grenville.]

Temple, Sir William (1628–99), was the son of Sir John Temple, master of the rolls in Ireland. After being educated at Cambridge, and having spent some years in foreign travel, he returned to Ireland, becoming in 1660 a member of the Irish convention. In 1665 he was first employed on diplomatic business, being sent as an envoy to the Bishop of Munster, and the year following he was appointed ambassador to the court of Brussels, and devoted himself to endeavouring to form an alliance between England and Holland. His exertions were crowned in 1668 by the formation of the Triple Alliance (q.v.) against France, and the consequent peace of Aix-la-Chapelle. But the policy he had inaugurated was short-lived, and the Treaty of Dover (q.v.) made it necessary for the ministers to dismiss the author of the Triple Alliance; he was relieved of his office in 1671. On the fall of the Cabal ministry Temple was offered by Danby, who became lord treasurer, a secretaryship of state, but he refused and was appointed ambassador at The Hague. In 1675 he took an important part in the Congress of Nimeguen. In 1679 Danby was impeached and sent to the Tower, and Charles looked to Temple as the only man who could help him to weather the storm caused by the Popish Plot (q.v.). Temple's proposal was that a means should be adopted for including all parties in the government, and for this purpose he proposed that the existing privy council should be dissolved, and that a new privy council of thirty members should be appointed, half of whom to be great officers of state, and the other half independent noblemen and gentlemen of the greatest weight in the country; that the king should pledge himself to govern by the constant advice of this body, to suffer all his affairs of every kind to be freely dilated there, and not to reserve any part of the public business for a secret committee. An attempt was made to carry out this scheme, but it was soon found to be unworkable. The council was too large for practical purposes; there was no party tie to bind the members together; and before long an interior cabinet was formed, consisting of Temple, Halifax, Essex, and Sunderland. Temple himself, however, was gradually ousted from the debates of the secret committee. In 1681 he retired from public life, and devoted himself chiefly to literary work. His chief works were his well-known "Essays," an "Account of the United Provinces," and an "Essay on Government."

Temple, "Works," 1836; Macaulay, Essay on Temple; biographies by M. L. R. Beaven, 1908, and E. S. Lyttel, 1908.

Tenant-right, The Irish, is a custom by which the tenant is entitled not only to compensation for unexhausted improvements when he relinquishes his holding, but by which a sum is paid, sometimes amounting to as much as the fee-simple of the land, by the incoming to the outgoing tenant for the goodwill of the farm. This tenant-right, known as the Ulster Custom, was legalized by the Land Act of 1870, and extended to the rest of Ireland by later legislation. It is supposed to have arisen at the time of the plantation of Ulster (q.v.), the planters refusing to give definite leases of twenty-one years to their English and Scottish tenants, and they in disgust selling their interest in the holdings, and the value of their capital to the native Irish—a practice which was in direct contravention to the spirit of the settlement. Other systems of tenure which obtain in Ireland are: the *cottier* system, by which tenants bid against each other for a piece of land, no fixity of tenure being recognized until the act of 1881; and *conacre*, a feudal survival, by which land is granted to the tenant rent-free in return for so much labour. [Land Legislation, Irish.]

Tenchebrai, The Battle of (September 28, 1106), was fought between Henry I and his brother Robert, Duke of Normandy, and resulted in the complete victory of Henry, who captured and imprisoned Robert, and annexed Normandy to his dominions.

Tenterden, Charles Abbott, 1st Lord (1762–1832). [Abbott.]

Tenure. [Land Tenure.]

Terouenne, The Battle of, was fought at Guinegate, near Terouenne, August 16, 1513, during the campaign of the English under Henry VIII and the Imperialists under Maximilian in Flanders. The allies had formed the siege of Terouenne, and a body of French cavalry came up to relieve the town. The allies advanced in order of battle, and the French on seeing them were seized with panic, put spurs to their horses, and fled without a blow. The battle settled the fate of Terouenne, which capitulated on August 22.

C. H. Williams, "England Under the Early Tudors," 1925.

Territorial Army, The. It had long been felt that the old volunteer force lacked

scientific organization; it had no cavalry; its administrative services fell far short of requirements; the strength of units varied remarkably and contained a large proportion of men unfit to take the field; there was a deficiency of officers, and, in short, the force as a whole could not be seriously considered as an engine of war. Consequently, on taking office as secretary of state for war in 1905, it was a part of Mr. Haldane's army scheme to put an end to these shortcomings by uniting the auxiliary forces into a homogeneous body, recruited on a single simple principle. His ideal was a home army complete in itself—with the same branches and organization as the regular army. By the Territorial and Reserve Forces Act, 1907, the number of volunteer battalions was reduced and those remaining were renamed and reorganized, and a number of mounted brigades was formed from the Imperial Yeomanry, which became the cavalry of the territorial army. The administration—as distinct from the command and training—was placed in the hands of county associations. Each association is composed of officers from the territorial army in the county, representatives of the county, and borough councils, a president, vice-president, chairman, secretary, and treasurer—all nominated by the army council. Each association receives a grant from the army funds, and its business is to help in recruiting, in finding rifle ranges, manœuvre grounds, etc., in clothing the men, and in all administrative work generally. Members of the territorial army were not liable for foreign service until, on the outbreak of the Great War, the first British territorial units crossed to France in September 1914. Every man is paid at service rates of pay during the time he is embodied or called out for consecutive training, and enlistment is for a term of four years. The training consists of a number of compulsory drills and an annual attendance in camp.

Test Act, The (March 29, 1673), was a measure passed in the reign of Charles II, intended to exclude from office the Catholic councillors of the king. It was passed at the instance of Shaftesbury and the country party after the king had been compelled to abandon his attempt to dispense with the penal laws against Dissenters. It required all persons holding any office of profit or trust under the Crown to take the oaths of allegiance and supremacy, receive the sacrament according to the rites of the Church of England, and subscribe the declaration against transubstantiation. This act was directed against the Catholics, but was equally operative against Dissenters. One consequence of it was that Arlington and Clifford had to retire from office, and the Duke of York was obliged to resign his post as lord high admiral. The act was not repealed until 1828.

C. Grant Robertson, "Select Statutes, Cases and Documents," 4th edn., 1923.

Test Act, The, for Scotland (1681), imposed an oath which was made compulsory on all government and municipal officials. It declared a belief in "the true Protestant religion contained in the Confession of Faith," and disowned "all practices, whether popish or fanatic, which are contrary to or inconsistent with the said Protestant religion and Confession of Faith."

P. Hume Brown, "History of Scotland," 1911.

Tewkesbury, The Battle of (May 4, 1471), was, strictly speaking, the last battle fought in the Wars of the Roses, for the battle of Bosworth can hardly be included in those wars. Queen Margaret landed in England the very day that Warwick was defeated and slain at Barnet (April 14), but despite this severe blow to the Lancastrian cause, she was persuaded by Somerset and other lords of her party to continue her advance. She had landed at Weymouth, and at first marched westward to Exeter, where she was joined by reinforcements from Devon and Cornwall. She then moved eastward to Bath, but learning that Edward was marching against her, she determined to march to the north, where the chief strength of the Lancastrians lay. After a tedious march she reached Tewkesbury on May 3, and the next day Edward gave battle. The Lancastrians were utterly routed, owing in no small degree to the treachery or folly of Lord Wenlock, who neglected to bring up the reinforcements in time. Queen Margaret was taken prisoner, and her son, Prince Edward, either fell in the battle or was put to death immediately after. The Duke of Somerset and others, who had taken sanctuary, were beheaded two days after in the market-place at Tewkesbury. This decisive battle coming so soon after the victory of Barnet completely established Edward IV on the throne.

R. B. Mowat, "Wars of the Roses," 1914.

Thanet, The Isle of, in the north-east of Kent, is still partly surrounded by the sea and the River Stour, but the passage called the Wantsum, which formerly separated it from the mainland, has been closed since the fifteenth century. As might be expected from its position, the island has frequently been the landing-place for invaders of England. There the Teutonic heroes Hengest and Horsa are said to have disembarked in 449, and it was the landing-place of more than one Danish invasion. Indeed, those buccaneers seem to have held part of the island from 853 to 865, and it was frequently subject to their raids. Several parishes in the isle of Thanet formed part of the Liberty of Dover.

Thegn was an Anglo-Saxon title bestowed on a class of persons who were inferior to the *eorlas* and *æthel*, the original nobility of blood, though superior to the ordinary landowners or *ceorls*. The thegns were, in origin, a nobility of service, and it is scarcely possible to distinguish them from the king's *gesiths*—that is,

the members of his "comitatus," or personal following. Gradually, however, this characteristic of the thegn is lost sight of, and he becomes a landowner distinguished by having a larger amount of land than the ceorl—that is, five hides and upwards. From the end of the ninth century we scarcely hear of the gesith. The word "thegn" comes to include, on the one hand, those who stand in ministerial relation to the king; and on the other, those who are simply landowners, having the necessary qualifications, whether they were directly connected with the king or not. In fact, any ceorl who acquired five hides of land was regarded as of "thegn-right worthy." Other qualifications for thegnhood were the possession of a church, kitchen, and belfry; *burh-geat* and *setl*, the duty of service in the king's hall; while by the tenth century even the merchant who had fared three times over the sea at his own expense could claim the rights of a thegn. Among the thegns themselves there were numerous gradations in rank. The "king's thegn" was superior to the ordinary territorial thegn; and it would seem that the possession of forty hides of land entitled a thegn to the wergild and status of an earl. The wergild of the ordinary thegn was six times that of the ceorl, namely, twelve hundred shillings instead of two hundred. The dignity of thegn was hereditary, and the "thegn-born" were a semi-noble class, contrasting with the "ceorl-born." The attainment of thegn-right worth did not, however, at once ennoble the blood of a promoted ceorl. Only if his son and his son's son continued to prosper did the rank become hereditary with their descendants. The result of the increasingly close association of thegnhood with the holding of land was that by the end of the Anglo-Saxon period the thegn was beginning to assume more and more of the characteristics of the feudal knight. Domesday book shows us that long before the Conquest of 1066 the land of England was being steadily plotted out into 5-hide units, each of which was bound to produce its fully-armed *miles* for service with the host. The available evidence does not, however, support the view that the feudal knight was, in fact, a direct descendant of the Anglo-Saxon thegn. Knight service (q.v.) as it was known in Norman and Angevin England was introduced by the Conqueror, and was rendered specifically *for* the land and not, as was thegn-service, merely *because of* the land.

Thelusson's Case (decided in 1858) was of considerable legal importance, since it settled the question whether testators could dispose of their estates in order that the income should accumulate and form a large fortune, which should be limited in favour of certain descendants. The litigation arising out of the will of Mr. Thelusson lasted for over fifty years (1799–1858), and eventually the House of Lords decided that trusts for accumulation were legal. However, by the Act 39 and 40 George III, c. 98 (July 28, 1800), it had been provided that incomes should not be allowed to accumulate in this way for more than twenty-one years.

T. Jarman, "Treatise on Wills," vol. i, 1910.

Theobald, Archbishop of Canterbury 1139–61, was abbot of Bec, in Normandy, and in 1138 came over to England at the invitation of King Stephen, by whose influence he was elected Archbishop of Canterbury. His authority was, however, weakened by the fact that there was a papal legate in England at the time, and that subsequently Henry of Blois, Bishop of Winchester, was invested with legatine authority. He opposed the election of William, the king's nephew, to the archbishopric of York, and in 1148, contrary to the commands of Stephen, attended the council held by Pope Eugenius at Rheims. On his return to England his temporalities were confiscated and he was compelled to flee once more to the continent. Reconciled to Stephen, he was in 1150 appointed legate by the pope. In 1152 he refused to crown the king's son, Eustace, and was again compelled to seek refuge from Stephen's anger in flight. He returned later in the year, and in 1153 was a strong advocate of the compromise with Henry of Anjou which was embodied in the Treaty of Wallingford (q.v.). As a patron of learning Theobald occupies an interesting position, and still more important is it that it was as a member of his household that Becket first came into prominence. Theobald was a man of marked ability, and was loyal, generous, and earnest in striving to do his duty. By relying on the help of the Roman see, and taking advantage of the civil disorder of Stephen's reign, he succeeded in raising the Church of England to a position of great power and did much to create the problems of Henry II and St. Thomas.

Theodore of Tarsus (c. 602–90), Archbishop of Canterbury 668–90, a Greek by birth, was selected by Pope Vitalian for the see of Canterbury on the death of the archbishop-elect, Wighard, at Rome. Theodore is an important personage in the history of the English Church. He it was who organized the Church and restored order out of the chaos which had been engendered by the great paschal controversy, only recently settled at Whitby. He developed the episcopal system, breaking up the large unwieldy dioceses, conterminous with the early kingdoms, into smaller and more manageable units. This policy involved him in a bitter feud with Wilfrid (q.v.), whose vast Northumbrian diocese Theodore subdivided into four. A reconciliation was not effected until 686, when Wilfrid was restored to the diminished see of York. He drew up the famous Penitential, which was the recognized text-book of confessors for many years. He did much to encourage learning, and was the first to introduce the study of Greek into England. His influence was well summed up in the sentence,

"the first archbishop whom all the English Church obeyed" (Bæda). Theodore summoned to Hertford in 673 a synod of the whole province to confirm the results of his work. He was the last of the Roman bishops; henceforth they were English.

T. Hodgkin, "Political History of England," vol. i.

Theological Controversy (1559). [Westminster Conference.]

Theow was the Anglo-Saxon name for a slave. There were various kinds of slaves—the born slave, i.e., the child of slave parents; the captive, often a Briton; the voluntary slave, who sold himself to avoid starvation; the man who was sold into slavery because he could not pay his debts or the fine for a breach of the peace. Nominally the slaves were the goods and chattels of their lords, who had power of life and death over them; they had no legal rights, and no wergild, though in the eleventh century payments had to be made on their death both to their kinsfolk and to their lords. But in practice the theow had recognized rights. He was entitled to regular food and holiday, and any ill-treatment of him by his lord was punished by the Church. In addition to this he might purchase his own freedom with his savings, or he might be manumitted by his lord. After the Conquest the slave-class ceased to exist, and was merged with the lower ceorl into the general class of villeins. As far back as the sixth century we might conclude that slavery was an important social institution in this country, for "the chief source of communication between England and the continent at this time was the slave-trade." The well-known story of Pope Gregory and the English slaves suggests that these slaves were bought and sold in Rome. The laws of Ine forbade the practice of selling slaves of one's own nationality abroad. Their value in the seventh century in England was apparently a pound of silver, the continental prices ranging from three to six times this amount. At the Domesday period the toll paid on the sale of a man at Lewes was 4d. "Whilst only embracing nine per cent. of the whole population of England (at the Conquest), they were most numerous towards the south-west of England, less and less numerous as the Danish districts were approached, and absent altogether from Yorkshire, Lincolnshire, and bordering districts" (Seebohm).

Kemble, "The Saxons in England"; P. Vinogradoff, "English Society in the Eleventh Century"; F. Seebohm, "The English Village Community."

Thirlby, Thomas (1506 ?–1570), Bishop of Westminster, Norwich, and Ely, one of the commissioners at Gravelines in 1545, was sent in 1553, in conjunction with Sir Philip Hoby, to Brussels on a mission to the Emperor Charles V. Under Mary he took an active part in the persecution of the Reformers in 1558, and was sent, with two other commissioners, to settle the preliminaries of peace with France. He refused to take the oath of supremacy to Elizabeth, and was deposed, though he was treated with great kindness by Archbishop Parker.

Thirty, The Battle of the (March 27, 1350), was the name given to an engagement between the English partisans of Montfort and the Breton followers of Charles of Blois. It was fought at Ploermel in Brittany, and by agreement the number of combatants was limited to thirty on either side. The English were defeated.

Thirty-Nine Articles. [Articles of Religion.]

Thistlewood, Arthur (1770–1820), started in life originally with some fortune as a subaltern officer, first in the militia, and then in a regiment of the line, stationed in the West Indies. After having resigned his commission, and spent some time in America, he passed into France, where he arrived shortly before the fall of Robespierre. There he formed revolutionary opinions. He was deeply implicated in the revolutionary scheme of Dr. James Watson, but was, like him, acquitted. He then sent a challenge to Lord Sidmouth, for which he was punished by fine and imprisonment. Upon his liberation (May 1819) he found himself excluded from respectable society, without resources or hopes. The natural violence of his disposition was stimulated by this, and, aided by a number of individuals equally desperate, among them Watson and "Orator" Hunt (q.v.), he planned the Cato Street Conspiracy (q.v.), for which he was executed (May 1, 1820) glorying in his attempt and regretting its failure.

Spencer Walpole, "History of England from 1815," 1879.

Thom, Thomas (*d.* 1838), was a broken-down brewer who, having gone mad, appeared in Canterbury and various parts of Kent in 1838, styling himself Sir William Courtenay of Powderham Castle, Knight of Malta, King of Jerusalem, and claiming various other titles. He was confined in a lunatic asylum, but was subsequently released. When he came out he announced himself to the peasants as a second Messiah, and succeeded in impressing himself on their excited imaginations by denouncing the new Poor Law, which was then intensely hated and feared. He asserted that he had come to regenerate the whole world and save his followers from the new Poor Law. He assembled a mob at Boughton in May, and led them against Canterbury. His followers proceeded to violence, and he himself shot a policeman. Two companies of soldiers came out from Canterbury to disperse the rioters. Thom shot the officer, and his followers charged with such fury that for a moment the troops gave way. Then they recovered and poured in a volley which destroyed the insurrection and put an end to Thom's life and those of many of his adherents. Several of his followers were tried and convicted of murder. But long after his fall people in many

parts of Kent believed in Thom's pretensions, and looked to his future return on earth.

"Annual Register," 1838.

Thomson, Charles William Poulett, Baron Sydenham (1799–1841), was a merchant, who first represented Dover (1826 to 1830), and then Manchester (1832) in the House of Commons. In 1830 he entered Earl Grey's Reform administration as vice-president of the board of trade and treasurer of the navy. In July 1834 he became president of the board of trade and resigned with Lord Melbourne's ministry in November following. In April 1835 he resumed that office until he was selected to replace Lord Durham in Canada (1839). As a cabinet minister his efforts were directed to amendment of the Custom Laws and extension of our foreign trade by a more liberal policy. On Lord Seaton's recall from Canada, Thomson was appointed to the supreme government of British North America. In 1840 he was raised to the peerage as Baron Sydenham of Sydenham in Kent and Toronto.

"Memoirs" by G. Poulett Scrope, 1843; Adam Short, "Lord Sydenham," 1908 and 1926.

"Thorough" was the term used by Strafford and Laud, in their correspondence, to describe the spirit of their policy. It signified "the resolute determination of going through with it, as it might nowadays be expressed, of disregarding and overriding the interested delays and evasions of those who made the public service an excuse for enriching themselves at the public expense, or the dry technical arguments of the lawyers, which would hinder them in their schemes for the public good" (Gardiner). "For the state, indeed," writes Laud, "I am for thorough; but I see that both thick and thin stays somebody, where I conceive it should not. . . . I am confident that the king being pleased to set himself in the business, is able by his wisdom and ministers, to carry any just and honourable action, thorough all imaginary opposition, for real there can be none." "Thorough" and "through" are the same word, and were, in the seventeenth century, both spelt in the same way.

Thorpe, Thomas (*d.* 1461), remembrancer and baron of the Exchequer, was chosen Speaker in the parliament of 1452–3. In the next year he was imprisoned at the instance of the Duke of York, who brought a suit against him. The Commons thereupon claimed their privilege, and appealed to the Lords, who referred the question to the judges. The judges declared that they were unable to decide on the privileges of parliament, but that it was usual that persons should not be prevented by imprisonment from attending parliament. But the Duke of York was now in the ascendant, and the Lords decided that Thorpe should stay in prison, the privilege of parliament notwithstanding. It was, however, as a party man, rather than as a member or as Speaker of the Commons, that he was attacked. On the king's recovery he was released, and restored to his office. In 1460 he was thrown by the Yorkists into the Tower, and on attempting to escape, early in the next year, was seized and beheaded by the mob at Harringay.

Three-cornered Constituencies were boroughs, counties, or county divisions, which were represented by three members. In these constituencies, by an amendment proposed by Lord Cairns in the House of Lords and eventually incorporated in the Reform Act of 1867, no elector was allowed to vote for more than two candidates. This clause was intended to afford some representation to minorities, but was frequently defeated by careful organization which enabled one party to carry all the three candidates. They were abolished by the Reform Act of 1885.

C. Seymour, "Electoral Reform in England and Wales, 1832–85," 1915.

Throckmorton, Francis (1554–84), the son of Sir John Throckmorton, and the nephew of Sir Nicholas Throckmorton (q.v.), was concerned in the Spanish plots for the release of Mary, Queen of Scots. He was arrested (1583) on the evidence of an intercepted letter written to the Scottish queen by Thomas Morgan, stating that the Duke of Guise was ready to invade England. He was racked three times without effect, but on the fourth occasion made a confession, implicating the Spanish ambassador, Mendoza. This confession he subsequently declared to be false, but he was nevertheless executed (July 10, 1584), and although the evidence at the trial was insufficient, it is probable that he was really guilty of treason.

P. Hume Brown, "History of Scotland," 1911.

Throckmorton, Sir Nicholas (1513–1571), the son of Sir George Throckmorton, who incurred the displeasure of Henry VIII by refusing to take the oath of supremacy, first became prominent during the Scottish campaign of Somerset (1547), in which he greatly distinguished himself. In 1554 he was implicated in the rebellion of Sir Thomas Wyatt (q.v.), but was acquitted on his trial as there was barely sufficient evidence to convict him of having been an active accomplice. His trial is noticeable from the fact that the jurors were imprisoned and fined £2,000 for their verdict. After the accession of Elizabeth, Throckmorton was restored to favour at court, and in 1559 was sent to France as ambassador, where he took an active part in the conspiracy against the Guises. His alliance with the Huguenot party, and his advice to them to proceed to violent measures, caused his imprisonment by the Duke of Guise in the Castle of St. Germain as "the author of all our troubles." He was one of the strongest opponents of the proposed marriage of Elizabeth with the Earl of Leicester. In 1561, in his capacity of ambassador, he was employed to demand the ratification of the Treaty of Edinburgh from Mary Stuart. In 1565 he was

sent to Scotland to protest against the marriage of the Queen of Scots with Lord Darnley, and gave Mary Stuart, whose cause he warmly espoused, much advice as to the most politic course of action to pursue. Two years later he was again sent to Edinburgh to negotiate with the rebel lords for the queen's release, and is said by his representations to have saved her life at Lochleven. In 1569 he was arrested and sent to the Tower for being implicated in the plot to bring about a marriage between Mary Stuart, whose partisan he always remained, and the Duke of Norfolk. He obtained his release in a short time, but never regained the queen's favour, and died, it has been maintained (without reliable authority), by poison administered by Leicester.

Thugs, The, were an Indian fraternity of hereditary assassins who subsisted on the plunder of the victims they strangled. They generally attached themselves, as if by accident, to the travellers whom they met, and then at a convenient spot strangled them and buried the bodies in a pit hastily dug with a pickaxe which had been consecrated by religious ceremonies. They were bound to secrecy by oath, and had peculiar signs for recognizing one another, and a slang language of their own. They considered themselves the especial favourites of Doorga, the goddess of thieves and murderers, and celebrated her rites with the most scrupulous piety. The gang was recruited by children kidnapped for the purpose, and cautiously initiated into the arcana of their society. Their victims were counted by thousands annually, and no district was free from their ravages. Lord William Bentinck determined to suppress these ruffians, and in 1830 organized a regular department presided over by Major William Sleeman. An elaborate system was worked out. Every inducement was offered to informers; and in six years more than 2,000 Thugs were arrested and condemned to transportation or death. The confederacy was effectually broken up, and travelling in India ceased to be dangerous. These efforts were crowned by the establishment of a school at Jubbulpur for the Thugs who had turned informers and the children of convicted offenders.

J. Hutton, "Popular Account of the Thugs," 1857.

Thurcytel, or Thurkell the Tall, was one of the famous Jornsborg vikings. In 1009 he came with fifty ships of his pirate followers to England, and after holding Canterbury to ransom, ravaged Wessex. After plundering a great part of England (1010 and 1011), and extorting large sums from the English, Canterbury was betrayed to them by Elfmar. They sacked the city and captured the Archbishop Alphege (Ælfheah), who was murdered by the drunken pirates at a banquet on Palm Sunday, 1012, for refusing to pay ransom for himself. He now, with forty-five ships and their crews, having received the £8,000 agreed on with Ethelred, went over to the English service, and helped to defend London against Sweyn in 1013. When the English resolved to forsake Ethelred it was in Thurcytel's ships that the exiled king was carried to Normandy. In 1014 he seems to have been still in Ethelred's pay; but he joined Canute against Edmund Ironside before the battle of Assandun, where he is said to have slain Wulfcytel, the eorlderman of East England, thus avenging a brother whom Wulfcytel had killed in battle some years previously. He was installed in Wulfcytel's eorldermanship by Canute in 1017, was outlawed in 1021, reinstated in the king's favour in 1023, and sent to act as regent in Denmark, where he died not long afterwards.

Thurlow, Edward, 1st Baron (1731–1806), was born in Norfolk, the son of the Rev. Thomas Thurlow. He was educated at Caius College, Cambridge, from which he was sent down in 1751 without taking a degree. He at once entered at the Inner Temple. In 1758 he gained some reputation by his spirited conduct towards Sir Fletcher Norton, who was opposed to him in a case. In 1761 he was retained in the Douglas case, and thereby made the acquaintance of Lord Bute, who in 1761 gave him silk. From this time his practice increased, till in 1765 he was returned to parliament in the Tory interest for Tamworth. He conducted the appeal of the plaintiff in the Douglas case with great success; and in 1770, after fiercely denying the legality of Wilkes's election for Middlesex, was appointed solicitor-general. In 1771 he became attorney-general, and urged the committal of Richard Oliver and Brass Crosby to the Tower in the matter of Junius's letters. In this affair he displayed a bitterness which was still more conspicuous throughout the debates on the American War. "Of all the orators on the government side he was the most violent and exasperating." In 1778 he was appointed lord chancellor. "In this office," says Lord Campbell, "he was above all taint or suspicion of corruption, and in his general rudeness he was very impartial; but he was not patient and painstaking, and he did little in settling controverted questions or establishing general principles." In the meantime he still warmly advocated the prosecution of the American War; and, being taunted by the Duke of Grafton on the humbleness of his origin, he made so crushing a retort that he at once became supreme in the House of Lords. The next year, perceiving that the ministry could not last much longer, he began to coquet with the opposition, and was rewarded by being continued in the chancellorship by Rockingham. Far, however, from assisting the new government, he acted as the leader of the "King's Friends" (q.v.), and opposed all the government measures, among others Burke's proposal for economical reform. In spite of his conduct, Shelburne, on succeeding Rockingham, still retained him as chancellor; but on the for-

mation of the coalition (April 1783) the great seal was put into commission. His deposition notwithstanding, "he was still keeper of the king's conscience," and did the king's pleasure in bitterly opposing every government measure. He was again rewarded by being appointed lord chancellor by Pitt in 1784, and now appeared as an advocate of a commercial union with Ireland, which he had formerly opposed. In 1787 he presided at the trial of Warren Hastings. The next year he opposed the bill for mitigating the horrors of the Middle Passage. When the king became ill Thurlow entered into intrigues with Carlton House and the opposition, in order to make his position secure in case of a regency. But Pitt did not fail to discover the manœuvres of his chancellor, and withdrew his confidence. Already, in 1791, Grenville had supplanted Thurlow as leader in the House of Lords, and Pitt decided to dismiss him from his office in May 1792. For a few years he retired to indulge his chagrin in seclusion; but in 1795 he opened negotiations with the Whigs and the Prince of Wales, and posed as a champion of the rights of the people in his opposition to the Treason and Sedition Bills. Tired of this, he took up the cause of the Princess of Wales, and intrigued to obtain for her a separation from her husband. But all his efforts failed of success; and in 1798, seeing no chance of overthrowing Pitt, he quitted public life, and remained in retirement till the resignation of Pitt in 1801. Then his hopes brightened again, but they were doomed to be disappointed. His day was past, and on September 12, 1806, he died. His appearance and manner in parliament have been thus described: he was "blunt, coarse, and vigorous, hurled hard words and strong epithets at his opponents in a tremendous voice, with a look and tone of defiance." "Of statesmanship he himself declared that he knew very little"; and, says Lord Stanhope, "it must be owned that his private life by no means eminently qualified him to stand forth as the champion of any Church or creed."

Sir G. O. Trevelyan, "Early Life of C. J. Fox," 1880; Lord Fitzmaurice, "Life of Shelburne," 1875 and 1912. [W. R. S.]

Thurot, Invasion of. Thurot (*d.* 1760), an Irishman, who had adopted a French name, and commanded in the French navy, became the terror of British merchant ships during the Seven Years' War. On February 21, 1760, with a small armament, he appeared before Carrickfergus, landed 600 men, and plundered the town. On February 28, 1760, however, he was overthrown on his way back to France by Captain Elliot with three frigates, his ships were taken, and he himself was killed.

Thurstan (*d.* 1140), Archbishop of York, was elected to the northern see in 1114. He refused to profess obedience to Ralph, Archbishop of Canterbury, thus reopening the vexed question of the relation of the two sees. After a long contest, Thurstan was reconciled to Henry I in 1121; but two years later the controversy was resumed on the election of William of Corbeuil as Archbishop of Canterbury. Both prelates appealed to Rome, and although no definite decision was reached, the pope granted a legatine commission to William, who thereby gained the practical advantage. Thurstan played an important part in resisting the invasion of David of Scotland in 1138, and the credit of the English victory at Northallerton is largely his. He contributed greatly to the development of monasticism in northern England, and himself ended his days as a Cistercian monk at Pontefract.

Thynne, Thomas (1648–82), the "Issachar" of Dryden's "Absolom and Achitophel," was one of Charles II's favourites. He at first attached himself to the Duke of York's party, but subsequently joined Monmouth. In 1667 he was employed to negotiate peace with the Dutch. In 1682 he was assassinated in the streets of London by three ruffians (Captain Vratz the chief), hired for the purpose by Count Königsmark, the unsuccessful suitor of Thynne's wife, Elizabeth, Lady Ogle.

Tichborne, Chdiock (*d.* 1586), was one of the conspirators in Babington's Conspiracy (q.v.), and one of the six specially told off to murder the queen. He was executed at Tyburn (September 20, 1586).

Tierney, George (1761–1830), was of Irish descent, but was born at Gibraltar, where his father was a wealthy prize-agent. He was sent to Eton and afterwards to Peterhouse, Cambridge. He entered parliament for Colchester in 1796, joined the opposition, and very soon became one of Pitt's most formidable opponents. In May 1798 he called Pitt out for using language of an insulting character about him; but nothing came of the meeting, which took place on Putney Heath (May 27). When Fox seceded from parliament in 1798 Tierney became the leader of the opposition under Addington. He became treasurer of the navy in 1803, and a member of the privy council, but withdrew on Pitt's resumption of office. In the "Talents Administration" he became Irish secretary. He was the constant supporter of Whitbread on the subject of the Continental War, and forsook his party in 1814 when, on the escape of Napoleon from Elba, the Whigs, as a body, sided with the ministry in thinking it necessary to renew the war. On all questions of finance he was a great authority, having studied the question with zealous industry. On Ponsonby's death Tierney became the recognized leader of the Whigs in the House of Commons. He opposed, as was natural, the proceedings against Queen Caroline, though a just appreciation of both sides of the case prevented him from being carried away into any enthusiastic admiration of the queen. On Canning's becoming prime minister Tierney

was made master of the mint. He retired with Lord Goderich in January 1828.

Spencer Walpole, "History of England from 1815," 1879.

Tillotson, JOHN (1630–94), Archbishop of Canterbury, was born at Halifax and educated at Clare Hall, Cambridge. Early in life he was impressed by Calvinistic principles, which he later modified. He was ordained in 1660 or 1661, attended the Savoy Conference on the Nonconformist side, became preacher at Lincoln's Inn in 1663, was promoted dean of Canterbury in 1672, and became a prominent advocate of religious toleration. He was made dean of St. Paul's in 1689 and Archbishop of Canterbury in 1691 in succession to Sancroft.

Tilney, CHARLES (*d.* 1586), one of the conspirators in Babington's Conspiracy (q.v.), was arrested in London. He was accused by Savage of having been one of the six selected to murder the queen, and was executed in St. Giles's Fields (September 20, 1586).

Tippermuir, THE BATTLE OF (September 1, 1644), was fought three miles west of Perth between 3,000 Cavaliers under Montrose and 8,000 Covenanters under Lord Elcho. Montrose gained a complete victory.

Tippoo Sultan (1753–99), was the son of Hyder Ali, founder of the Mohammedan kingdom of Mysore. He acted under his father during the first Mysore war, and on the death of the latter carried it out successfully, finally concluding the Treaty of Mangalore (1784) with the British. He devoted himself to converting his subjects to Mohammedanism, reformed his army, and established foundries for cannon and other arms at Seringapatam. In 1786–7 he was engaged in a war with the Mahrattas and the Nizam, which originated in an aggression of his on the district of Kurnul. In 1789, enraged by the agreement of Lord Cornwallis with the Nizam, and at the same time inspired with courage by the evident fear in which he was held, in spite of the threats of the British he attacked the state of Travancore, a British ally. This conduct produced the second Mysore War, the defeat of Tippoo at Arikera (May 1791), and his submission and the limitation of his power and territory by the Treaty of Seringapatam. He now engaged in a vast series of intrigues through India and even Europe for the destruction of the British, in which Sindhia, the Peshwa, Zemaun Shah of Afghanistan, the French troops of the Nizam, and France were included, and which was considerably facilitated by the policy of Sir John Shore and the defeat of the Nizam in the Kurdlah campaign. The result of Tippoo's intrigues was the issue of a proclamation (1798) by M. Malartie, French governor of the Mauritius, which revealed the whole plot while it was as yet incomplete. Lord Wellesley was able therefore to complete his preparations, and begin the war while Tippoo was unprepared. The result was the capture of Seringapatam, the death of the Sultan (May 4, 1799), and the extinction of the Mohammedan kingdom of Mysore by the two Treaties of Mysore (1799).

M. Wilks, "History of Mysore," 1810–17; L. B. Bowring, "Haidar Ali and Tipu Sultan," 1893.

Tiptoft (or TIBETOT), JOHN, EARL OF WORCESTER (*d.* 1470), nicknamed "the Butcher," was a strong Yorkist partisan. He held the office of treasurer in 1452 and again in 1462–3, and early in Edward IV's reign was made constable, in which capacity he rendered himself odious by his cruelties and by the arbitrary methods he employed. He was lieutenant of Ireland in 1467, and held other important offices. In 1470, on the restoration of Henry VI, he was captured, and beheaded on Tower Hill. He was illustrious for his learning and his patronage of learned men; he was the patron of Caxton, translated many works into English, and spent a great part of his life in travel and study on the continent. He may be regarded as an early type of the Italianate Englishman, who, according to a later proverb, was "a devil incarnate."

Tithes, considered historically, are a tenth part taken annually from the stock and produce raised on the land and from the profits of those engaged in trade and industry. This latter variety of personal tithe is not of much importance, since it dropped largely into disuse at an early date. Two classifications have been adopted: first, according to the nature of the product, as (1) *predial,* or arising from the soil in the form of grain, fruit, and wood; (2) *mixed,* derived from the produce of animals in the form of calves, lambs, chicks, eggs, and so on; and (3) *personal,* the clear gain in certain occupations at one or more removes from the soil, in milling, fishing, etc.; and secondly, according to a grouping in value, viz., (1) *great* or *rectorial,* comprising corn, beans, hay, and wood, and (2) *little* or *vicarial,* all the other predial and mixed tithes. Barren lands converted to cultivation were exempted for seven years by an act of Edward VI (2 and 3 Ed. vi, c. 13). A further exemption was given in 1832 against lay claimants, where evidence of payment during the last thirty years could not be advanced.

Tithes were at first a moral obligation only. In 787 a council under Offa made them compulsory, and at a synod in London in 944 nonpayment was made an offence to be punished by excommunication. Athelstan and his successors issued ordinances from time to time with a repetitive urgency which suggests that laxity prevailed. Before the Conquest the parochial system was not sufficiently developed to become the groundwork for a distribution of tithe, which was paid instead to the episcopal foundation in the cathedral town or to the conventual mother church of the district. Thus it happened that many monasteries became great owners of tithes. When parish churches

were set up, sometimes by the monastery, sometimes through the munificence of a local magnate, the smaller or vicarial tithes would not infrequently be made over to the priest by the monastery, though no legal claim could be exercised by the resident vicar, unless a burial-ground were attached to the church, when one-third of the tithe became his due. It was still the general custom in the twelfth century for the patron to send his tithe to a monastery, even if it were at a considerable distance. The village priest lived on whatever pittance he could obtain. A council held at Westminster in 1200 proclaimed that the first claim on tithes was that of the parish priest, but it was only gradually and through the growth of custom that the latter grew strong enough to recover a reasonable share of what in justice was due to him. The common law courts of the thirteenth century began to act on the presumption that the parish church was entitled to the tithes of the parish, unless it could be shown that they had been alienated to a religious body either by express grant or by the proof of prescriptive right. Custom and tradition were thus behind the payment of mediæval tithes, and, as already noticed, their distribution to beneficiaries varied with local history. Consequently no sharp generalizations can be made. Vicarial tithes were received by the local priest, rectorial tithes were often the property of monastic foundations—that is, of ecclesiastical *appropriators*. With the distribution of religious lands at the Reformation, a considerable portion of the appropriated tithes passed into the hands of *lay rectors* or *impropriators*. It was found in 1836 that one-fourth of the net annual value of tithes (estimated in all at £4,000,000) was in the hands of laymen. The Reformation left the share secured by the parish clergy untouched, but in the seventeenth century even the parochial distribution of tithe was called in question. At first, during the early Stuart period an attempt was made by groups of Puritan enthusiasts to buy up parcels of lay impropriations for the endowment of lectureships, with the quite innocent intention of reconverting the proceeds of lay rectorships to religious uses, but to the mind of Laud the form that this was taking seemed harmful to the interests of the Church, and the movement was checked. Later, during the Civil War and the Interregnum, efforts were made from time to time to change or destroy tithes in principle, but parliamentary statutes and the action of Cromwell himself countered these attacks. In the eighteenth and early nineteenth centuries antagonism to the prevailing incidence of tithes was reinforced with economic arguments. Among farmers who set out to improve their land the infliction of heavier burdens in the shape of tithes, on top of the expenditure of much capital, was a practical grievance. "Tithes became a charge which was increased by good farming, or diminished by bad, a tax on every additional outlay of money and labour." In some districts the collection of tithes in kind had already been transformed into a composition calculated on the rental value of the estates concerned. In other cases fixed money payments in lieu of produce-tithe had long been the rule, but where the old system of collection prevailed there were constant quarrels and misunderstandings. A farmer would clean and manure his land in one parish where the tithe arrangements were satisfactory, and neglect his fields in another where tithe was collected in kind. The parliamentary enclosure of many village-farms brought certain of the local disputes to an end by allotting part of the land to the tithe owner as a final settlement of his claims. As far as the remainder of the uncommuted tithes were concerned, it was obvious that changed conditions called for a revision of the law. The solution was found in the Commutation Acts of 1836–60, which provided the arbitration machinery necessary for the substitution of money rents in the place of collection in kind. The average prices of wheat, barley, and oats for the last seven years form the basis for a calculation of the annual tithe rent-charge. "The charge is affected most by variations in the price of oats, and least by those of wheat." Further legislation secured that the legal liability of payment of the new rent-charge should rest with the owner and not with the tenant. The large movements in corn prices brought about by the war of 1914 again made fresh legislation necessary. An act of 1918 substituted a quindecennial average for the septennial computation, the charge being timed to take place in 1926, and provided for the compulsory redemption of tithe at the will of the tithe-payer. In 1926 a further act entirely swept away the old period-average system and substituted a stable charge. In this year the total amount of the tithe rent-charge for England and Wales was £3,265,000.

Selden, "History of Tithes," 1618; Kemble, "Saxons in England"; Stubbs, "Constitutional History"; Ernle, "English Farming"; "Encyclopædia Britannica" (s.v.); Gonner, "Common Land and Enclosure"; Millard, "Tithe Rent Charge."

[A. V. J.]

Tithes in Ireland were not levied from grassland, thus leaving only the small Catholic tenants to bear the chief burden; in Munster especially great sums were extracted from the wretched peasantry by the tithe proctors, and the clergy themselves received but little of it. The Whiteboys (q.v.) in part rose in opposition to tithes, and in 1787 two bills—the Insurrection Acts (q.v.), which enabled the clergy to secure tithes by a civil bill without a jury—had to be passed. In 1823 the question of tithes again became prominent. In 1824 an attempt was made to do away with the obvious injustice of tithes, and with some success; by this act grasslands were no longer to be exempted. In 1830 great disorders amounting to what was called the "tithe war" arose from the collection of tithe, and in 1832 the lord-lieutenant was authorized

to advance £60,000 to the starving clergy. The government now, with the assistance of the military, tried to levy the tithe itself, but could only collect £12,000 out of £100,000 which were due. In 1833 the government gave up the attempt to enforce tithes, and parliament again granted a million for the destitute clergy. An attempt was now made to substitute a land tax for the tithe, but in 1833 and 1834 the government failed in their effort, O'Connell (q.v.) threatening the landlords with a crusade against rent if the land tax, or, in other words, the tithes, formed part of it. The government then agreed to accept O'Connell's own plan, including a reduction of 40 per cent.; the rest was to be provided for by a redeemable land tax. On the question, however, of what was to be done with the money thus accruing, a contest took place between the Whigs and the House of Lords, the former being in favour of the appropriation of the Church property to lay uses, the Lords energetically resisting this. It was in consequence of this struggle that Tithe Commutation Bills failed to pass (1834, 1835, 1836). At last, in 1838, the Lords remaining firm, and it being impossible to collect the tithes in Ireland, Lord Melbourne's government gave way. Tithes were commuted for a permanent rent-charge upon the land reduced by one-fourth. But the security of this new rent-charge was an ample compensation to the clergy for their loss; as further compensation the loan of a million adverted to above now became a gift.

Titles, Royal. Early royal titles in England as in the other kingdoms of the west were national and not territorial. Thus Ecgbert was "King of the West Saxons," and in one charter (of 828) "King of the English." Alfred often used the title "King of the Saxons." Edward the Elder commonly calls himself "King of the Anglo-Saxons," a term almost confined to this sovereign and to Edwy. From the time of Athelstan "King of the English" is the usual title; though in one charter he is described as "Ongol-Saxna cyning and *Brytaenwalda* ealles thyses iglandes," which is translated in the Latin version, "Angul-Saxonum necnon et totius Britanniæ rex." By succeeding kings up to the time of Canute, such titles as "Imperator," "Cæsar totius Britanniæ," "Basileus," are frequently used, expressing supremacy within Britain, and independence of all other authority. "King of the English" is the official style of the Norman kings. Henry II retains this, but also frequently calls himself "King of the English, Duke of Normandy and Aquitaine, and Count of Anjou," to which was added upon the conquest of Ireland "Lord of Ireland." Under John the style "King of England" replaced that of "King of the English." Edward I dropped the title derived from Normandy, which had been conquered by the King of France in 1204, and was crowned as "King of England, Lord of Ireland, and Duke of Aquitaine"; and to this title Edward III, in 1339, added that of "King of France," which was retained far into the reign of George III. By a bull dated October 11, 1521, the title "Defender of the Faith" was conferred upon Henry VIII, a title which has been retained until the present. Twenty-one years later Henry marked his rejection of the papal authority by assuming the title "King of Ireland." James I was proclaimed "King of England, Scotland, France, and Ireland," and was wise enough to drop the title "King of Great Britain," which he had assumed by proclamation. After the union with Scotland (1707) Anne was styled "Queen of Great Britain, France, and Ireland," which was exchanged upon the Union with Ireland (1801) for the style until recently used "of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland King." By the Royal Titles Bill of 1876 Victoria was empowered to add to her style, and on January 1, 1877, she was proclaimed "Empress of India," at Delhi. On November 4, 1901, the words "and of the British Dominions beyond the seas" were inserted in the king's style of titles. In November 1926 it was suggested by the Imperial Conference that the words "United Kingdom" should henceforward be omitted in order to mark the change in the status of Ireland under the act of 1921. The suggestion was adopted, and the new form of the royal title accordingly runs as follows: "By the grace of God, of Great Britain and Ireland and the British Dominions beyond the seas, King, Defender of the Faith, Emperor of India."

Tobago (Assumption Island) now forms part of Trinidad, in the legislative council of which it has one official and one unofficial member. Discovered in 1498 by Columbus, it has a broken history of conflicting claims and conquests. Claimed in 1608 by England, settled in 1625 by Barbadians and included in the Montgomery grant of 1628, it was colonized by the Dutch in 1632, by Courlanders in 1642, again by the Dutch (1654), to whom the Courlanders surrendered in 1658, followed by an unsuccessful French colony in 1656 and Louis XIV's grant to two Flemish merchants in 1662. Charles II granted it again to the Duke of Courland in 1664 and Jamaicans captured the island in 1666, only to surrender it in 1667, at the Treaty of Breda, after which the Dutch returned. The French captured the island in 1677 and restored it to the Dutch by the Peace of Nimeguen (1678), but it remained still not finally possessed. The island's neutrality, guaranteed in 1748 by the Peace of Aix-la-Chapelle, was violated by a British invasion of 1762 and its cession in 1763, after which the British included it in the government of Grenada, but granted it a legislative council and Assembly in 1768. A slave revolt was crushed in 1770. Occupied in 1781 by the French until 1783, retaken in 1793, ceded to France in 1802, it was finally captured in 1803 and ceded to Great Britain in 1814.

In 1833 it was included in the Windward Islands government, but separated in 1889 and finally absorbed in 1899 by Trinidad (q.v.).

H. I. Woodcock, "History of Tobago," 1867.

Togoland. [West Africa, British Dominions in.]

Tokelau. [New Zealand, Dominion of.]

Toleration Act, The (May 24, 1689), was a measure due to the Earl of Nottingham. It passed both Houses with but little difficulty, and received the hearty consent of King William III. In order to be properly appreciated it must be judged by the religious prejudices of a past age. It relaxed the stringent conditions of the Act of Uniformity (q.v.), the Five Mile Act (q.v.), and the Conventicle Act (q.v.). "It exempts," declared Hallam, "from the penalties of existing statutes against separate conventicles, or absence from the established worship, such as should take the oath of allegiance, and subscribe the declaration against popery, and such ministers of separate congregations as should subscribe the Thirty-nine Articles of the Church of England except three, and part of a fourth. It gives also an indulgence to Quakers without this condition. Meeting-houses are required to be registered, and are prevented from insult by a penalty. No part of this toleration extended to papists, or to such as deny the Trinity." The inconsistencies of the act are that persecution continued to be the rule, toleration the exception; and that freedom of conscience was granted in a most capricious manner. "The provisions," observed Macaulay, "removed a vast mass of evil without shocking a vast mass of prejudice; they put an end at once, and for ever, to a persecution which had raged during four generations."

A. J. Klein, "Intolerance in the Reign of Elizabeth," 1917; A. A. Seaton, "Theory of Toleration under the Later Stuarts," 1911; H. F. R. Smith, "Theory of Religious Liberty under Charles II and James II," 1911.

Tone, Theobald Wolfe (1763–98), was the founder of the Society of United Irishmen. He entered Trinity College, Dublin, in 1781, but had little taste for study. He took his B.A. in 1786, went to London, and for a time was a member of the Middle Temple. He returned to Dublin in 1788, and was called to the Irish bar, but politics proved more attractive than the law. He became paid secretary to the United Irishmen, and was a whole-hearted enthusiast for the French Revolution. On the arrest of William Jackson, one of his associates (1794), he felt himself seriously implicated, and, on the single condition of not being called to bear witness against Jackson, agreed to leave his country for America. Accordingly, he sailed thence with his wife, children, and sister on June 13, 1795. He did not, however, consider himself bound to remain there; and after an interview with the French minister at Philadelphia, sailed for France on January 1, 1796, in order to enlist French sympathies on behalf of the independence of Ireland. In Paris he was encouraged to believe that the French would undertake a considerable expedition, to be commanded by Hoche, and received a commission in the army of the Republic. The expedition, consisting of 43 vessels in all, with 15,000 troops on board, actually started on December 15, but was driven back by a storm. A second expedition was rendered abortive by foul weather and the superiority of Admiral Duncan's fleet; and to add to Tone's disappointment, Hoche died. On the outbreak of the Irish rebellion in 1798 a French fleet actually sailed, came into action with a British squadron off Lough Swilly on October 10, and after a stubborn fight was worsted. The *Hoche*, with Tone on board, struck, and he was made prisoner. On November 10 he was tried by court-martial and condemned to death for high treason. He pleaded his right, as a French officer, to be shot, but this was refused him. Sooner than submit to be hanged he attempted to take his life in prison; the attempt was not immediately successful, but he died (November 19) after lingering a week in great agony, and so escaped the ignominy which he dreaded.

Wolfe Tone's "Autobiography," ed. R. Barry O'Brien, 1912; and his "Letters," ed. B. Hobson, 1921.

Tooke, John Horne (1736–1812), was the son of John Horne, and assumed the title of Tooke after being adopted by William Tooke, of Purley. His family persuaded him, after he had taken his degree in 1758, to enter the Church, but his own inclination was for the law, and in 1779 he tried to obtain admission to the bar, but his clerical profession prevented him. Tooke had already become conspicuous as a democratic politician; at first as a friend of Wilkes, with whom, however, he speedily quarrelled, and was in consequence attacked by Junius. In 1775 he was sentenced to a year's imprisonment and a fine, for saying that the Americans who fell at Lexington had been "murdered" by the British soldiers. He plunged actively into the political agitation which followed the French Revolution, and in 1794 he was committed for trial on account of his connexion with the supposed treason of the Corresponding Society, but after an able and witty defence he was acquitted. After contesting Westminster twice without success, he was returned for Old Sarum in 1801, but a bill was passed in the next session rendering clerical persons ineligible. His last days were spent in easy retirement. Tooke had a great social reputation; his "Diversions of Purley" is an original, though rather primitive, work on philology.

There are lives of Tooke by J. A. Graham, 1828; A. Stephens, 1813, and M. C. Yarborough, 1926.

Torres Vedras, The Lines of (1810–1811), were thrown up by Wellington in order that he might protect Lisbon and the army during the winter and thus baffle the superior forces of Masséna in their efforts to drive

the British out of Portugal. They consisted of three distinct ranges of defence. The first, extending from Alhandra on the Tagus to the mouth of the Zizandre on the sea-coast, was, following the inflections of the hills, 29 miles long. The second, traced at a distance varying from 6 to 10 miles in the rear of the first, stretched from Quintella on the Tagus to the mouth of the St. Lorenza, being 24 miles in length. The third was intended to cover a forced embarkation, and extended from Passo d'Arcos on the Tagus to the coast. Masséna soon perceived the impossibility of carrying the position at any point or of turning it, except from the Tagus, where a large flotilla of British gunboats was moored. Throughout October Masséna, though harassed by sickness and increasing scarcity of supplies, persisted in his efforts to turn the position by the Tagus; but he was as persistently foiled by Wellington's manœuvres. Towards the middle of the month Masséna fell back on Santarem, but there stood firm, and Wellington, who had thought him in full retreat, had to abandon the idea of attacking him, and drew back into his lines. In November Masséna again resumed his plans on the Tagus, but without success. During December and January the armies remained quiet; but the difficulty of obtaining supplies and forage led the French into horrible excesses and marauding expeditions, which undermined the discipline of the army. Had Wellington been vigorously reinforced from England he would have attacked Masséna's weakened forces, but he was compelled to await Masséna's retreat. On March 2, 1811, the latter began his retreat, which he executed with "infinite ability." But for the lines of Torres Vedras Wellington could have hardly held his ground against Masséna's much larger force.

Napier, "Peninsular War," bk. xi. cc. 8–10; Sir C. W. C. Oman, "Peninsular War," 1902–20.

Torrington, Earl and Viscount. [Byng; Herbert.]

Tory. The name is derived from an Irish word, meaning to pursue for the sake of plunder. It was applied to those Irish who in 1654 preferred to remain as outlaws in their own lands to emigrating to Connaught. The government offered prizes for their heads, and a free pardon to any Tory who brought in the head of a confederate. In 1693, after the civil war had come to an end, they again appear; they are described by the law as "out of their keeping." A statute passed (7 William and Mary) put a reward of £20 on the head of any Tory, and assessed the Catholic inhabitants of a barony for any loss caused by them. This statute was not repealed till 1776. In English politics the word appears to have been first used contemptuously to designate the court and Roman Catholic party in the disputes between the Abhorrers (q.v.) and Petitioners in 1679. In the debates on the Exclusion Bill it was applied insultingly to the partisans of James II. In William III's reign the term was coming into current use without an opprobrious meaning, as the title of the party who opposed the Whig interest in Church and State; and in the reign of Anne it was the common designation of this party. On account, however, of its suspicious connexion with Jacobitism, and the honourable and respectable traditions attaching to the name of Whig, because of the large share borne by the Whigs in the Revolution, Tory was not a title which any party was anxious to assume. It was not until the failure of the rebellion of 1745 that the Tories were able to free themselves finally from the trammels of the Jacobite tradition. Their opportunity to recover political power came with the accession of George III, the determined enemy of the Whigs; but to the younger Pitt belongs the credit for their final rehabilitation. To him was due their revival as a great party in the State, resting on popular support as well as on that of the Crown, and opposed to the Whigs, who had become to some extent an aristocratic faction. Under his administration the name was generally acknowledged by the party which towards the closing period of his premiership probably included the majority of the middle and propertied classes, and was especially identified with the continuance of the war with France, and opposition to what were assumed to be revolutionary and radical changes in domestic affairs. Since that period the word has held its own as the designation of one of the two great parties in British politics; though in the nineteenth century that of Conservative was often preferred to it. But this name has hardly supplanted the older designation as that of Liberal has done in the case of the rival party. A Tory perhaps is understood to be a person less indulgent towards the principles of his opponents than a Conservative. But the two terms are used almost indiscriminately in political phraseology.

K. Feiling, "The Rise of the Tory Party," 1924; C. B. R. Kent, "Early History of the Tories, 1660–1703," 1908; T. E. Kebbel, "History of Toryism, 1783–1881," 1886; G. G. Butler, "The Tory Tradition," 1914; Lord Hugh Cecil, "Conservatism," 1912.

Tostig (*d.* 1066) was the third son of Godwin. In 1051 he married Judith, sister of Baldwin of Flanders, and in the same year he shared his father's exile. In 1055 he was created Earl of Northumbria, and was seemingly a great personal favourite of King Edward. In 1061, in company with Gurth and Archbishop Ealdred, he made a pilgrimage to Rome, and during his absence Northumbria was invaded and ravaged by the Scots. In 1063 he joined Harold in his Welsh campaign. In 1065 his earldom broke out into revolt, his harsh and tyrannical government being no longer bearable. The Northumbrians held a meeting at York, outlawed and deposed Tostig, and chose Morkere, son of Earl Elfgar, as their earl; a massacre of Tostig's followers ensued, and the insurgents marched southwards to support their claims. With the advice of Harold, the

king yielded to the demands of the insurgents, and Tostig was deposed and banished. He took refuge in Flanders, where he heard of Harold's election to the throne; having failed to induce William to make an alliance with him, he got together a fleet and ravaged the Isle of Wight and the southern coast. Thence he went northwards to the Humber, probably with the hope of recovering his earldom, but failing in this he retired to Scotland, where in all probability he met Harold Hardrada, King of Norway, whom he induced to join him in an invasion of England. At first they were successful, and defeated Edwin and Morkere at the battle of Fulford (September 20, 1066); but King Harold, hearing of the invasion, marched northwards promptly, and met them at Stamford Bridge (September 25, 1066), where the Norwegian force was totally defeated, and Tostig and Harold Hardrada slain. Tostig left two sons, Ketil and Skule, who settled in Norway.

Totnes, George Carew, Earl of (1555–1629). [Carew.]

Touchet, James, 12th Lord Audley (*d.* 1459), served under Henry V in the French wars. In the reign of Henry VI he took part with the Lancastrians, and was in command of the army which intercepted Salisbury at Blore Heath, in which battle Audley was defeated and slain.

Touchet, James, 14th Lord Audley (*d.* 1497), a man of broken fortune, was famous in the reign of Henry VII for his ill-advised leadership of the Cornish rebels in 1497. In the conflict that took place at Blackheath between the rebels and the king's forces under the command of Lord Daubeny and the Earl of Oxford, Audley was taken prisoner, and soon afterwards beheaded.

Toulouse, The Battle of (April 10, 1814), was the last of the battles of the Peninsular War. Soult had thrown himself into Toulouse, and was resolved to hold the place at all hazards. As Wellington approached he took up a strong position in front of the town, which was protected on the other side by the Garonne, and outside that by the St. Cyprian heights, strongly fortified. The battle began early on the morning of the 10th. From six o'clock till four in the afternoon it raged, and in that time 4,200 men of the allies had fallen, while the French lost 2,000. Finally the French were defeated, and slowly retired from all their positions. The battle was—"a lamentable spilling of blood, and a useless, for before this period Napoleon had abdicated the throne of France, and a provisional government was constituted at Paris."

Sir C. W. C. Oman, "Peninsular War," 1902–20.

Toulouse, The War of (1159), is the name given to the campaign undertaken by Henry II in order to enforce his wife's claim to the county of Toulouse. The expedition, which lasted for some months, was eventually unsuccessful, though Henry's troops performed some brilliant exploits. The theory that it was the first occasion for a general levy of scutage (q.v.) has now been exploded.

Townshend, Charles, 2nd Viscount (1674–1738), entered public life as a Tory, but soon joined the Whigs. He was one of the commissioners for the Union of Scotland. In 1709 he was sent with Marlborough as plenipotentiary to The Hague, where he concluded the Barrier Treaty, which Marlborough refused to sign. He completed his connexion with the Whigs by marrying Walpole's sister. In 1712 he was severely censured by the Tories as the author of the Barrier Treaty. George I, before his arrival in England, appointed him secretary of state and prime minister, passing over the old Whig junto, but he soon became distasteful to the king, and was disliked by the Hanoverian courtiers. He opposed George's schemes with regard to Bremen and Verden. Perceiving that Charles XII of Sweden was threatening England, he was anxious for peace with Russia. Urged on by Sunderland, the king dismissed him from office, offering him in exchange the lord-lieutenancy of Ireland, which he accepted (February 1717). But he was soon dismissed also from that position when, on the schism between Walpole and Stanhope breaking out in the ministry, his followers voted against a supply for hostilities against Sweden (April). Finding opposition useless, he rejoined the ministry in 1720 as lord president. On Walpole's becoming premier he was made secretary of state. He soon quarrelled with the king's favourite, Carteret, with whose more ambitious views of foreign policy he could not agree. The contest came to an issue at the marriage of Madame de Platen, sister of the king's mistress, the Countess of Darlington, in Paris. There Townshend sent Horace Walpole as rival ambassador to Carteret; and the latter was forced by the king to withdraw to the lord-lieutenancy of Ireland. In 1725 Townshend concluded the Treaty of Hanover between Great Britain, France, and Prussia, to check the designs of Austria, Spain, and the Duke of Bourbon, as formulated in the Treaty of Vienna (1725), namely, a Stuart restoration and the surrender of Gibraltar and Minorca. This treaty, which Walpole considered was too precipitate, was the cause of his quarrel with Townshend. "The firm," he said, "should be Walpole and Townshend, not Townshend and Walpole." After a violent quarrel with Walpole, Townshend retired from public life. He passed the remainder of his life at Rainham, refusing to take further part in politics. To him we owe the cultivation of the turnip, and hence a proper rotation of crops.

Coxe, "Memoirs of Walpole"; Horace Walpole, "Memoirs."

Townshend, Charles (1725–67), was the second son of Charles, 3rd Viscount Townshend,

In 1747 he was returned to parliament for Yarmouth, and joined the opposition, but without much warmth. In 1749 his large family influence obtained for him a place at the board of trade. Five years later he was nominated one of the commissioners for executing the office of lord high admiral. In 1757 he became a member of the privy council. In March 1761 he became secretary at war. Here he fluctuated between Pitt and Bute, at one time supporting one, at another the other. In 1765 he accepted the office of paymaster-general in the Rockingham government, although he had no faith in its strength, and called it "a mere lute-string administration, pretty summer wear." In the following year he became chancellor of the exchequer in the Chatham ministry. But, as usual, Townshend was not decided in his support of the cabinet, of which he was now a member. As chancellor of the exchequer he introduced a budget in which he pledged himself to the reduction of the land tax at the end of a year, but on a motion of the opposition that the reduction should take place at once, the government was defeated. With Chatham ill, the members of the ministry broke away from all control, and Townshend in particular gave vent to the wildest frolics of his genius. In one of the most celebrated of his speeches he said that the government "had become, what he had often been called, a weather-cock." The revenue which he failed to obtain by the land tax he now sought by taxing with import duties many small commodities sent to the American colonies. It was a most fatal measure, the evil results of which Townshend did not live to see, as he died of a fever on September 4, 1767. Walpole, who was his friend, says that "Townshend had every great talent, and very little quality. His vanity exceeded even his abilities, and his suspicions seemed to make him doubt if he had any. With such a capacity he must have been the greatest man of his age, and, perhaps, inferior to no man of any age, had his faults been only in moderate proportion."

"Grenville Papers," "Chatham Correspondence"; Walpole, "Memoirs of George III"; "Memoir of Townshend" by P. Fitzgerald, 1866.

Townshend, George, 1st Marquis of (1724–1807), served in the army, and concluded, after Wolfe's death, the capitulation which gave Quebec to England. In 1767 he became viceroy of Ireland, and, in accordance with George III's instructions, tried to govern in defiance of the Ponsonbys and Shannons; but, defeated on the Army Bill in 1768, had to abandon the attempt. A new parliament was no more docile than the last, and corruption was now tried. By means of the new oligarchy of Crown pensioners, the great families were defeated, and in 1771 Townshend secured a favourable parliament. But by 1772 matters had so far changed that complete defeat could only be averted by making peace with Lord Shannon. Disgusted with his office, the lord-lieutenant resigned and retired to England, leaving behind him £300,000 of arrears. He was created marquis in 1786.

"Townshend Correspondence"; C. V. F. Townshend, "Military Life of F-M. George, first Marquis Townshend," 1901.

Towton, The Battle of (March 29, 1461), was the most important engagement in the Wars of the Roses. After the second battle of St. Albans, Queen Margaret and the Lancastrians had retired to the north, while Edward and Warwick entered London, and the former was proclaimed king. The Yorkists immediately determined on marching northwards and completing the defeat of the Lancastrians. On March 12 the Yorkists were at Pontefract, the Lancastrians at York. After a skirmish at Ferrybridge, the two armies met near the village of Towton, not far from Tadcaster. The battle was fought on Palm Sunday, March 29, and lasted ten hours, ending in the complete victory of the Yorkists, and the rout and dispersion of the Lancastrian army. The Earl of Northumberland fell in the battle, the Earl of Devon and the Bastard of Exeter were beheaded after it, and many men were left dead on the field. Henry and Margaret, with such of their followers as had survived the slaughter, fled into Scotland, while Edward returned in triumph to London.

R. B. Mowat, "Wars of the Roses," 1914.

Trade, The Board of. Councils "of Trade and Plantation" were created by Charles II after the Restoration, charged with the concerns of the colonies and merchant shipping. The two were united in 1672, and abolished in 1675. The council was reappointed in 1695, and continued to exercise a certain control over colonial and mercantile matters for nearly a century afterwards. In 1782, having long been found inefficient, and having been attacked by Burke, it was abolished. In 1786 the Board of Trade with substantially its present function was established by order in council. The president of the board usually has a seat in the cabinet. Its functions have been regulated by several acts, notably those of 1845, 1850, and 1867, and it has been charged with the superintendence of railways (1840) and merchant shipping (1854 and 1867). The personnel includes, besides the president, a parliamentary and a permanent under-secretary, assistant secretaries, and several heads of departments.

Trade Unions. [A trade union, in the words of Sidney and Beatrice Webb, is commonly understood to be "a continuous association of wage-earners for the purpose of maintaining or improving the conditions of their working lives." There are many points of resemblance between such bodies as we know them to-day and the gilds of the Middle Ages, and it was even argued by Brentano that the modern unions were historically derived from the mediæval crafts. But however many the points of likeness—and it must be remembered that there are also considerable points of difference—it

is impossible to trace any direct continuity. Early analogies have been pointed out in the journeymen fraternities, often frowned upon by the law, which grew up among the non-master class in the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries. There were combinations among the masons and building craftsmen in the fifteenth century. The decay of the religious gild, the transformation of the city crafts into livery companies, usually dominated by the wealthiest merchants, the formation of new associations of industrial masters, all tended to widen the division between employer and workman, and, as we might expect, it is where a capitalistic organization of industry first flourished that we discover the early signs of what may be called modern trade unionism. In the clothing areas of the south and west of England the operatives employed by the clothiers were forming combinations at the end of the seventeenth century. Earlier than this, during the Interregnum period, an industrial democratic movement sprang up among the rank and file of craftsmen, and quarrels with the governing members of their companies were numerous. A combination of the journeymen employed by the felt-hat makers was formed in the first decade of the Restoration, and appears to have had a continuous history down to the present day. In the eighteenth century trade unions were formed amongst other groups of London craftsmen, e.g., among the tailors in 1720, agitating for better wages and a shorter working day. The Elizabethan Statute of Artificers (1563), which, it is now generally agreed, did something to assist in the maintenance of the workers' standard of living, being, in Sir Henry Slesser's words, "an early, and almost universal, application of the principle of the statutory minimum rate, with the Justices of the Peace as Trade Board," had by the eighteenth century become obsolete. Adam Smith notices that the practice of wage-fixing by magistrates had in 1776 "gone entirely into disuse."] As early as 1725 temporary associations were formed among workmen to secure the carrying out of the act. But these were declared illegal by act of parliament, although the attempts of the legislature to revive the practice of fixing wages by the justices proved resultless. In spite of evils in particular industries, the relations of the various classes engaged in manufacture were fairly good during the earlier part of the century. The introduction of machinery, however, and with it of the factory system, soon caused an industrial war; journeymen everywhere petitioned that the Act 5 Eliz. should be enforced, and began to form societies and raise funds for the prosecution of offending masters. But while parliament suspended the act for the benefit of employers year after year, and repealed it for the woollen manufacture in 1809, and generally in 1814, associations of workmen were rendered penal by acts of 1799 and 1800. [But it was the law of conspiracy which could be employed against combinations with the sharpest effect.] The unions either assumed the guise of friendly provident societies to evade the acts, or else became secret associations, with the usual evil results. In 1824 Joseph Hume (q.v.), [urged forward by Francis Place (q.v.), who for ten years had been patiently collecting materials in order that he might convince the country that the Combination Laws were stupid and unjust,] gained the appointment of a parliamentary committee, which reported that the administration of the law had been one-sided, that it had only touched workmen, and not masters who had combined, adding also that the law had, "in the opinion of many of both parties, tended to produce mutual irritation and distrust, and to give a violent character to the combinations." In accordance with its advice, all the acts against combination were repealed in 1824; but so numerous were the strikes that followed that a most unwise amending act was passed next year, according to which, though persons meeting to determine their own wages were exempted from punishment, "all meetings or agreements for the purpose of affecting the wages or hours of work of persons not present at the meeting, or parties to the agreement, were conspiracies. So were all agreements for controlling a master in the management of his business. So were all agreements not to work in the company of any given person, or to persuade other persons to leave their employment, or not to engage themselves. In fact, there was scarcely an act performed by any workman, as the member of a trade union, which was not an act of conspiracy and a misdemeanour." Besides, the general acts against conspiracy could still be employed against unionists, as in 1834, when six Dorchester labourers were sentenced to seven years' transportation for "administering unlawful oaths"—i.e., admitting members into a union. During the next thirty years, in spite of these acts, the movement spread with great rapidity. [Large industrial unions grew up (notably among the cotton operatives, and in the metal and building trades) which frightened the public and threatened the employers, who retorted with the menace of lock-outs unless trade-union workers renounced their membership. The break-down of the large unions of associated trades was followed by the formation in 1834 of Robert Owen's Grand National Consolidated Trades Union, which in a very short time gained half a million members. It aimed at the improvement of labour conditions by "direct action." A general strike was declared to secure an eight-hour day. It failed, and with it the Grand National. For many years industrial action remained discredited.] In 1851 a combination of several associations produced the Amalgamated Society of Engineers, which played a part in trade-union struggles comparable to that of the weavers among the mediæval gilds. Public attention was recalled to the unions by the Sheffield outrages (q.v.) of 1866,

which led to the appointment of a Royal Commission in 1867 to examine the whole matter. But it was clearly proved that the large majority of unions had nothing illegal in their working, and in consequence the Trades Union Act of 1871 recognized their complete legality. Finally, the last vestiges of the Combination Acts were repealed in 1875; henceforward the offences of unionists must be tried under no special acts, but under the ordinary criminal law. About the same time unionism was introduced into agricultural districts, and the Agricultural Labourers' Union, founded in 1872, has many thousands of members.

In 1902 the Taff Vale Company brought an action against the Amalgamated Society of Railway Servants for damages in connexion with a strike on that line. A verdict was given for the company, and the Amalgamated Society paid damages and costs amounting to £23,000. But more serious than the money penalty was the loss of immunity from liability for the illegal acts of their agents which trade unions were presumed to enjoy prior to this litigation. [In spite of a vigorous agitation the trade-union movement had to live through four apprehensive years before it could get the decision against its members reversed in the Trade Disputes Act of 1906, which laid down that "an action against a Trade Union in respect of any tortious act alleged to have been committed by or on behalf of the Trade Union shall not be entertained by any court." During the last two decades of the nineteenth century the character of trade unionism changed. The old-established societies of skilled workers, employing their funds largely for benefit and relief purposes among their members, were joined, especially during the 'nineties, by a large number of new unions, whose members were unskilled. The new unionism, which was militant and inclined towards collectivism in social theory, was stimulated to political activity. Funds were employed for party purposes and union officials became Labour members of the House of Commons. Trade-union politics received a set-back in 1908, in what is known as the Osborne judgment, which amounted to a declaration that all activities undertaken by trade unions, outside their industrial functions, were illegal. In 1913 the Trade Union Act extended the permissible field of action to electoral and parliamentary work, provided a ballot of the members supported a trade union's decision to enter upon it and that a distinction was made between the political levy and other subscriptions, so that a dissentient member might claim exemption from the former. The movement in favour of the use of conciliation machinery between representatives of employers and employed, which had begun during the years following 1860, had been successful in setting up boards for the settlement of disputes in many of the big industries. In the first decade of the present century about 750 disputes a year were coming before such boards for settlement, and until 1911 it appeared probable that arbitration and conciliation would take the place of lock-out and strike in the industrial history of the future. The three years before the war, however, saw a succession of strikes on an alarming scale, affecting especially the transport industries; since then the fluctuating condition of industry, the special demands of the war, and change in the general balance of political views have conspired to prevent a return to industrial peace. Inspired by its success in combating the General Strike of 1926, the Conservative government pushed through parliament the Trade Unions and Trade Disputes Bill of 1927, which made the use of the strike for political or non-industrial purposes illegal, modified the law with regard to picketing, and substituted the obligation to "contract in" for contributions to the political levy by its subscribers, in place of the regulation prescribing "contracting out" by individual dissentients.]

Lloyd, "Trade Unionism"; Webb, "History of Trade Unionism"; Lipson, "Economic History of England," i, ch. 8; Unwin, "Industrial Organization in the XVIth and XVIIth Centuries"; Clapham, "The Early Railway Age"; Cole, "A Short History of the British Working Class Movement"; "Robert Owen"; Ashley, "The Adjustment of Wages"; Hammond, "The Town Labourer" and "The Skilled Labourer"; M. D. George, "Combination Laws Reconsidered," in *Economic Journal*, Economic History Series, No. 2. [W. J. A.] [A. V. J.]

Trafalgar, The Battle of (October 21, 1805), was the last and most fatal blow inflicted on the naval power of France. On the previous afternoon the combined French and Spanish fleets had been descried sailing out of the port of Cadiz, and during the night Nelson had kept his fleet under all sail to keep them in sight. At daybreak on the 21st they were seen in a close line about 12 miles ahead. As the English fleet came up with him, the French admiral, Villeneuve, formed his fleet in a double line in close order. Nelson had 27 men-of-war and 4 frigates, against the combined fleets of 33 ships and 7 frigates, and he adopted the plan of attacking in two lines, Collingwood leading the lee-line of 15 ships, and Nelson the weather-line of 12. Villeneuve made the most skilful preparations to meet the attack, but seems to have perceived at once that Nelson's plan would succeed. As the *Victory*, Nelson's ship, neared the French fleet, she was raked by a galling fire from the enemy, so that she had lost fifty men before returning a shot. At noon she opened her fire, and ran on board the *Redoubtable*, with the intention of breaking the enemy's line. That ship fired one broadside, and then, through fear of being boarded, let down her lower ports, and contented herself for the rest of the battle with keeping up a fire of musketry from her tops. The *Victory* soon became busy with her, the *Téméraire*, and the huge *Santissima Trinidad*, and at 1.25 p.m. Nelson was mortally wounded by a ball from the marines in the tops. Within twenty minutes the *Redoubtable* struck. In the meantime the battle had been raging

with almost equal fury on all sides; and everywhere the stubborn courage of the British seamen wore out the resistance of the enemy. Nelson lived just long enough to know that he had gained his last and greatest victory. Eighteen of the enemy had struck; seven of their ships escaped from the battle only to be captured by Sir Richard Strachan off Rochefort. The next evening a gale came on from the south-west which destroyed most of the prizes. The British loss amounted to 1,587 men; the loss of the allies was much greater, and included the Spanish admiral, while Villeneuve was taken prisoner. The Spaniards, disgusted with the conduct of the French, at once made peace, and treated our wounded with the utmost attention. With the loss of Villeneuve's fleet vanished all Napoleon's hopes of invading England.

W. L. Clowes, "Royal Navy," vol. v, 1900; Sir J. S. Corbett, "Campaign of Trafalgar," 1910; H. Newbolt, "Year of Trafalgar," 1905; J. R. Thursfield, "Nelson and other Studies," 1909.

Trailbaston, Commissions of, date from an ordinance of 1304. Their object was to put down the numerous bands of swashbucklers or "trailbastons" (i.e., staff or bludgeon carriers) as they were called. Commissions for the purpose of quelling the disturbances caused by these ruffians were sent throughout the country, inquiring, imprisoning, fining, and even hanging summarily. The exact nature of the commissions is difficult to determine, but it seems to have been a sort of connecting link between the justices in eyre and the justices of oyer and terminer.

W. S. Holdsworth, "History of English Law," 1923; H. M. Cam, "Studies in the Hundred Rolls."

Train Bands, or trained bands, instituted in the reign of James I, were bodies of urban militia, which combined with the principle of the "fyrd" a large volunteer element. They proved, however, exceedingly turbulent, especially in London, and, having espoused the side of the Parliament during the Great Rebellion, were abolished after the Restoration. [Military System.]

Transport, Ministry of, was created a department of state in 1919 by the Ministry of Transport Act, which gave the minister powers to control all existing means of internal transport, which had been taken over by the government at the outbreak of the Great War in 1914. Mr. Churchill's budget of 1927 proposed that the Ministry of Transport, together with the Ministry of Mines and the Department of Overseas Trade, should be abolished as a separate department.

Transvaal. [South Africa, Union of.]

Traquair, John Stewart, 1st Earl of (1599–1659). [Stewart.]

Travancore was a little principality at the southern extremity of the Malabar coast. The treaty of Mangalore placed it under British protection. In consequence of this Lord Cornwallis began the second Mysore War to avenge on Tippoo the insult offered to the British government by his unprovoked attack (1790) on the lines of Travancore (a line of ramparts protected by a ditch and bound hedge, extending along the northern frontier from the Neilgherry hills to the sea). In 1795 a subsidiary alliance was concluded between the raja and the company, by which he agreed to assist them if necessary with troops to the best of his ability. And in 1805 a second treaty was concluded, by which this duty was commuted for an annual payment. Travancore was extremely badly governed, and retrenchment and reform were absolutely necessary. The last treaty with the British had stipulated this. In 1808 an attempt to enforce this led to an attack on the Residency, from which the resident barely escaped. British troops were marched up, and order was after some trouble restored. Travancore is still one of the protected native states, placed in direct relation with the government of India since 1923, under an agent to the governor-general in charge of the Madras States agency.

Treason, The Law of. High treason, which means a transcendently dangerous kind of betrayal, is theoretically a murderous blow aimed at the State, but in fact is any mischievous action or design against the person of the sovereign, with whose particular life the general welfare is supposed to be bound. It is called "high" treason to distinguish it from simple or petty treason, which was an outrageous or unnatural betrayal of confidence, as that of a child who attempts or designs the slaughter of a parent. Feudalism is usually credited with having shifted the mark of treason from the State to the sovereign. Yet the idea of the king's supreme lordship and consequent importance in this connexion is first seen in Alfred's law of treason: "If anyone plot against the king's life, of himself or by harbouring of exiles, or of his men, let him be liable in his life and in all that he has." For such "treachery against a lord" Alfred thought no reparation possible. After the Conquest, therefore, while the penalty of rebellion was, for a Norman, only forfeiture and imprisonment, for an Englishman it was death. In 1075 the Norman earl, Ralph Guader, met with no worse doom than loss of lands and perpetual captivity; the Englishman Waltheof perished on the scaffold. The crime did not assume its darker aspect, or draw after it the more awful punishment afterwards reserved for it, till many years later. The Norman and early Plantagenet kings seldom, if ever, had leaders of rebellion executed on legal process; their vengeance was satisfied with the ordinary feudal consequences. The idea of treason, however, was well known. Glanville speaks of it under the name of "lese majesty," thus showing the influence of the Roman law on its development. Edward I gave expression, perhaps for the first time, to the sterner conception of the offence; the proceedings against David of Wales and William

Wallace first exhibited its merciless characteristics. The constructive complexity of David's guilt set the precedent for the most appalling feature in our legal history. He was drawn to the gallows, hanged, had his bowels burnt, and his quarters dispersed over the kingdom, respectively for the treachery to his lord, the murder, the profanation of a holy season, and the repeated formation of designs against his king at various places, into which the judges divided his crime. This case practically ruled all that came after. The hurdle, the gallows, the axe, and the quartering knife were for ages the instruments of the punishment of treason, varied only by the stake and the faggot if the convicted traitor were a woman. The legal sentiment was now fostered that there was a special heinousness in the offence. It was deemed politic, perhaps, to frighten the king's liegemen into a respect for their oaths and implied fealty. Any scheme that struck at the king, his crown and dignity, or tended to do mischief to his person or royal estate, was asserted by legal writers to be treason, not only in those who attempted it, but also in those who advised it. But the Crown had the interest in keeping the offence indefinite that the consequent frequency of forfeitures gave; and the profitable vagueness was allowed to hang over it for a time. Mortimer, for instance, was in 1330 condemned for merely "accroaching" or drawing towards himself the royal power. In 1352, therefore, the puzzled and distressed Lords and Commons begged King Edward III to declare authoritatively the law on the subject. Edward complied, and the historic Statute of Treasons was the result. Henceforward no man was to be held guilty of treason who had not compassed the death of the king, queen, or their eldest son; violated the queen, the king's eldest daughter, if unmarried, or the wife of his eldest son; levied war against the king in his kingdom, or adhered to his enemies; counterfeited the great seal, or brought false money into the land; or slain his chancellor, treasurer, or judges "being in their place doing their offices." And all the lands forfeited for any of these offences were to go to the king, whether holden of him or of others. The weightier clauses of this statute are law still. But it often fell short of the needs of an arbitrary king or an unusually critical condition of affairs; and such additions were made to it by the legislature, and constructions placed upon it by the judges, as the occasion seemed to demand. In Richard II's heyday of power, in Henry VI's growing weakness, new treasons were created, but only to be brushed away at the return of better or more settled times. The reign most prolific of artificial treasons was Henry VIII's; to deny the royal supremacy, or even decline to admit it, to deprive the king of any of his titles, to keep back from him the knowledge of an immorality committed by the lady he proposed to marry, and several other things of little seeming importance at other times, were exaggerated into treasons. These were all swept away when Edward VI succeeded; but many of them were re-enacted the year before his death, while, as a feeble antidote to this renewed severity, it was provided that no treason should be established save on the testimony of two witnesses. The restored additions were cast out again in Mary's reign, but the mitigatory provision was left untouched. The safety of Elizabeth called for fresh accessions to the law—among other enactments it was made treason to say that the queen was a heretic, a schismatic, or a usurper—but these were limited to the queen's lifetime. After her death the law of Edward III continued the sole statutory basis of the crime, and the law of Edward VI its sole judicial corrective. The nimble wits of lawyers, however, had found in the former, by help of the doctrine of constructive treason, more than one implication of crime. Chief among these was conspiracy to levy war against the king, which, though not asserted to be itself treason, was accepted as a convincing proof of treason. To this principle parliament also three times gave a lease of the existing sovereign's life, in the reigns of Elizabeth, Charles II, and George III. The contemplated deposition of the sovereign, or even the devisal of a plan for putting him under restraint for any purpose whatever, such as Essex designed in 1601, was discovered in Edward III's statute. At last, in 1816, the whole subject was comprehensively treated in a statute of that year, which is now the accepted standard of treason. By this measure not only the overt act, but the mere entertainment of a design to slay, wound, coerce, or depose the king, or to deprive him of any part of his dominions, or to levy war against him with any view whatever, or to move an invasion from abroad, and the publication of an intention to do any of these things, were declared to be high treason. The law was thus definitely fixed. No legal process was more shamelessly perverted to tyrannical and unjust ends than that of treason, as a hundred cases, from Burdett's to Sidney's, testify. To remedy the monstrous unfairness of trials on this charge the notable law of 1696 was passed. This ensures to the accused the assistance of counsel, the examination of his witnesses on oath, a copy of his indictment five (afterwards ten) days, a list of the jury panel two days, before his trial, and the certainty of having two direct witnesses produced against him; and limits prosecutions to the term of three years, save for an attempt to assassinate the king. The revolting horrors of the punishment have since been removed—the cutting down alive and disembowelling of men, and the burning of women, in 1790; the drawing, quartering, and beheading, in 1870. But much earlier they had ceased to be carried out.

W. S. Holdsworth, "History of English Law," 1922; Sir L. Stephen, "History of the Criminal Law."

[J. R.]

Treason Felony Act, The, or Crown and Government Security Act (11 and 12 Vict. c. 12), was introduced in 1848 (passed April 22), partly to meet certain forms of sedition practised by the United Irishmen (q.v.), partly to extend the law of treason more fully to Ireland, and partly with a view to the Chartist disturbances. The act reduced the death penalties produced under 36 George III, c. 7 (1795), for certain offences against the person of the sovereign, to transportation for life, extended those acts to Ireland and provided that any person compassing or intending the deposition of the sovereign or levying war against the Crown within the British dominions in order to intimidate Crown or parliament, or inciting to foreign invasion of any British dominion, or expressing such intention by writing or any overt act, should be guilty of felony and liable to transportation for life. The act was strongly opposed by Smith O'Brien (q.v.) and some Radical members. It has played an important part in the later history of Irish disturbances.

Treasonable Practices Bill (1795) was introduced into the House of Lords in November by Lord Grenville in consequence of the excited state of popular opinion, which at length displayed itself in an attempt upon the life of the king (George III). The chief point in the bill was that it dispensed with proof of overt acts of treason, and altogether widened the definition of treason, so as to include any writing or speaking which should incite the people to hatred or contempt of the king's majesty, or the established government and constitution of the realm. It thus formed a statutory prohibition on the discussion of parliamentary reform, and was a most flagrant encroachment upon freedom of opinion. The bill was supported in a narrow spirit, worthy of its aims; but it also found seven opponents among the peers. In the House of Commons it met with a vigorous resistance. Fox went so far as to say that if this and the Seditious Meetings Bill (q.v.) "should be put into force with all their rigorous provisions, if his opinion were asked by the people as to their obedience, he should tell them it was no longer a question of moral obligation and duty, but of prudence." He was supported by Sheridan, Grey, and Whitbread, and others of the extreme Liberals; but the ministers openly avowed their determination "to exert a rigour beyond the law as exercised in ordinary times and under ordinary circumstances." They could do what they liked; and in spite of this brilliant opposition in the House, and popular indignation outside, the bill was passed to remain in force during the life of the king, and till the end of the next session after his death.

Sir T. Erskine May, "Constitutional History," vol. ii, ch. 9, ed. F. Holland, 1912.

Treasurer, The Lord High, the office of, was of Norman origin. It does not seem at first to have been considered of great importance, the duties of the king's treasurer consisting in keeping the royal treasure at Winchester, and, as a member of the exchequer at Westminster, in receiving the accounts of the sheriffs. The office was held by several ecclesiastics, among whom were Nigel of Ely and his son, Richard Fitz-Neal. Under the Norman kings it had no separate judicial powers, and it was not until after the extinction of the office of justiciar that the treasurer rapidly became one of the chief functionaries of the Crown. From the middle of the reign of Henry III we find the treasurer, in conjunction with the newly-created chancellor of the Exchequer, taking part in the equitable jurisdiction of the Exchequer. He was now the third great officer of the Crown; and his duties, besides presiding in the upper court of Exchequer, consisted in the custody of the king's treasure and of the records deposited there, and the appointment of the commissioners and other officers employed in collecting the royal revenue. The treasury was first put in commission on the death of Lord Salisbury in 1612, and the last lord high treasurer was the Earl of Rochester (1679–84). The office of first lord of the treasury has frequently in modern times been held by the prime minister. The lord high treasurer of Scotland was created by James I, King of Scots, on his return from captivity in England. The office was modelled on the parallel institution in England, but it seems to have acquired more relative importance, for in 1617 it was declared the first office of state. Commissioners of the treasury were first appointed in Scotland in 1641, and its separate existence was abolished at the Union. A similar step was taken with regard to Ireland in 1816, where lord treasurers seem to have been in existence as early as the reign of Henry III; but the office disappeared with the creation of the Irish Free State in 1921.

Stubbs, "Select Charters," "Dialogus de Scaccario," and "Constitutional History," vol. i, ch. ii, and vol. iii, ch. 18; Haydn, "Book of Dignities."

Tremayne, Andrew (*d.* 1562), one of the conspirators in Sir Henry Dudley's plot (1556), had been suspected of being involved, together with his brother Edmund, in Wyatt's rebellion (1554—q.v.), but nothing was proved against him. In 1560 Tremayne distinguished himself at the siege of Leith; he was killed at Havre at the same time as his twin brother Nicholas. Froude calls him "the most gallant of the splendid band of youths who had been driven into exile in Mary's time, and had roved the seas as privateers."

Trenchard, Sir John (1640–95), first sat in the House of Commons in 1679 as member for Taunton. He brought in the first Exclusion Bill (November 1680). He was imprisoned for his share in the Rye House Plot (q.v.), and was a vigorous supporter of the unfortunate invasion of Monmouth. He

escaped to the continent, and was expressly excepted from the Bill of Pardon of 1686. He returned with William III, and sat as a member of the Convention. In 1692 he was appointed secretary of state. "Apparently," says Macaulay, "he was not trusted with any of the greater secrets of State, but was little more than a superintendent of police." He displayed great and perhaps excessive zeal in the suppression of the Jacobites. A general search for members of that political persuasion in Lancashire failed in its effects, owing to the betrayal of the design. Trenchard was thereupon made the subject of bitter pamphlet attacks. The prosecutions of the arrested men were complete failures. These proceedings were severely commented on by the House. Trenchard's health gave way, and he died soon afterwards.

"Trent," The Case of the, 1861, arose during the American Civil War. The British mail steamer *Trent* left Havana (November 8, 1861) for St. Thomas with the mails for England, under charge of a commander in the navy, and with numerous passengers, including Messrs. Slidell and Mason, commissioners for the southern Confederate States. It was stopped (November 9) at the entrance to the Bahama Channel, and about nine miles from the island of Cuba, by the American steamship of war *San Jacinto*, under Captain Wilkes. The Confederate commissioners and their secretaries were taken from the mail steamer, which was allowed to proceed on her voyage, and were carried to the United States, where they were imprisoned in Fort Warren, near Boston. Intense indignation was aroused in Great Britain, and Earl Russell, in a dispatch on November 30, 1861, instructed Lord Lyons to demand their release and a suitable apology. This note was supported by communications from France, Austria, Prussia, Russia, and Italy, sustaining the views of the British government. Mr. Seward, the American secretary of state, justified the seizure on the grounds that the commissioners were contraband of war, and that Captain Wilkes was entitled to seize them as enemies or rebels. He denied the immunity of the *Trent* as a packet-boat, and declared that Captain Wilkes had exercised the right of search in a perfectly legal manner. He conceded, however, that Wilkes was guilty of an irregularity in not sending the vessel into an American port to be tried by a prize court, and finally based his acquiescence in the British demand on considerations connected with the complaints previously made by the United States as to the impressment of seamen from their vessels. The question was eventually settled by a suggestion of the Prince Consort that Great Britain would be satisfied with the release of the prisoners if the United States would declare that Wilkes had acted without instructions. Lord Russell, however, in a dispatch of January 11, 1862, explicitly denied that the commissioners could in any sense be described as contraband of war.

T. L. Harris, "The Trent Affair," 1896.

Tresilian, Sir Robert (*d.* 1388), was appointed Chief Justice of the King's Bench in 1381. His first act was to try the insurgents of Wat Tyler's rebellion, and he is said to have performed his duty with such cruelty that no parallel can be found for his conduct till the campaign of Judge Jeffreys. He attached himself to the king and de Vere, and was one of the judges by whose advice Richard in 1387 annulled the commission of regency appointed in the previous year. When parliament met in 1388 the barons were determined on his punishment; he was deprived of his office and appealed of treason. He sought refuge in flight, but was captured and hanged at Tyburn.

Trevor, Sir John (1637–1717), was, says Macaulay, "bred half a pettifogger, and half a gambler." He was called to the bar in 1661. He was a creature of Judge Jeffreys, and as such was chosen Speaker in 1685. Shortly afterwards he became master of the rolls. After the Revolution he was sworn of the privy council. He was employed by Lord Carmarthen to buy the votes of the House of Commons. He again became Speaker in 1690, without opposition. He was subsequently created first commissioner of the great seal. In 1695 he was accused of corruption, having received from the City of London £1,000 for expediting a local bill. It was known that he pocketed £6,000 a year beyond his official salary. In his place he was forced to put the question and declare that the "ayes" had it. Next day he avoided putting the vote for his expulsion by pleading illness. He was, however, expelled the House.

Burnet, "History of His Own Time," ed. O. Airy, 2 vols., 1897–1900.

Triers, The Commission of, was established by Cromwell (March 20, 1654). Cromwell regulated the Church by means of two ordinances, one of which (August 22, 1653) established local committees to eject unfit ministers, whilst the other (March 20) established a central committee to examine ministers newly appointed. The latter, or Commission of Triers, consisted of thirty-eight persons, of whom nine were laymen and twenty-nine divines, to whom four divines and one layman were afterwards added. Their duty was to examine all future presentees to livings and all who had been appointed since April 1, 1653. Their certificate of fitness was to be regarded as qualifying candidates to receive the ministerial stipend, but it was expressly declared that it was not to be regarded as "any solemn or sacred setting apart for the office of the ministry." Baxter, though a Presbyterian, says, "To give them their due, they did abundance of good to the Church. . . . They saved many a congregation from ignorant, ungodly, drunken teachers." He goes on to add that they were too partial to Independents and Separatists,

" yet so great was the benefit above the hurt which they brought to the Church, that many thousands of souls blessed God for the faithful ministers whom they let in."

Trim, The Remonstrance of (March 1643), was a document drawn up by the Irish Catholics, and transmitted to the king through Ormonde. In it they complained of the penal laws and disabilities under which they had been suffering since 1560, and also of the conduct of the lord justices in 1641, and of the threats of the English parliament; they concluded with an offer of 10,000 men to defend the king's prerogative. The Cessation (q.v.) soon followed.

Trimmers, The, were a party of politicians who formed a third party in parliament in the reign of Charles II, about 1680, between the Whigs and the Tories as they came to be called. Their leader, Halifax, was a Trimmer on principle, and looked upon the title as one of honour. True to their character, they voted in the Upper House against the Exclusion Bill, although they were known to be opposed to the Duke of York.

Halifax, "Character of a Trimmer," in "Works," Oxford, 1912.

Trinidad, the most southerly of the West Indian Islands, was discovered by Columbus in 1498 and used by the Spaniards as a victualling and slave supply station. Founded in 1577 or 1584, San José was attacked by Sir Walter Ralegh in 1595. The island was included in the Earl of Montgomery's grant (1628), and the Earl of Warwick unsuccessfully tried to colonize it. In 1677 and 1690 it was ravaged by the French and remained sparsely populated until the decree of 1783 attracted many French Catholic settlers by grants of land. Trinidad was taken by a British force under Abercromby and Harvey in 1797 and ceded to Great Britain by the Peace of Amiens (1802). Immediately numbers of Scots and Irish settlers arrived and prospered. Negro emancipation was peacefully accepted in 1834, and its mineral resources, together with the introduction of Chinese (1806) and East Indian coolies (1845), prevented the island from suffering the prevalent West Indian depression. A semi-official legislature was granted in 1831, and now Trinidad with Tobago is administered as a Crown colony by a governor, assisted by an executive council of 3 and a legislative council of 8 officials and 10 nominated members to represent the divisions of the colony. The law is English with slight Spanish modifications. Since 1899 Tobago (q.v.) has been an integral part of the colony. The colonial office mission of 1921–2 under the Hon. E. F. L. Wood recommended the adoption of representative government.

N. D. Davis, "Early English Colonies in Trinidad," 1897; P. G. L. Borde, "Histoire de l'île de la Trinidad sous le gouvernement espagnol," 2 vols., 1876–82.

Trinoda Necessitas, i.e., the threefold necessity of repairing bridges (*brig-bot*), keeping up fortifications (*burh-bot*), and performing military service (*fyrd*), was usually incumbent on every holder of land in Anglo-Saxon times, even if he were exempt from every other service. The earliest mention of the Trinoda Necessitas occurs at the beginning of the eighth century.

Triple Alliance, The (January 23, 1668), was made, chiefly by the exertions of Sir William Temple and the Dutch statesman De Witt, between England, Holland, and Sweden. The three powers bound themselves to assist one another against France, and especially in checking the aggressions of Louis XIV in the Spanish Netherlands. Finding himself threatened by this powerful coalition, Louis was compelled on May 2 of the same year to make the Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle with Spain, by which, while retaining many of the border fortresses of the Netherlands, he gave up Franche-Comté, which he had also conquered, and agreed to retire from the Netherlands, while the Spaniards ceded to him many important frontier towns. The Triple Alliance, however, was of short duration, and was reversed two years afterwards by the Treaty of Dover (q.v.) concluded between England and France (1670), and directed against Holland.

—— (January 4, 1717), was concluded between Great Britain, France, and Holland, on the basis of an Anglo-French treaty concluded on November 28, 1716, by Stanhope and Dubois, after a convention at Hanover. It guaranteed the succession to the crowns in France and Great Britain, and provided for a settlement of the questions of Dunkirk and Mardyk and for the expulsion of the Pretender from France. It was directed against Philip V of Spain and Alberoni. And on the accession of the Empire to it on August 2, 1718, it became the Quadruple Alliance (q.v.).

—— (May 20, 1882), was formed by the accession of Italy to the dual alliance already existing between Germany and Austria-Hungary since October 7, 1879. The first step towards the Alliance had been the *Dreikaiserbund* of 1872 between the Emperors of Germany, Austria, and Russia. The alliance was made for five years, and renewed in 1887, 1891, 1902, and 1912. The formation of the Triple Entente (q.v., 1894–1907), combined with the existence of the Triple Alliance, divided Europe into two armed camps.

Triple Alliance (India) (July 4, 1790) was concluded between the East India Company, under Lord Cornwallis's governorship, the Nizam, and the Peshwa. Its stipulations were that the three powers should attack Tippoo's dominions, both during and after the rains, and prosecute the war with vigour; that the Mahrattas and the Nizam should join the British, if required, with 10,000 horse, for which they were to be fully reimbursed; that a British contingent should accompany their troops; that all conquests should be equally divided; and that none should make peace without the rest.

Triple Industrial Alliance, The (1914), was formed in 1914 as a federation comprising the Miners' Federation of Great Britain (founded c. 1870), the Transport Workers' Federation, and the National Union of Railwaymen (founded 1912–13). The alliance took action during the coal stoppage of 1921, calling a strike in support of the miners. But the strike notices were cancelled on April 14, ("Black Friday") and the miners fought on alone until forced to capitulate in June.

Trollop, Sir Andrew (*d.* 1461), served in the French wars, and on the outbreak of the Wars of the Roses joined the Duke of York. In 1459, after the battle of Blore Heath, the combined forces of York, Salisbury, and Warwick assembled at Ludford, close to Ludlow. Here they were confronted by the king, and a battle was imminent, when Trollop deserted with a considerable body of men to Henry. His defection caused the Yorkists to retreat in disorder. Trollop fought at Wakefield and St. Albans, and commanded the van of the Lancastrians at the battle of Towton, where he was slain.

Trot of Turriff, The, was a name given to a defeat of the Covenanters at Turriff by the Gordons (May 14, 1639).

A. Lang, "History of Scotland," vol. iii, 1904.

Troyes, The Peace of (April 11, 1564), was concluded, after the surrender of Havre, between France and England. By it the queen's mother undertook to pay 120,000 crowns to England, free trade was to be allowed, and the French hostages were to be released. The English agents were Sir Thomas Smith and Sir Nicholas Throckmorton (q.v.).

Troyes, The Treaty of (May 21, 1420), was concluded between Henry V, Charles VI of France, and the Burgundian party. The dauphin and the Armagnacs were still in arms, and refused to recognize the treaty. The terms agreed upon were that Henry should have the title of regent and heir of France; but promised to maintain the French parliaments in their privileges, and to preserve the privileges of all individuals, and all the laws and customs of the realm of France. He further undertook to restore to the French king all cities, castles, etc., that had revolted from him, "being on the side called that of the Dauphin and of Armagnac"; Normandy and all parts and cities conquered by King Henry were to be restored to France as soon as Henry succeeded to the throne of France; Henry of England was to succeed on the next vacancy to the throne of France; the two crowns were to be for ever united; each realm was to have its own laws and government, and neither was to be in any way subject to the other; finally, Henry was forthwith to espouse Catherine, daughter of the King of France.

Sir C. Oman, "England and the Hundred Years' War," 1898.

Truro, Thomas Wilde, Lord (1782–1855). [Wilde.]

Tudor, The Family of, was of Welsh origin, Tudor being probably a corruption of Theodore. The first of the Tudors of whom we have individual knowledge was Owen Tudor (q.v.), a gentleman who fought during the Wars of the Roses on the Lancastrian side, and who married Catherine of Valois, the widow of Henry V. By her he had two sons, Edmund and Jasper, whom Henry VI created Earls of Richmond and Pembroke. The marriage of the Earl of Richmond with Margaret, daughter of John Beaufort, Earl of Somerset, who was the heiress of the illegitimate branch of the house of Lancaster, founded the fortunes of the race. As soon as the house of York became unpopular, Henry, Earl of Richmond, the son of Edmund, was adopted by the party of the Red Rose as the only possible candidate for the throne. When his second attempt to gain the throne was successful Henry became Henry VII, and was careful to confirm his dubious claims by marrying Elizabeth, the daughter of Edward IV, and to rule by a quasi-parliamentary title.

The character of Henry VII is, to a considerable extent, an enigma. He seems to have been regarded by his contemporaries with a mixture of hatred and admiration, the former called forth chiefly by the exactions of the last part of his reign. The central fact of his home policy is the systematic repression of the old nobility, already almost exterminated by the Wars of the Roses, and his continuance of the regime of personal government inaugurated by Edward IV. Abroad he trusted rather to diplomacy than to arms, and the cold, mysterious course of action which was adopted also by his contemporaries, Louis XI of France and Ferdinand the Catholic, of Aragon, gained for them the title of "the three Magi." The marriage of his daughter Margaret with James IV of Scotland was an instance of singular foresight. His other daughter, Mary, after marrying the decrepit Louis XII of France, was united with her old love Charles Brandon, Duke of Suffolk. One of her daughters was the mother of Lady Jane Grey; the heiresses of the others married into the great houses of Seymour and Stanley.

Few kings have been more popular at the time of their accession than the handsome and accomplished Henry VIII. His title was undisputed, and the able part which he soon began to play in foreign affairs still further aroused the national enthusiasm. He showed considerable ability in maintaining the balance of power in Europe, and by the aid of Wolsey was able to a great extent to play off the Empire against France, to the great advantage of England. The divorce question, with its momentous consequences, was the turning-point of the reign. Henry, always swayed by passion and impulse, was hurried, the nation apparently silently approving, into a rupture with the Papacy, and sweeping measures of ecclesiastical

reform, including the Act of Supremacy, and the destruction of the old system of monasticism. The Church aristocracy fell before him, as the landed aristocracy had fallen before his father, and on their ruins rose a new and subservient nobility. All this time Henry was sincerely Catholic; his hatred of Lutheranism, and his vigorous persecution of it when it appeared in England, were quite consistent with the publication of the ten articles of religion. During the latter part of his reign Henry was disliked by his subjects, and was conscious of that dislike. The courage with which he still confronted the formidable coalition of the emperor and the pope was not properly appreciated. Cromwell proved a more violently autocratic instrument than Wolsey had been; the king was vexed by agrarian revolts, and troubled by the failure of his marriage projects. During the last years of his life he was occupied chiefly in arranging the succession, and in alternately persecuting and protecting the parties of reaction and of reform.

The personality of young Edward, a sickly and precocious hothouse plant, is of comparatively little moment in the history of the house of Tudor. The brief reign divides itself into two periods: the first, during which the kingdom was under the uncertain guidance of the Protector Somerset, being marked by the violent advance of the Reformation and terminating in another agrarian revolt; the second being occupied by unprincipled intrigues for the management of the succession. The courage of Mary and the loyalty of the nation thwarted the schemes of Northumberland, and the Catholics of England, certainly a majority of the gentry, hailed with delight the accession of a sovereign who had suffered persecution and sorrow for the cause. It should not be forgotten that Mary did not begin by shedding blood. She spared Lady Jane Grey as long as she could, but her Tudor pride could brook no opposition, and the popular opposition to her marriage with Philip of Spain only made her the more bent on carrying out the project. By that miserable arrangement she wrecked her life. Her domestic life was utterly blighted. She was embroiled in a disastrous war with France, and finally she was induced by her advisers to enter upon a course of religious persecution, which has since unjustly come to be regarded as the chief, and perhaps only, feature of her reign.

It is impossible here to give more than the merest general outline of the character and policy of Elizabeth. From the first her attitude to Catholicism was perfectly consistent. With little real religious conviction, she was opposed to the Papacy from purely political motives, and the Acts of Supremacy and Uniformity were passed primarily as a reply to the denial by Paul IV of her right to succeed. From the same spirit she acted severely towards the Nonconformists; the pale of the English Church was to be as wide as possible, but no independence could be allowed outside it. In spite of her persecutions, Elizabeth was really tolerant. The whole history of her reign turns upon the religious question, and the religious question in turn upon the succession question. Mary of Scotland was put forward by Catholic Europe as the legitimist candidate for the throne, and Philip of Spain, with the Guises at his back, posed as her champion. Elizabeth was, therefore, forced, like her father, even though it was against her will, to abandon a trimming foreign policy, and to become the chief of the Protestant cause; and yet in the very crisis of the struggle we find her, partly from motives of parsimony, partly from excess of caution, and partly from Tudor reverence for royal authority, acting in disregard of her ministers, and starving the rebellions of the Netherlands and of the Huguenots no less than her own army and navy. It cannot be denied that in her struggle with the great tide of events which was finally stemmed by the Armada she was favoured by good fortune to an extraordinary degree. Her marriage coquetries nearly wrecked the vessel of State more than once, and her indecision in dealing with Mary Stuart aggravated a very grave crisis. Yet, with all her faults, Elizabeth is among the very greatest of the sovereigns of England. In her personal grace and culture of character, her patriotism, her despotic spirit, which yet understood so well the temper and the needs of the nation, she exemplifies the highest qualities of the family, to which, on the whole, Englishmen of later times owe a great debt of gratitude.

Brewer's "Henry VIII"; Bacon, "History of Henry VII"; Gairdner, "Memorials of Henry VII"; Noailles, "Ambassades en Angleterre"; Harrington, "Nugæ Antiquæ"; "Burghley State Papers"; A. F. Pollard, "Factors in Modern History," 1907 and 1926; and see articles HENRY VII, HENRY VIII, etc.

[L. C. S.]

Tudor, EDMUND, EARL OF RICHMOND (*d.* 1456), was the eldest son of Owen Tudor by Catherine, widow of Henry V. He was created Earl of Richmond in 1453, and married Margaret Beaufort, daughter and heiress of John, Duke of Somerset, by whom he had one son, afterwards Henry VII.

Tudor, JASPER (*c.* 1431–95), created Earl of Pembroke c. 1453, and Duke of Bedford at Henry VII's coronation, was the second son of Owen Tudor, and consequently an uncle of the founder of the Tudor dynasty. In the Wars of the Roses he played an active part among the Lancastrian leaders, and it was his defeat at Mortimer's Cross by Edward IV, then known as the Earl of March, that gave Edward the possession of London and the crown of England at the same time. During the Yorkist supremacy Jasper Tudor was an exile, sharing the perils of Henry of Richmond in France and Brittany. On his nephew's overthrow of Richard III he was entrusted with military commands of importance, as well as with such high offices as the lieutenancy of Calais and the lord-lieutenancy of Ireland. He fought against the rebels in 1486 and 1487 and joined the French expedition in 1492.

Tudor, Owen (*d.* 1461), claimed descent from Cadwallader, the last so-called King of Britain, but his origin is very obscure. He seems to have been the godson of Owen Glendower (q.v.), and he is said to have been one of the band of Welshmen who, under David Gam, fought at Agincourt. Henry V, according to this version, made him in reward one of the squires of his body. His handsome person gained him the love of Catherine, widow of Henry V, whom he secretly married about 1429. He was imprisoned in Newgate, whence, however, he escaped twice, and was subsequently received into favour by Henry VI. His wife died in 1437. He fought on the Lancastrian side in the Wars of the Roses, and was taken prisoner in the battle of Mortimer's Cross, carried to Hereford, and beheaded there. By his wife he had two sons, who played an important part in English history—Edmund, Earl of Richmond, father of Henry VII, and Jasper, Earl of Pembroke.

Tulchan Bishops, The, was a name given to the creatures of the Regent Morton, who were appointed to sees in accordance with the enactments of the Leith Convention (January 1572) and the Perth Assembly later in the same year. The commissioners at Leith were the mere dupes and tools of a rapacious court, and a strange, heterogeneous compound of popery, prelacy, and presbytery was authorized, by which the avaricious nobility imagined they had secured their long-cherished design of obtaining for themselves the real possession of the wealth of the Church. It was decided (though the true nature of the transaction was veiled as far as possible) that such valuable Church property could only be held by bishops, prelacy should continue, and creatures of the court should be appointed, who were to pay for their promotion by making over large portions of their temporalities to their patron, whoever he might be, who had procured their election. The new dignitaries quickly acquired the name of "Tulchan" bishops (from tulchan, a calf's skin stuffed with straw, which was used in the Highlands to induce cows who had lost their calves to give their milk readily), for "the bishop had the title, but my lord got the milk, or commoditie." "Every lord," says James Melville in his Diary, "got a bishopric, and sought and presented to the kirk such a man as would be content with least, and get them most of tacks, feus, and pensions."

R. H. Story (ed.), "History of the Church of Scotland," 5 vols., 1891; W. M. Hetherington, "History of the Church of Scotland," 1845.

Tulsi Bai (*d.* 1817) was the favourite concubine of Jeswunt Rao Holkar. During the insanity of the latter she carried on the government in conjunction with his chief minister, Baharam Sett. On his death in 1811 she adopted a son of his by another concubine, and conducted the government as regent. The army, however, was too large and turbulent for the state, and the revenue was totally unable to support them. They were therefore generally in a mutinous state, and at last drove the Bai to seek refuge in Kotah, by the threat of actual violence. Her amours and crimes embroiled her with Guffur Khan, the leader of the Patan horse, and in the warfare which followed she in person led her Mahratta horse with the most undaunted courage to the assault. Between these various factions the government of the Holkar state fell into complete anarchy, the administration being vested in the Bai nominally and all real power being in the hands of the military leaders. On the outbreak of Baji Rao (q.v.) in 1817 the chiefs assembled their forces, and determined to support the Peshwa, but Tulsi Bai opened negotiations with the British government, offering to place the young Holkar, and the Holkar state, under their protection. These proceedings being suspected, the chiefs seized and imprisoned her ministers, and she herself was put to death.

Tunnage and Poundage, a duty which, at first fluctuating, was eventually fixed at 3s. on every tun of wine, and 5 per cent. on all goods imported. It appears to have been first voted by the Commons in 1308. The original intention was that it should be applied to the protection of the merchant navy; and in Sir John Fortescue's scheme of reform we find that it was regarded as dedicated to that purpose. Nevertheless, the custom of voting the duty to the king for life, which was begun in the reign of Henry V, soon caused it to be looked upon as part of the royal revenue. Accordingly some indignation was not unreasonably excited in the court when, on the accession of Charles I, the Commons proceeded to vote it for one year only. The House of Lords rejected the bill on account of its innovating tendency, and Charles proceeded to try to levy the tax by royal authority, but the London merchants refused to pay it. A remonstrance was carried against this conduct in 1629, and, though Charles declared that tunnage and poundage was what he would not give away, and prorogued parliament in order to avoid receiving the remonstrance, he was compelled in the following year to consent to an act renouncing the power of levying the tax without the consent of parliament. In 1641 the prerogative of levying customs on merchandise was abolished by an act which granted tunnage and poundage for two months only. After the Restoration, tunnage and poundage was voted for life to Charles II and James II, but only for limited periods to William III. In the reign of Anne it was made perpetual, and applied to the diminution of the national debt. It was finally abolished by Pitt's Customs Consolidation Act of 1787.

Tunstall, Cuthbert (1474–1559), was made Bishop of London (1522) and afterwards of Durham (1530) by Henry VIII, who, after having employed him on various diplomatic missions, also named him in his will as one of the council of executors during the minority of

Edward VI. In 1547 he was excluded from the council for his opposition to the party of the Reformation, and was shortly afterwards sent to the Tower for the same reason, though the ostensible charge against him was complicity in the schemes of Somerset. In 1553 he was released by Mary, and appointed a commissioner to inquire into the condition of the Protestant bishops, though he appears to have been a lenient inquisitor. On the accession of Elizabeth, Tunstall was deprived of his bishopric for refusing to take the oath of supremacy.

Turkey, Relations with. [For relations between England and the earlier Turkish kingdoms see Crusades.] The dealings between England and the Ottoman Turks began during the reign of Elizabeth, when not only did commercial relations of some importance spring up, but the queen sought Ottoman assistance against the Spaniards. In 1579 three merchants (Harebone, Ellis, and Staple) visited Constantinople, and obtained for English merchants privileges equal to those of other countries. In 1583 Harebone became English ambassador to the Porte, and Elizabeth did not scruple in 1587 to invoke the aid of the Turks against the "idolatrous Spaniard and Pope." To these advances the Turks seem to have made no answer. Their state was already decaying, and Roe, James I's envoy, in 1622, tells emphatically how it had become "like an old body, crazed through many vices." During the seventeenth century a renewal of vigour gave the lie to Roe's prophecy of speedy dissolution, and Puritan England on the whole looked with favour on the power that checked the Catholic Austrians on the Danube, and so saved Protestant Germany. Louis XIV's alliance with Turkey, however, turned things the other way. Yet at the Congress of Carlowitz (1699) the English ambassador did his best to minimize the cessions of Turkish territory, and Sultan Ahmet III expressed his strong sense of gratitude for the efforts made by the English on his behalf. The general alliance between Great Britain and Russia during the early part of the eighteenth century involved us in some hostility to the Turks. The government of George III protected the Russian fleet, which in 1768 sailed to the help of the revolted Greeks, and its acquiescence in the partition of Poland implied approval of the aggressions against Turkey. During the Coalition ministry Fox acquiesced in the annexation of the Crimea (1783). At last Pitt inaugurated the policy of opposition to Russian aggression, and of consequent support to Turkey in her struggle against Catherine II and Joseph II. In 1807 Duckworth's disastrous expedition to Constantinople was designed to punish the alliance of Turkey and Napoleon. After the close of the Napoleonic war Britain's policy constantly tended to support Turkey as a necessary bulwark against Russia, but the difficulties created by Turkish misgovernment, and the impossibility of cordially supporting so effete a system, modified the general idea in practice, and Turkey, although helped, was never really treated as an independent power. The Greek insurrection nowhere excited more sympathy than in Great Britain; yet Great Britain, after Navarino (q.v.), drew back under Wellington, and, while giving Greece her liberty, limited her power and narrowed her frontiers. [Greece.] Similarly in 1832 Britain hesitated to help Sultan Mahmud II against Mehemet Ali, and then, after Russia had sent a force against the rebellious Egyptian, joined with that power and France in restraining his advances. In 1839 British support of Turkey, again attacked by Mehemet and Ibrahim, was more thorough and decisive. In 1840 Great Britain, Russia, Austria, and Prussia joined with Turkey in a treaty defining the terms of their intervention. A British fleet under Stopford and Napier bombarded Beyrut and Acre, and drove Ibrahim out of Syria. In 1854 Great Britain joined France in the Crimean War (q.v.) for the defence of Turkey; but the success of the allies could only postpone the decay of their protégé. In 1858 Britain recognized the practical independence of Rumania; yet in 1860 she assisted in maintaining order in Syria [Lebanon Question], and in 1867 in subduing Crete. In 1876–7 the Balkan insurrections and the situation created by the Russo-Turkish War brought into prominence again the question of the relations of Great Britain with the decaying State. Ultimately the Treaty of Berlin (q.v.) preserved European peace, while recognizing that the gradual reconstitution of the Turkish peninsula into autonomous Christian states was the only solution to the question. [T. F. T.]

This process of disintegration and reconstitution was accelerated by the recognition of Bulgarian independence (1896), the annexation of Bosnia and Herzegovina to Austria-Hungary (1908), and the annexation of Crete to Greece (1909–10). The tradition of Anglo-Ottoman friendship outlived the Balkan Wars, however. Great Britain welcomed the Young Turk Revolution of 1908, and joined with the powers in mediating between the Balkan League and Turkey in 1912–13. But the entry of Turkey into the World War on the side of Germany (November 1, 1914) automatically severed relations. It was followed by the Dardanelles campaign (q.v.—February 19, 1915—January 8, 1916), and the offensives under Maude and Allenby in Syria and Mesopotamia, culminating in the capture of Aleppo by the British on October 26, 1918. The Peace Conference at Paris neglected the Turkish problem, but Great Britain supported the Greek landing at Smyrna in May 1919 and the Greek offensive in Asia Minor, after the Treaty of Sèvres, in 1920. This attitude was reflected in a speech by Mr. Lloyd George on August 4, 1922. On the defeat of the Greeks (September) Lord Curzon took the initiative in inviting the Turks to a peace conference with the allies. The conference opened at Mudania (October 3) and led

ultimately to the Treaty of Lausanne (q.v.—July 24, 1923). An acute Anglo-Turkish controversy remained, in the question of Mosul and its oilfields. This was softened by the recognition of the Brussels Line (proposed by the League of Nations) in September 1924, and a settlement was made by the Anglo-Turkish-Iraqi Treaty of June 5, 1926, which included Mosul in Iraq.

J. A. R. Marriott, "The Eastern Question," 1917; W. Miller, "The Ottoman Empire and its Successors," 1923; A. J. Toynbee, "The Western Question in Greece and Turkey," 1922; Toynbee and Kirkwood, "Turkey," 1926; Proceedings of 35th Session of League of Nations (for Mosul). [A. C. F. B.].

Turk's Islands and Caicos (or Keys) are geographically part of the Bahamas and a dependency of Jamaica. The name derives from the turban-like appearance of an indigenous cactus. Visited annually from 1678 by Bermudian salt-rakers, the settlements later became permanent. Expelled by Spaniards in 1710, the British returned and resisted counter-claims from both France and Spain until in 1765, after a French outrage, the Islands were recognized as part of the Bahamas and from 1799 were given representation in the Assembly. In 1848, on petition, they were made a separate colony with a president appointed by the Crown and a council of eight, half of whom were elected, under the supervision of the governor of Jamaica, to which island they were annexed in 1873, owing to financial disabilities, to be governed by a resident commissioner and a legislative board of five nominated by the governor of Jamaica.

For authorities see under Jamaica.

Tutbury, in Staffordshire, twenty miles from Stafford, was granted by William the Conqueror to Hugh d'Avranches, who built the castle. The Ferrers held it until 1266, when it was forfeited and given to Edmund Crouchback, Earl of Lancaster. In 1322 it was garrisoned against Edward II by Thomas, Earl of Lancaster, but surrendered. In 1350 John of Gaunt rebuilt the castle for his wife's residence. In 1569 Mary, Queen of Scots, was imprisoned there, under the charge of the Earl of Shrewsbury, but after a few months (February 3—May) was removed to Chatsworth. In 1585 she was again brought back to Tutbury (January 13), in charge of Sir Amyas Paulet, and remained there until her removal to Chartley (December). Tutbury was frequently visited by James I and Charles I, for the latter of whom it was garrisoned by Lord Loughborough in the Civil War. It was taken (1646) and dismantled (1647) by the Parliamentary troops under Brereton.

Sir O. Mosley, "History of Tutbury," 1832; "Victoria County History: Staffordshire."

Twenge, Robert de, a knight of Yorkshire, organized a secret society in the year 1232, the object of which was to prevent the intrusion of foreigners into English benefices. Under his leadership masked men went about the country seizing the foreign ecclesiastics, pillaging their barns, and giving the corn to the poor. These doings were openly connived at by many of the leading men in the kingdom, and when in 1239 Twenge went to Rome he took with him letters from the chief men in the realm remonstrating against the papal aggression. The pope was obliged to yield, and promised never again to interfere with the rights of patrons, but the promise was not kept long, as soon afterwards we find Grosseteste and others complaining of the number of Italians holding benefices in England. Twenge's subsequent history is obscure. He probably went with Richard of Cornwall to Palestine and was later employed on various diplomatic missions. He died about 1268.

Tyler's Rebellion. [Peasant's Revolt.]

Tyndale, William (*d.* 1536), the translator of the Bible, was a student at both Oxford and Cambridge, and at the latter University probably came under the influence of Erasmus. While tutor in the family of Sir John Walsh, in Gloucestershire, he translated the "Enchiridion" of Erasmus, and for that, and his known anti-clerical views, fell under the displeasure of the bishop. In 1523 he went to London and tried to obtain assistance for his projected translation of the Bible. Failing to do so, however, he sailed for Hamburg (1524) and there printed his first two Gospels. During the rest of his life he kept himself for the most part in retirement, in company with his friend John Frith, his head-quarters being at Antwerp, where he was befriended by English merchants. In 1529 the printing of Lutheran books was prohibited by a treaty between Henry VIII and the governors of the Netherlands. At length he was seized, at the instigation of Henry, when he went beyond the liberties of Antwerp, and was burnt by the order of the emperor. The first part of the quarto edition of his translation of the New Testament reached England in 1525; the Pentateuch, in which he was assisted by Miles Coverdale, in 1530; and four editions of his New Testament were printed at Antwerp in 1534. About forty editions were afterwards published.

Biographies by R. Demans, 1904, and W. B. Cooper, 1924.

Tyrconnel, Richard Talbot, Earl of (1630–91). [Talbot.]

Tyrconnel, Rory O'Donnell, 1st Earl of (1575–1608). [O'Donnell.]

Tyrell, Sir James (*d.* 1502), was popularly supposed to have murdered the young princes Edward V and Richard, Duke of York, in the Tower. The charge, however, is not definitely proved, and was not brought forward until after Tyrell's execution as a confederate of the Earl of Suffolk. The confession which he is alleged to have made on the eve of his execution is embodied in the "Historie of Kyng Richarde the Thirde."

J. Gairdner, "Richard III," 1878 and 1898.

Tyrone, Earls of. [O'Neill.]

Tyrrell, or TIREL, SIR WALTER, is generally credited with having accidentally slain William Rufus in the New Forest (August 2, 1100). Tyrrell himself denied the charge, but the facts that his name appears as the murderer in almost all the authorities for this period, and that he immediately fled across sea, seem to point to him as the actual homicide.

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Uchtred of Galloway, the son of Fergus, joined his brother Gilbert in revolt against William the Lion (1174). A few months later he was murdered by his nephew Malcolm, at the instigation of Gilbert.

Udall, JOHN (1560 ?–1592), a Puritan minister, was tried for the publication of "A Demonstration of Discipline," as "a libel on the person of the queen, because it inveighed against the government of the Church established by her authority." Udall was condemned to death, but was spared at the intercession of Sir Walter Ralegh. He died in prison (June 1592) after his pardon had been made out.

Uganda. [EAST AFRICA, BRITISH DOMINIONS IN.]

Uhtred, the son of Earl Waltheof, defeated the Scots under Malcolm towards the commencement of the eleventh century, and thus saved the city of Durham (1006). For this he was rewarded with the earldom of both Deira and Bernicia. In 1013 he submitted to Sweyn, but in the course of the same year joined Edmund, only, however, to submit once more to Canute when that king gained the upper hand (1016). Uhtred was murdered at the instigation of his old enemy Thurbrand (1016).

Ulf, Bishop of Dorchester, succeeded Eadnoth in the year 1049, much to the disgust of the Englishmen, who considered him utterly unfit for the office, and loathed him as a Norman. When Godwin returned in 1052 he fled, sword in hand, from London, and crossed over to the continent, and was deprived of his see. He is spoken of as the bishop "who did nought bishop-like."

Ulf, EARL (*d.* circ. 1025), is sometimes credited with having been instrumental in securing the rise of Godwin, who married his sister Gytha. His wife was Estrith, Canute's sister, and for some years he acted as Canute's regent in Denmark; but notwithstanding this relationship, he was put to death by this king, in circumstances of peculiar atrocity, somewhere about the year 1025.

Ulfcytel, ealdorman of the East Angles, led the men of his province against Sweyn in 1004. His prowess was so conspicuous as to earn him the warm commendation of his antagonists, although they were ultimately victorious. In 1010 he was defeated at Ringmere, and six years later he met his death at the battle of Assandun (1016).

Ulster, THE KINGDOM AND PROVINCE OF, appears to have been first colonized, at an unknown period, by Picts of Celtic origin. The great race movements which culminated in the formation of the over-kingship of Meath by Tuathal [MEATH] affected the south rather than the north of Ireland; but during the first half of the fourth century we find some of his descendants invading Ulster from Meath with the countenance of the *ard ri* (over-king), and winning for themselves the land of Uriel. They were followed, during the reign of Niall "of the nine hostages" by other cadets of the reigning family, who became princes of Tyrconnel and Tyrone. With the arrival of St. Patrick, in the first half of the fifth century, Ulster, which had lagged somewhat behind the rest of Ireland, received an extraordinary impetus, and became a centre whence large numbers of missionaries, chief of whom was St. Columba, issued forth to Britain and northern Europe. Ulster offered a rather more vigorous resistance to the invading Vikings than did the rest of Ireland, and we find Murtogh O'Neill, about the middle of the tenth century, making a triumphant circuit of Ireland. During the anarchy which preceded the Anglo-Norman invasion the kings of Ulster were engaged in a long and arduous struggle with their Munster rivals, and Murtogh O'Loughlin, of the house of O'Neill, twice succeeded for a brief period in making himself over-king of Ireland (comparatively 1148 and 1156). Ulster suffered little from the first invasion, and though Henry granted the province to de Courcy, he only succeeded in grasping a strip of land near Downpatrick. John, however, resumed the grant, and gave it to a younger member of the de Lacy family, through whose daughter and heiress it passed into the de Burgh family. After the murder of William, the 3rd Earl of Ulster, in 1333, his heiress married Lionel, Duke of Clarence, and the earldom thus passed through females to the house of Mortimer, and to Richard, Earl of Cambridge, the grandfather of Edward IV, with whom it became vested in the Crown. In the thirteenth century Ulster was practically independent. The English possessions were confined to the outskirts of Down, Antrim, and Fermanagh, and a town or two in Donegal. The invasion of the Bruces in 1315 was followed by the loss of even these paltry districts, and the O'Neills did what they pleased in Ulster before the accession of the Tudors. Under Henry VII Turlough O'Donnell and Conn O'Neill were disposed to be friendly to the Crown; the descendants of the latter chieftain became Earls of Tyrconnel, while the former was made Earl of Tyrone. When the first attempt to introduce the reformed doctrines was made the primacy was transferred from Dublin to Armagh, where the O'Neills could protect it. The power of that race, however,

was soon to be broken. The earldom of Tyrone was conferred by the government on Conn's bastard son Matthew, to the exclusion of his legitimate son Shane. The latter was, however, chosen chief by the tribe, and, having murdered his brother, maintained his rights against the lord-lieutenant, Sussex, partly by arms and partly by intrigue. For a while he was allowed to administer Ulster as "captain of Tyrone," and used the opportunity to oppress the O'Donnells and the M'Donnells, Scottish settlers in Antrim. These tribes promptly espoused the side of the new lord deputy, Sir Henry Sydney (1586), and Shane, out-manœuvred, was defeated and put to death by the M'Donnells. The earldom was granted to Matthew's son Hugh in 1587, and he was soon afterwards placed in possession of the territory. An able man, he formed a coalition, which relied on Spanish aid, of all the northern chiefs, together with the pretender to the honours of Kildare, against the English, and from 1595 to 1603 he waged a life-and-death struggle with the Crown, terminating in his submission on honourable terms. The province was, however, utterly ruined, and in the following reign he and his kinsman, the Earl of Tyrconnel, fled from Ireland in fear of the designs of the government. Six counties were thereupon declared to be forfeited to the Crown, the minor chiefs were driven out on one pretence or another, and James I set to work on the Plantation of Ulster (q.v.), which was made with scientific precision [on the basis of the unsuccessful shiring begun by Lord Deputy Sir John Perrot in 1585], and was in consequence a success (1608). Wentworth oppressed Ulster hardly less than the rest of Ireland, and he was especially severe on the Scottish Presbyterians. With the outbreak of the rebellion of 1641, Catholic Ulster at once sprang to arms under the brutal Sir Phelim O'Neill, who was afterwards superseded by Owen Roe O'Neill (q.v.), a trained soldier. The latter in 1646 gained a considerable victory over Monro at Benburb (q.v.), but the Irish parties began quarrelling among themselves, and Cromwell's work was easy. After the massacre of Drogheda the chief towns of Ulster surrendered one after another, and the rebellion in that district was rapidly stamped out by Coote, the Protector's subordinate. By the Cromwellian settlement the remaining Catholic gentry were transplanted into Connaught, or shipped to Barbados; the Presbyterians also of Down and Antrim, who had shown Royalist sympathies, were compelled to migrate to Munster. Of the lands thus vacated Antrim, Down, and Armagh were partitioned between adventurers and soldiers, and the rest of Ulster was colonized by the soldiers, who were allowed to remain practically undisturbed after the Restoration, though the Presbyterians suffered considerable persecution under the last of the Stuarts. Hence it can hardly be wondered at that after the Revolution the Protestants of Ireland should have chosen Ulster as the spot on which to make a stand, and that Londonderry and Enniskillen should have held out against James II. From that time forward Ulster remained distinct in character from the rest of Ireland. It was more prosperous, a valuable linen industry having been founded there by Huguenot refugees under William III, which a narrow mercantile policy was not able wholly to destroy, and which revived when in 1779 the Volunteers won free trade for Ireland. It was also emphatically Protestant, in spite of the persecution of the Presbyterians, who fled in large numbers across the Atlantic. Lastly it was emphatically loyal, though it was frequently disturbed by turbulent associations such as the Whiteboys (q.v.), Peep-o'-day Boys (q.v.), Orangemen, and the like, and though the United Irishmen of 1798, and the Fenians of a later date, drew recruits from Belfast and Londonderry almost as freely as from Cork or from Limerick. After the Union the condition of Ulster was on the whole peaceful and prosperous; but the Repeal agitation, and the Home Rule movement (in which the Ulster Protestants were on the side of England and the English connexion), perpetuated the distinction between it and the rest of Ireland. [For later history see IRELAND; IRELAND, NORTHERN.]

For authorities see articles on Connaught, Leinster, and Munster. Among works especially concerning Ulster may be mentioned Petty, "History of the Down Survey"; J. P. Prendergast, "Cromwellian Settlement," 1870, and "Tory War of Ulster"; Shirley, "History of Monaghan"; Reid, "History of the Presbyterian Church in Ireland"; G. Hill, "The Plantation in Ulster," 1877; R. Colles, "History of Ulster," 4 vols., 1920. [L. C. S.]

Ulster, THE PLANTATION OF (1608–11). The troubles of the early years of the seventeenth century, the flight of Tyrconnel and Tyrone, and other rebellions, had resulted in the forfeiture of a very large part of Ulster to the Crown. In 1608 a commission was appointed to consider what should be done with these large estates, and proposed to colonize the whole district with "retired civil and military servants," and with colonists from England and Scotland. Sir Arthur Chichester would have left the Irish in possession of their own territories, and only settled the new-comers here and there by agreement with them; but the commissioners recommended that large tracts should be completely handed over to the colonists, and taken away from the old inhabitants. In 1609 the scheme was ready. The escheated lands were divided into portions consisting of 1,000, 1,500, and 2,000 acres, and each large proprietor was bound to build a castle on his estate, and was forbidden to alienate his lands to Irishmen. Six counties were to be treated in this way —Tyrone, Coleraine, Donegal, Fermanagh, Cavan, and Armagh—and the natives were as a rule to be confined to the parts assigned to landholders of their own race, though in some cases they were allowed to remain on the grounds of the new-comers. Chichester, who was entrusted with the carrying out of these schemes, found himself in face of terrible difficulties, and

could not secure that the natives should be treated with fairness and consideration. In 1610 he visited Ulster for the purpose of removing the Irish, and had to leave double garrisons behind him on his departure. In 1611 the work progressed better. The City of London had founded the colony of Derry, and everywhere things began to look more prosperous. It was even found possible to reduce the number of the troops. According to the original scheme, the division of the forfeited lands was to be as follows:—150,000 acres were to go to the English and Scottish "Undertakers" (q.v.)—who could have no Irish tenants; 45,500 acres to the servitors of the Crown in Ireland, with permission to have either Irish or English tenants; while 70,000 acres were to be left in the hands of the natives.

R. Bagwell, "Ireland Under the Stuarts," vol. i, 1909.

Ulster, Earls of. [Mortimer.]

Ulster Massacre, The (1641). The Irish rebellion of October 1641 began with a sudden attack on the English settlers in Ulster, and their violent expulsion from their holdings. According to the statement of Sir John Temple, 300,000 persons were destroyed between 1641 and the cessation of arms in 1643, of whom 150,000 perished in the first two months. Clarendon states that 40,000 or 50,000 of the English Protestants were "murdered before they suspected themselves to be in any danger or could provide for their defence." Other contemporary authorities give equally high figures. Lecky affirmed that the figure of 300,000 exceeds by nearly a third the estimated number of Protestants in the whole island, and was computed to be more than ten times the number of Protestants that were living outside walled towns in which no massacre took place. Gardiner, while denying that there was any general massacre, or that the English were put to the sword in a body, considered that about 4,000 persons were put to death in cold blood and about twice that number perished in consequence of the privation caused by their expulsion. Later research declares that the number of victims cannot be definitely ascertained.

S. R. Gardiner, "History of England," vol. x; Lecky, "England in the Eighteenth Century," vol. ii.; Prendergast, "Cromwellian Settlement in Ireland"; R. Bagwell, "Ireland Under the Stuarts," vol. i, 1909.

Umbeyla Campaign, The. A fanatic conspiracy broke out in 1863 among the Sittana and other Afghan hill tribes. General Neville Chamberlain was unsuccessful against them, and was badly wounded in a battle near Umbeyla. Sir Hugh Rose then advanced against them, and General Garnock successfully assaulted Umbeyla and captured Mulka. On Christmas Day, 1863, the force retired, and the war was at an end.

Umritsar. [Amritsar.]

Underhill, Edward (*d.* c. 1560), known as the "Hot Gospeller," was a zealous Puritan, and one of the leaders of the insurgents in the western rebellion of 1549. He was imprisoned in Newgate by Queen Mary, whom he subsequently served during Wyatt's Rebellion (1553).

Undertakers, The, sometimes called Adventurers, were English gentlemen, chiefly from Devonshire, who undertook to keep possession of the lands forfeited to the Crown in Ireland, or of lands which, though nominally the property of Englishmen, had been allowed to fall into Irish hands. The first attempt was made by a natural son of Sir Thomas Smith, in Ulster, about the year 1572; again by the Earl of Essex in 1573; but the result in both cases was failure. A similar attempt made by Sir Peter Carew and St. Leger in Munster resulted in the outbreak of the great Geraldine rebellion (1579–82). After its suppression the attempt was renewed; but this time the government insisted on conditions to be observed by the Adventurers; of which the principal were, that an English or Scottish family was to be settled on every 240 acres, and that no Irish tenants were to be admitted. But the "Undertakers," among whom were Sir Walter Ralegh and Edmund Spenser, observed neither condition. Hence when O'Neill's revolt broke out (1596) they had to flee. In the beginning of James I's reign, however, they came back again in greater numbers.

R. Bagwell, "Ireland Under the Tudors," vol. ii, 1885.

Undertakers, The, of 1614. When in 1614 James I, crippled by a debt which amounted to £680,000, had determined to call a fresh parliament, Sir Henry Neville (*d.* 1615) and certain others offered to undertake that the House of Commons then to be elected would grant the king the large supplies of which he stood so greatly in need. Others engaged to secure the return of members whose views were strongly in favour of the royal prerogatives. The people by whose means the votes of the House were to be won over to meet the royal wishes were called by the name of Undertakers, but appear to have been men of little influence. James's best counsellors—Bacon, for example—were from the first distrustful of the scheme, and the king himself, in his opening speech, disowned his connexion with the Undertakers. Again, seven years later, he referred to them as "a strange kind of beasts, called Undertakers—a name which in my nature I abhor."

Uniformity, The First Act of (January 15, 1549), was passed in spite of the opposition of some of the bishops. It ordered the use of the "Book of Common Prayer" by all ministers on penalty of forfeiture of stipend and six months' imprisonment, with heavier punishment for second and third offences. Learned persons were, however, permitted to use Latin, Greek, or even Hebrew for their own private advantage; while university chapels might hold all services (except the Communion) in the same tongue

" for the further encouraging of learning." It was this act which led in great measure to the rebellion in the West of England in this year.

—— The Second Act of (1552), prohibited under pain of forfeiting goods and chattels for the first offence, of a year's imprisonment for the second, and of imprisonment during life for the third, the use by a minister, whether beneficed or not, of any but the established liturgy; and imposed a fine of one shilling on all who should absent themselves from church on Sundays and holy days. It also confirmed the revised " Book of Common Prayer," established by Edward VI, 1552, and inflicted heavy penalties on all who should make a mock of the new service, interrupt the minister, or have any other form used in church.

—— The Third Act of (April 28, 1559), was passed as a measure separate from the Elizabethan Act of Supremacy, after stormy debates in both Houses during March when the two measures were combined. The third reading in the Lords was carried by a slender majority of three. The act legalized the Prayer Book of 1552 (q.v.), and revived the Act of Uniformity prohibiting any other service.

—— The Fourth Act of (May 19, 1662), was passed after the Restoration. This act, after declaring that a universal agreement in the matter of public worship was conducive to the peace of the nation, bade all ministers in churches within the realm of England and Wales to use the revised " Book of Common Prayer," and read the morning and evening prayers therein. All parsons, etc., holding any benefice, were publicly to read and declare their assent to the same book by St. Bartholomew's Day (August 24, 1662), and if they refused were to be deprived of their livings. For the future all people presented to any benefice were to make a similar declaration. Every incumbent was to read the service publicly at least once a month, under pain of a fine of £5. Every dean, university reader, parson, or schoolmaster or private tutor, was to make declaration as to the unlawfulness of bearing arms against the king on any pretence whatever, and to deny the binding force of the Solemn League and Covenant. Schoolmasters and tutors were not to teach before obtaining a licence from the bishop or archbishop in whose diocese they were. No one who had not been episcopally ordained was to hold a benefice after St. Bartholomew's Day, 1662. Heads of colleges and lecturers were to subscribe to the Thirty-nine Articles, and declare their assent to the " Book of Common Prayer." In consequence of this act more than 2,000 ministers resigned their preferments.

Union Group. [New Zealand, Dominion of.]

Union of England and Ireland (1800–1921). After the suppression of the rebellion of 1798 the Union had come to be recognized, not only in England, but also by many of the Irish, as a necessary measure if only in order to save Ireland from itself. But the interests of the country did not outweigh the interests of individuals, and these latter were determined not to allow their own interests to be overlooked in the general well-being of the country. It at once became clear that the opposition of interested individuals would be fatal to the scheme, unless they were bought off. The British government accordingly set about the gigantic scheme of purchasing the Irish boroughs. Seats were paid for at the rate of £750 each, nor did the total sum paid as compensation for consent to the scheme amount to less than one million and a quarter. " Peers were further compensated for the loss of their privilege in the national council by profuse promises of English peerages, or promotion in the peerage of Ireland. Commoners were conciliated by new honours, and by the largesses of the British government. Places were given or promised; pensions multiplied; secret service money exhausted." At length, by this wholesale system of political jobbery, the consent of the Irish parliament was obtained (March 28) in spite of a few patriots who still protested against " the sale of the liberties and free constitution of Ireland." The settlement of the terms of the Union (39 and 40 Geo. III, c. 67) did not occupy a long time. The royal assent was given on August 1. " Ireland was to be represented in parliament by four spiritual lords sitting in rotation of sessions, by twenty-eight temporal peers elected for life by the Irish peerage, and by a hundred members of the House of Commons." The pledge to redress Catholic grievances, which had silenced the opposition of that portion of the community, had to wait thirty years for fulfilment, owing chiefly to the scruples of George III. But the restrictions on Irish commerce were removed, and her laws were administered with more justice and impartiality. The established Church of Ireland was declared one with the Church of England. The debts of the two countries were to be kept separate for twenty years. A new great seal and a new royal standard were made; the king's new title was proclaimed on January 1, 1801 (the words " King of France " being omitted); and the first session of the united parliament opened on January 22, 1801. No further change occurred until 1921, when the Irish Free State was established with a parliament of its own. [Irish Free State; Ireland, Northern.]

Sir Erskine May, " Constitutional History," ed. F. Holland, 1912; T. D. Ingram, " The Legislative Union of Great Britain and Ireland," 1890.

Union of England and Scotland. For a century after the union of the crowns the two countries continued entirely separate kingdoms, with separate parliaments. The attempt of James I and Bacon at legislative unity [United Kingdom] proved unsuccessful. Under Cromwell the two nations had been for a time united under one legislature (1654), but that union was severed at the Restoration, and Scotland replaced on the same indepen-

dent footing as before. But after the Revolution it was seen that this state of things could not continue, and that as the two countries were now one in interest and in speech, they must also become one in law. The wisdom of William III showed him the necessity of a complete amalgamation of his two kingdoms, but his death cut short his plans for carrying it out. Religious and commercial jealousies were still further impediments. The religious difficulty was an internal obstacle in Scotland itself. The hatred between the contending sects of Episcopacy and Presbyterianism had been fostered by the persecutions of the Restoration, and now each sect wished to be in the ascendant, and neither could brook the toleration of the other. The commercial difficulty lay between the two countries, and showed that the old feeling of hostility between them was not extinguished, and might on slight provocation again burst into flame. The English grudged the Scots the advantages of an equal share of the trade with the colonies, and the Scots refused to bear their part of the national debt. The Scottish Act of Security of 1703 (replied to by the Alien Act of 1704) showed only too plainly the unsatisfactory state of public feeling. From this act the name of the Princess Sophia, the acknowledged heiress of the English throne, was omitted, and the proviso was made that no sovereign of England should be acknowledged in Scotland without giving full security for the preservation of the religious and trading liberties of that country. Jealousy of their country's independence led the Whigs to make common cause with the Jacobites, and in case of the queen's death there was great danger of both uniting in an effort for the restoration of the Stuarts. It was clear that a union was the only possible means of allaying the apprehension of a civil war. That the union was accomplished so successfully was due to the management of Somers, and to the realization by the Scots that independence might be more burdensome than union. The Scottish proposal that the union should be federal was set aside, and it was resolved that as the two nations had virtually become one people, united by community of interests, so they should now become one in point of law, and as they already had one and the same sovereign, so they should have one and the same legislature. Commissioners from both kingdoms were empowered to collect information on which a Treaty of Union could be based. The resultant treaty was thus a real contract between England and Scotland, passed in Scotland and in England separately, and assented to by Anne first as Queen of Scotland and then as Queen of England. The chief provisions of these articles were that on May 1, 1707, England and Scotland should be united in one kingdom, bearing the name of Great Britain; that the succession to the crown of Scotland should be in all points the same as had been settled for England; that the United Kingdom should be represented by one parliament; that thenceforward there should be community of rights and privileges between the two kingdoms, except where otherwise agreed upon by the parliament; that all standards of coin, weights, and measures in Scotland should be assimilated to those of England; that the laws of trade, customs, and excise should be the same in both countries; that all other laws of Scotland should remain unchanged, but with the provision that they might be altered in time to come at the discretion of the united parliament. To these articles was added an Act of Security for the maintenance of the Scottish Church and the four universities. This act required each sovereign on his or her accession to take an oath to protect the Presbyterian Church as the established Church of Scotland. The whole judicial machinery for the administration of the Scottish law system remained untouched, but henceforward there would be a possibility of appeal from the decisions of the Court of Sessions to the House of Lords. In the parliament of Great Britain Scotland was to be represented by 45 members sent up by the Commons, and 16 peers elected by their fellows as representatives of the peerage of Scotland. The Articles of Union received the royal assent, and the first parliament of Great Britain met on October 23, 1707. The act contained both revolutionary and conservative features, and was at first everywhere unpopular. England feared it would inordinately increase parliamentary corruption and the power of the party in office: Scotland feared it would lead to interference with her institutions and laws. Actual resistance to it was to come in the Jacobite risings and the Porteous Riots (q.v.). But the success of the Union has been almost without a parallel, and Scottish nationalism has lived.

J. Mackinnon, "The Union of 1707," 1896; A. V. Dicey and R. S. Rait, "Thoughts on the Union of England and Scotland," 1920; P. Hume Brown, "Legislative Union of England and Scotland," 1914.

Union of South Africa. [SOUTH AFRICA, UNION OF.]

United Free Church of Scotland. [FREE CHURCH OF SCOTLAND.]

United Irishmen, THE. The plan on which this society was afterwards constituted was sketched by Russel and Wolfe Tone (q.v.). Its object was to be the establishment of the "rights of man," and correspondence with the Jacobin Club in Paris and the English Revolution Society. Reform and Catholic emancipation were to be among its immediate objects. On July 14, 1791, it was organized, but its first actual meeting took place at the Eagle in Dublin on November 9. Hamilton Rowan (q.v.) and Wolfe Tone were the leaders; James Napper Tandy (q.v.) was secretary. After the French victories in 1792 they began openly to talk of rebellion, and raised a national guard.

The meeting of the Catholic committee was thought to be the signal of war; but Fitz-Gibbon declaring the national guard illegal, only three men assembled in defiance of his proclamation. In the north the society made much show in green uniforms, but were disarmed in 1793. An attempt at a representative assembly was foiled by the Convention Bill. In 1794 they again began secretly to prepare for revolt. Their organization, now secret, consisted of county committees, baronial committees, and elementary bodies, with an executive directory of five members at their head. The heads of these bodies were changed fortnightly, and they only dealt with and knew of their immediate superiors. They had about a million members, but the very perfection of their organization was its great fault, as the seizure of a few leaders would paralyse the whole body. One of their chief schemes was to debauch the fidelity of the Dublin garrison, and though they were unsuccessful in this, the militia were almost entirely theirs. In 1796 Hoche, whom Lord Edward Fitzgerald and O'Connor went to see, promised them French help, and they boasted at that time that they could muster 200,000 men. The seizure of Keogh in Dublin, and of others in Belfast, however, paralysed them, and when the French were at Bantry the country remained quiet. In 1797 they had reorganized themselves, but General Lake, by disarming Ulster, again disabled them. This last step was taken in consequence of the report of a secret committee of the House of Commons; and at the same time a free pardon was promised to all the United Irishmen who surrendered before June 24. The Dublin men refused to rise at once, and in consequence the men of Ulster submitted. In 1798 the Catholics, with the concurrence of the Dublin committee, prepared to rise, but again the arrest of their leaders disconcerted their plans.

W. E. H. Lecky, "Ireland in the Eighteenth Century," vol. iv, ed. 1892; J. A. Froude, "English in Ireland," 1872–4 and 1895.

United Kingdom. The adoption by James I of the title "King of Great Britain" instead of "of England and Scotland" was part of his wider plan of bringing about complete union between the two kingdoms. As early as April 1604 the English parliament was asked to consent to the change of style. But fears were expressed lest the laws and liberties of England might not hold good in the new realm of Britain, and the Commons urged that some agreement as to the terms of the union should precede the assumption of the title. James yielded to the advice of Cecil, and deferred the change. Bacon, in "Considerations Touching the Union," which he laid before the king in the autumn, suggested that it would be better to proceed by proclamation: "the two difficulties are point of honour and love to the former names, and the doubt lest the alteration may induce and involve an alteration in the laws and policies of the kingdom. Both which, if your majesty shall assume the style by proclamation and not by parliament, are satisfied; for then the usual names must needs remain in writs and records, the forms whereof cannot be altered but by act of parliament, and so the point of honour satisfied. And, again, your proclamation altered no law, and so the scruple of a tacit or implied alteration of laws likewise satisfied." Accordingly on October 20 James issued a proclamation: "As an imperial monarchy of these two great kingdoms doth comprehend the whole island, so it shall keep in all ensuing ages the united denomination of the invincible monarchy of Great Britain, and, therefore, by the force of our royal prerogative we assume to ourselves the style and title of King of Great Britain, France, and Ireland . . . to be used in all proclamations, missives, treaties, leagues, dedications, &c."; and the inscription "J. D. G. Mag. Brit. F. et H. R." was placed on the coinage. James was, however, balked in his attempt to bring about union, and the title only received parliamentary sanction at the union with Scotland in 1707. By the Act of Union (with Ireland), 39 & 40 Geo. III, c. 67 (July 1800), the kingdoms of Great Britain and Ireland were constituted the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, which has remained the official designation. The establishment of the Irish Free State in 1921 did not involve a change in the title, though the phrase "Great Britain and Northern Ireland" was still used in official documents. But the proposals of the Imperial Conference of October 1926 included the omission of the words "United Kingdom" from the king's title.

For the measures of James see Gardiner's "History of England," i, 177. [W. J. A.]

United Provinces of Agra and Oudh. [Oudh.]

United States of America, Relations with, began with the recognition of the United States by Great Britain in 1783. The War of Independence, hastened by the Stamp Act of 1765 and the question of "no taxation without representation," had sprung from causes far deeper: notably the mercantile system, under which the aim of the British commercial regulations had been to strengthen the empire and foster imperial shipping, but which had been galling to the colonists; the removal of the French danger by the Seven Years' War, which left the colonies free to refuse any contribution towards the increased measures for imperial defence necessitated by the enlargement of the British Empire resulting from the Treaty of Paris (q.v.—1763); and the American spirit of freedom engendered by years of virtual self-government. Britain was in the right in attempting to tax the colonies, but the Grenville policy was inexpedient and inimical to conciliation, as Burke maintained. The Declaration of Independence was issued

on July 4, 1776; the colonists prospered in the war by reason of French help and the leadership of Washington (q.v.); their independence was recognized in the Treaty of Versailles (q.v.—September 1783); and in 1787 the American constitution was drafted with Washington as president.

Washington pursued a moderate policy towards Great Britain in the questions left unsettled by the peace. And when the outbreak of the French Revolutionary War led in 1793 to an order in council for the seizure of all vessels carrying provisions to the French West Indies (which injured the United States in virtue of Washington's treaty with France), the president sent John Jay to London in 1794 to negotiate a commercial treaty, in the face of bitter American opposition. Friction recurred, however, through the institution of blockades by Britain and France, and through the British assertion of the right of search and the impressment of deserters from the navy. The American War of 1812–14 (q.v.) was declared by the United States only a few days before the withdrawal of the obnoxious order in council. But by the Peace of Ghent no question in dispute was settled.

After 1815 Great Britain and the United States adopted parallel policies towards the revolted Spanish-American colonies; but, as Castlereagh feared, the United States recognized the independence of the colonies first (1821). The Monroe Doctrine (q.v.—1823), which settled United States policy for a century to come, was welcomed by Canning, whose sympathy with it was revealed in the Polignac Memorandum of October 1823, and in his recognition of the colonies in December 1824. But the next few years produced a diplomatic contest, Great Britain striving to secure in Latin-America not exclusive trade privileges, but the prestige of a disinterested and powerful friend, and to break down the wall between America and Europe built by John Adams and strengthened by the Monroe Doctrine. This policy was reflected in Canning's attendance (in the person of E. J. Dawkins) at the Panama Congress of 1826. Thereafter boundary disputes came to the fore; exemplified in Peel's Ashburton Treaty of 1842 (q.v.) and the Oregon Treaty of 1846 (q.v.), which gave Vancouver to Canada. Four years later the problem of the connexion between the Atlantic and Pacific coasts of America, and the influence of the British Central American possessions on the United States project for a Panama Canal, led to the negotiation of the Clayton-Bulwer Treaty of 1850 (q.v.).

During the American Civil War (1861–4) the two governments came perilously near to hostilities. The first step was Lincoln's institution in 1861 of a blockade which he could not enforce; and the difference which arose was aggravated by a cleavage between London and Washington on the question of Free Trade *v.* Protection, by the sympathy of Tory and of some Liberal opinion in England for the Southern States, and by the English cotton famine brought on by the blockade. British opinion veered round in favour of the North, however, as the question of slavery came to predominate. The gravest moments of diplomatic tension were in late 1861, on the sailing of Slidell and Mason in the *Trent* (q.v.), and in the summer of 1862 on the sailing of the *Alabama* [Geneva Award]; the latter of which incidents ended in a triumph for the principle of international arbitration.

Relations were thereafter uneventful, save for the Washington Treaty of 1871 (q.v.) and the San Juan Award of 1872 (q.v.), until the Sackville incident of 1888, when Sackville, an Englishman, interfered in the presidential election, and a wave of feeling which swept over Great Britain was intensified by Lord Salisbury's refusal to recall him. Seven years later the Venezuela dispute of 1895 (q.v.) reached a crisis over the boundary between Venezuela and British Guiana, and resulted in a vindication of the Monroe Doctrine. In 1909 the Newfoundland fisheries question was referred to The Hague Tribunal, and settled in 1910.

In the United States a reaction from the policy of isolation set in, however, after the Spanish-American War of 1898 and the occupation of the Philippines. The prestige of the United States as a great power was increased by the annexation of Hawaii, the revival of the Venezuelan question in 1903, and the Panama Conferences of 1899, 1901, and 1906. The opposite tendency reappeared later in the scheme of Woodrow Wilson (who became president in 1913) for a Pan-American alliance; and the entry of the United States into the Great War on April 6, 1917, was construed as a design to make the Monroe Doctrine the "doctrine of the world" rather than as an attempt to destroy its postulate of American non-intervention in Europe.

The negotiations for peace in 1919 were a triumph for President Wilson, whose suggestions for a settlement in 1917, and whose Fourteen Points of January 8, 1918, paved the way for the Peace of Versailles and the inauguration of the League of Nations. Post-war questions between Great Britain and the United States included the settlement of the halibut fisheries dispute with Canada (ratified by Great Britain) in 1924, and the funding of the British war-debt at four thousand millions sterling to be paid off in 62 years (1923). The United States meanwhile steadily declined to enter the Permanent Court of International Justice (set up by the League in 1920 in succession to The Hague Court of 1899, which had lapsed). Assent, subject to certain reservations, was voted by the Senate in January 1926. In the summer of 1927 both governments, in company with Japan, attended the abortive Geneva Conference on the reduction of naval armaments. The next year brought a United States proposal for world peace.

W. F. Reddaway, "Monroe Doctrine," 1895; A. B. Hart, "Monroe Doctrine," 1916; E. Smith, "England and America after Independence, 1783–

1872," 1900; W. A. Dunning, "The British Empire and the United States," 1914; C. R. Fish, "American Foreign Policy," 1923; J. T. Mills, "Great Britain and the United States," 1920; R. B. Mowat, "Diplomatic Relations of Great Britain and the United States," 1925; W. C. Morey, "Diplomatic Episodes," 1926; G. Bancroft, "History of United States (to 1789)," 6 vols., edition of 1914. [A. C. F. B.]

Universities. The word *universitas* is in Roman Law the synonym of *collegium*. In the Middle Ages it was originally used of any body of men when spoken of in their collective capacity; but it gradually became appropriated to those gilds or corporations *either* of masters *or* of scholars, the earliest of which originated in that great revival of intellectual activity throughout Europe which began at the end of the eleventh or the beginning of the twelfth century. The more ancient designation of these communities was, however, "studium generale." The idea of a university may be said to have originated at Bologna, where a university of students was formed in the course of the twelfth century. The schools of Paris date their pre-eminent position from the teaching of Abelard in the first half of the twelfth century; but there is no trace of the formation of an organized society or university of masters till towards the close of the twelfth century.

Oxford was the earliest of the universities organized after the model of Paris, though in the division of the faculty of arts into *Australes* (South-countrymen) and *Boreales* (North-countrymen) each under its "proctor" (who at the daughter-university of Cambridge long retained the name of "rector"), there seems a trace of an earlier organization on the model of the two universities, each with its own rector, of *Ultramontani* and *Citramontani* at Bologna. The legend which attributes the foundation of the University of Oxford, and even of University College, to Alfred the Great is supported only by documents now known to be forged or interpolated. There is no trace of any schools of the smallest reputation at Oxford till about the year 1133, when the Paris doctor of theology Robert Pulleyn is said to have taught there. In the later twelfth century the Italian jurist Vacarius introduced the study of Roman Law. It seems to have been, however, as a result of an importation of English scholars from Paris about 1167 or 1168 that Oxford began to develop into a "studium generale." At the beginning of the following century we find the university fully organized on the model of Paris, with some important differences. At Paris the masters had to obtain their licence to teach, or degree, from the chancellor of the cathedral or of St. Geneviève. At Oxford the chancellor was chosen by the masters, but derived his authority from the bishop of the distant see of Lincoln. He, in fact, united the functions of the chancellor and the rector at Paris, and eventually became more powerful than either. He was from the first an ecclesiastical judge in cases affecting scholars. After the great "Town" and "Gown" battle of 1209, in which three scholars were hanged by the townsmen, the university gained its first royal charter of privilege, and its chancellor obtained a civil and criminal, as well as an ecclesiastical, jurisdiction. Each of those sanguinary street-fights, with bow and arrow, or sword and dagger, between clerks and townsfolk, which make up the history of mediæval Oxford, ended in the humiliation of the town and some accession to the privileges of the university. The chancellor eventually acquired (subject to an appeal to the university) cognizance of all cases in which a scholar was one party, except in cases of homicide or maim.

The students (who usually began their arts course at thirteen or fifteen) at first lived sometimes in lodgings with townsmen, but usually in "halls" or "inns," which were boarding-houses kept by a master. In 1249 William of Durham left a legacy to provide pensions for four masters of arts studying theology, a foundation which developed into "University College." Some time between 1263 and 1268, Balliol College was founded for poor students in arts, by John Balliol and Dervorgilla, his wife. It was, however, the far larger foundation, in 1264, of Walter de Merton, Bishop of Rochester, which really originated the English college system. The foundation of Exeter followed in 1314, Oriel (by Edward II) in 1326, Queen's (named after Queen Philippa by Robert Eglesfield, her chaplain) in 1340. William of Wykeham's splendid foundation (1386), still known as New College, introduces a new era in college-building. After the foundation of Lincoln in 1427 came All Souls (1437), and Magdalen in 1458, founded, the former by Archbishop Chichele, the latter by William of Waynflete, both Wykehamists, and imitators of Wykeham. Brasenose was founded in 1509, Corpus Christi —designed to foster the "New Learning" —by Bishop Fox, in 1516. Christ Church was begun under the name of Cardinal College by Wolsey, and completed by Henry VIII in 1546. Trinity (1554), which occupies the site of an earlier college for Durham monks, and St. John's (1555) are the offspring of the Marian reaction; Jesus (1571), Wadham (1609), and Pembroke (1624) of the Reformation. Worcester, on the site of the hall once occupied by Gloucester monks, dates from 1714. Keble, founded in 1870, is the monument of the "Oxford Movement." The ancient Magdalen Hall was endowed and incorporated as Hertford College in 1874.

The colleges had originally been intended only as a means of support for poor scholars; but their superior discipline led to the practice of sending wealthier boys as "commoners," or paying boarders, to them. The Reformation for a time nearly emptied the university; most of the halls disappeared, and the code of statutes imposed upon the university during the chancellorship of Laud completed its transformation into an aggregate of colleges, by giving the "Hebdomadal Council" of heads of houses the sole initiative in university legislation.

From the time of the Restoration learning declined, and in the eighteenth century Oxford gradually sank into a state of intellectual torpor. The first sign of reviving life is the distinction between what were afterwards called "Pass" and "Honour" examinations in 1802, followed by the foundation of "Honour Schools" in classics and mathematics in 1807. And the "Oxford Movement" gave a great impulse to the intellectual, as well as the ecclesiastical, activity of the university. The era of university reform begins with the appointment of a royal commission of inquiry in 1850. The act of 1854 abolished the subscription to the articles hitherto required at matriculation and on admission to the B.A. degree, and appointed an executive commission which abolished the local restrictions of scholarships and fellowships. The abolition of tests for the higher degrees was delayed till 1871. The commission of 1877 founded or augmented professorships at the expense of the colleges, limited the tenure of "idle" fellowships, and almost completely removed clerical restrictions. A new commission, set up in 1919, reported in 1922; and the new legislation based upon its report is only now beginning to take effect. Women were admitted to honours examinations in 1884; and, as an indirect result of the Great War of 1914–18, were admitted in 1920 as full members of the university.

The stories which attribute the foundation of CAMBRIDGE to Cantaber, a mythical Spanish prince, or to Sigebert, King of the East Angles in the seventh century, are among the stupidest of historical fabrications. The first authentic notice of Cambridge as a seat of learning is in 1209, when some of the students who left Oxford, in consequence of the disturbances of that year, established themselves at Cambridge. In 1229 came an immigration of students who had left Paris on account of the great quarrel of that university with the friars. To this year belongs the first legal recognition of the university and its chancellor. It now appears to be organized after the model of Oxford, and its history is marked by the same struggle for independence against the bishop, and the same sanguinary street-fights between "Town" and "Gown," or "North" and "South," and the chancellor gradually acquired nearly the same jurisdiction, though exemption of the university from the jurisdiction of the bishop and of the metropolitan was not fully established till 1434. The statutes by which the university has been nominally governed down to the present century were imposed upon it by royal authority in 1570, chiefly through the influence of Whitgift, then master of Trinity. They virtually destroyed the democratic government of the masters by the large powers which they conferred upon the heads of colleges.

In mediæval times Cambridge had never enjoyed the European celebrity of Oxford; but the English Reformation was a Cambridge movement. From that time, but still more conspicuously after the Restoration, to the present century, the superiority in intellectual activity was, as Macaulay boasts, "on the side of the less ancient and less splendid university." It was, in the main, the impulse given to mathematical study by Sir Isaac Newton, long resident in the university as fellow of Trinity and professor of mathematics, which saved Cambridge from the stagnation of eighteenth-century Oxford. The lists of the mathematical "Tripos" date from 1747. The Classical Tripos was founded in 1824. Women were first regularly admitted to Tripos examinations in 1881; but they do not yet enjoy full university status.

The first college at Cambridge, Peterhouse, was founded by Hugh Balsham, Bishop of Ely, in the year 1284, upon the model of Merton College, Oxford, the rule of Merton being constantly appealed to in the statutes. Michaelhouse (now extinct) was founded in 1324, the King's Hall by Edward III in 1326, Pembroke in 1347, Gonville (called Gonville and Caius since its refoundation by Dr. Caius in 1558) in 1348, Trinity Hall in 1350, Corpus Christi by the Cambridge gilds of Corpus Christi and of St. Mary in 1352; Clare in 1359. King's was founded in 1441 by Henry VI, out of the revenues of the suppressed "alien Priories." Queens' owes its origin (1448) to his consort, Margaret of Anjou, being refounded in 1465 by Elizabeth Woodville, consort of Edward IV. St. Catherine's was founded in 1473; Jesus in 1496; Christ's (incorporating an earlier college for training schoolmasters called God's House) in 1505; St. John's, on the site of the suppressed Hospital of St. John, in 1511; Magdalene in 1519. Trinity College (from its foundation the leading college in the university) was erected by Henry VIII, in 1546, on the site of the suppressed Michaelhouse and King's Hall. Emmanuel was founded by a Puritan in 1584; Sidney Sussex dates from 1598, Downing from 1800. The legislation of 1850, 1856, 1871, and 1877, in regard to Cambridge, was similar to that relating to Oxford. Since 1922 a statutory commission has been engaged in putting into practice the findings of the royal commission of 1919.

The first attempt to found a UNIVERSITY OF LONDON was made by Sir Thomas Gresham (q.v.) in 1548, when seven professorships—in divinity, music, physic, astronomy, geometry, law, and rhetoric—were endowed; but the scheme never came to full fruition. In 1825 the project was revived by Thomas Campbell, the poet, and an interest so widespread was awakened that in 1827 the foundation stone of the present University College was laid, and next year classes were opened in the faculties of arts, law, and medicine. In 1836 the first charters of incorporation for both the university (as an examining body) and University College were obtained. In the meantime King's College had received its charter in 1829. During the past century development has been rapid, and the

University of London, which in 1898 was reconstituted as a teaching body, has become the largest in the British Empire. Within recent years some thirty-five colleges have applied for recognition as schools of the university. Since 1915 the internal side has trebled and the external side doubled the numbers of its students. In July 1926 the number of internal students was 9,400. The recent acquisition by the university of the Bloomsbury site marks the inauguration of a movement of centralization and reform, which may be expected in the immediate future to have far-reaching consequences.

The idea of founding a university at DURHAM dates from the days of Oliver Cromwell, who actually established a college there. The present university was founded by the dean and chapter of Durham in 1831, incorporated by royal charter, and liberally endowed with a portion of the capitular estates. There are eight colleges at Durham; and Armstrong College and the College of Medicine at Newcastle-on-Tyne are fully incorporated with the university.

The VICTORIA UNIVERSITY OF MANCHESTER was founded in 1850, and reorganized in 1880 and 1903.

Other English universities are :—Birmingham (1900), Liverpool (1903), Leeds (1904), Sheffield (1905), Bristol (1909), Reading (1926); while a university of the East Midlands, comprising Nottingham University College (1880) and Leicester University College (1921), is in process of establishment. Among university colleges which have not as yet attained to full university status may be mentioned the Cheltenham Ladies' College; Queen's College, London; the University College of the South-West of England (Exeter); University College, Hull; and University College, Southampton.

The first Scottish university was founded at ST. ANDREWS, in 1411, by Archbishop Henry Wardlaw. It owed its existence in a measure to the schism in the Papacy, in which Scotland adhered to the French popes of Avignon, and England to the Roman line. Although exempted from the obligation of acknowledging Clement VII, the schism added to the unpopularity and consequent ill-treatment to which Scottish students had always been more or less exposed at Oxford. At St. Andrews the bishop and his successors were appointed chancellors. The head of the university, however, was (as in all the continental universities) the lord rector, who was and still is elected by the students. St. Salvator's College was founded by Bishop Kennedy, in 1456, that of St. Leonard by the boy-Archbishop Stewart and Prior Hepburn, in 1512. These two colleges are now amalgamated. The foundation of St. Mary's or "New College" was begun by Archbishop James Beaton in 1537, and completed by his two immediate successors.

The University of GLASGOW was founded in 1450 by Bishop Turnbull. The bishops were constituted chancellors. As at Paris, the university was divided into four "nations," whose "proctors" elected the rector. In the sixteenth century the university fell into complete decay. Its revival dates from the appointment of the accomplished humanist, Andrew Melville, to the principalship of the "College of Glasgow," within the university, endowed out of Church estates placed at the disposal of the town council by Queen Mary. Henceforth the university and college became practically identical. The principalship of Melville marks the close of the mediæval or Aristotelian period in Scottish education. By him the study of Greek and the logic of Ramus were first introduced into the universities. Classical scholarship, and especially Greek, has, however, never flourished in the Scottish universities. The prominence still accorded to moral philosophy and logic in their curriculum remains a witness to their mediæval origin.

The University of ABERDEEN was founded in 1494 by Bishop Elphinston. The foundation of Aberdeen was designed to be a means of civilizing the Highlands and educating its clergy. A small college, subsequently called King's College, was provided for by the founder. Marischal College was founded in 1593. Its assumed power of conferring degrees was recognized by parliament in 1621.

What is now the University of EDINBURGH has grown out of the College of Edinburgh, founded in 1582 by the town council on the model of Calvin's "Academy" at Geneva. The power of conferring degrees seems to have been from the first assumed by the college (unless it was conferred by some lost charter), and was recognized by act of the Scottish parliament in 1621. The college eventually came to be called a "university." It remained under the government of the town council till the nineteenth century, but is now organized like the other Scottish universities, the administration resting chiefly with the professors.

The University of WALES, comprising the University College of Wales (Aberystwith), of North Wales (Bangor), of South Wales and Monmouthshire (Cardiff), and of Swansea, received a charter in 1893.

Of the Irish universities, Dublin dates back to 1591. The National University, founded in 1908, includes colleges at Cork, Galway, and Dublin. Queen's University, Belfast, was established in 1909.

The University Extension movement began with Cambridge in 1872, and has been promoted by other universities throughout the English-speaking world.

B. Mollinger, "History of the University of Cambridge," 1873; Rashdall, "Universities of Europe in the Middle Ages," 1895; Maxwell Lyte, "History of the University of Oxford," 1886.

University Bill, THE IRISH (1873). The essence of this measure as introduced by Gladstone on February 13, 1873, was that the exclusive connexion between Trinity College, Dublin, and the University of Dublin was to

cease, and that that college, as well as Sir Robert Peel's Queen's Colleges, excepting that at Galway—which was to be dissolved—and also several Roman Catholic seminaries, were to be placed in the same position regarding the university as an Oxford or Cambridge college. Theology, moral philosophy, and modern history were excluded from the regular university course, and there were certain limitations on professional freedom of speech. The bill was soon opposed on all sides, and the second reading was lost by 287 to 284. The government immediately resigned (March 1873), but resumed office on Disraeli's declining to form an administration.

Upper Canada. [CANADA, DOMINION OF.]

Ushant, THE BATTLE OF, was fought on July 27, 1778, between the British and French fleets. The former, under the command of Augustus Keppel (q.v.), consisted of 30 vessels; the latter of 30 also. After a fight which lasted three hours each fleet returned to its own harbour, without having captured or destroyed one of its opponent's ships. There was a general outcry against so dishonourable an engagement, and Keppel attempted to throw the blame of his ill-success upon his subordinate, Sir Hugh Palliser, who recriminated upon his chief. A court-martial was held, which, however, resulted in the acquittal of Keppel (1779). As Keppel represented the Whig opposition and Palliser the court party, the dispute received a political significance.

A. T. Mahan, "Influence of Sea Power on History," 1890.

Ussher, JAMES (1581–1656), Archbishop of Armagh, was educated at Trinity College, Dublin, and was ordained in 1601. In 1615 he was employed in drawing up articles for the Irish Church; and six years later was appointed Bishop of Meath, from which post he was promoted in 1625 to be Archbishop of Armagh. When the Irish Rebellion broke out in 1641 he escaped to England, and received the bishopric of Carlisle. His chief historical work is entitled "Britannicarum Ecclesiarum Antiquitates."

Ussher's "Works," 1847–64; biographies by C. R. Elrington, 1848, and J. Dowden, 1902; W. B. Wright, "Ussher Memoirs," 1889.

Usury. [INTEREST.]

Utrecht, THE PEACE OF, was signed March 31—April 11, 1713. Several times during the War of the Spanish Succession negotiations had been set on foot between England and France. In 1706, after the battle of Ramillies, Louis XIV suggested a new partition treaty, "by which he would consent to acknowledge Queen Anne in England, to give the Dutch the barrier they demanded, to grant great commercial advantages to the maritime powers, and to surrender Spain and the Indies to the Archduke Charles, if only he could preserve for his grandson, Philip, a kingdom in Italy consisting of Milan, Naples, and Sicily." But the emperor saw that the Dutch barrier would be taken from the Spanish dominions in the Netherlands, and therefore from his son; and Marlborough was anxious to continue the war for his own sake. The Dutch were therefore induced to reject the demands. In 1709, after the battle of Oudenarde, the French king again tried to treat. The allies now demanded the resignation of the whole of the Spanish succession, together with the restoration of Newfoundland to Great Britain. Louis represented that his grandson would refuse to be altogether crownless. Thereupon the allies demanded that if Philip would not resign Spain within two months, Louis was to pledge himself to join the allies in expelling him thence. Next year the negotiations of the previous year were resumed at Gertruydenburg (q.v.). In the interval the French had fought and lost the battle of Malplaquet. The demands of the previous year were renewed, but at length the British and Dutch waived the point of the assistance of Louis in ejecting his grandson. But the opposition of Savoy and Austria rendered general negotiations impossible. In January 1711, for the first time, proposals were made from the side of the allies. On January 12, 1712, the congress of Utrecht opened. By April 11, 1713, all the treaties were signed except that between France and the empire and emperor. In the course of 1714 they also were concluded at Rastadt and Baden. The terms of the principal treaties were: (1) Between Great Britain and France: The Protestant succession, through the house of Hanover, was secured; the Pretender was to be compelled to quit France; a permanent severance of the crowns of France and Spain was solemnly promised; Newfoundland, Acadia, St. Kitt's, and the Hudson's Bay Territory were ceded to Great Britain. (2) The Dutch secured a strong fortress barrier, with a reduction of duty on Dutch goods entering France; the Spanish Netherlands were handed over to them, and Lille was given back to France. (3) The Duke of Savoy secured Sicily and the title of king. (4) The treaty between Spain and Great Britain, signed in July, granted to Great Britain the possession of Gibraltar and Minorca [BARRIER TREATY], and by the Asiento (q.v.), a contract signed at Madrid, withdrew the grant of slave trade from France and gave it to Great Britain. (5) Spain gained the recognition of Philip V. (6) The Emperor Charles received Milan, Naples, Sardinia, and the Austrian Netherlands in compensation for his loss of Spain. (7) The electors of Cologne and Bavaria were restored. (8) The title of the King of Prussia was confirmed. From the standpoint of Europe the peace mainly registered accomplished facts.

J. W. Gerard, "The Peace of Utrecht," 1885.

Uxbridge, THE TREATY OF (January and February 1645), is the name given to the futile attempts at an understanding made between the commissioners of Charles I and the Parliament at the beginning of 1645. It was soon evident that the demands of the Parlia-

mentarian party were too exorbitant to be granted, for they demanded not only the abolition of Episcopacy, but also the establishment of the Directory instead of the Book of Common Prayer. To these requirements they added the command of the army and navy, and the renewal of hostilities in Ireland. The king was by no means prepared to go such lengths, and after some three weeks had been wasted it was once more seen that the final appeal would have to be made to the sword. The negotiations ended in failure on February 22.

V

Vacornagi, The, were an ancient British tribe who possessed the country forming the modern shires of Banff, Elgin, and Nairn, with the east part of Inverness and Braemar in Aberdeenshire. They are mentioned by Ptolemy as lying between the Dumnonii and the Moray Firth, and are said to have extended "from the Ness to the upper course of the Dee, and from the Moray Firth into the heart of Perthshire."

Vagrancy Acts. Enactments against vagrancy began with the Statutes of Labourers (q.v.) (the first in 1349), which aimed at securing cheap labour, and treated the labourers who wandered in search of better terms as criminals. By the act of 1388—the origin of the English Poor Law—the labourer was forbidden to leave the hundred where he served without a passport from his hundred declaring the cause of his journey. In 1414 justices of the peace were empowered to recover fugitive labourers by writ in whatever part of the country they might be, and were given summary jurisdiction over all offences committed by them. Tudor legislation on the subject is "written in blood," and marks the terror felt in the break-up of mediæval society at the bands of vagrants wandering over the country. The act of 1530 empowered justices and borough magistrates to cause able-bodied vagrants "to be tied to the end of a cart naked, and be beaten with whips throughout the town till their bodies were bloody." Five years later it was added that they were to be set to labour; "ruttelers," i.e., vagabonds calling themselves serving men, were to have their ears mutilated, and for the second offence to be hanged. By the act of 1547 the vagrant was to be branded, and given as a slave for two years to anyone who asked for him, and if no one would take him he was to be sent back to his birthplace, and set to work on the highways, if necessary in chains. But this was felt to be too severe, and in 1549 the statute was repealed, and the previous acts again came into force. The act of 1597 ordering vagrants to be whipped, sent to their place of settlement, and there placed in the house of correction, and that of 1604, adding the branding of incorrigible rogues, remained in force till 1713. The present law is based on the acts of 1744 and 1824, by which the definitions of rogue and vagabond have been widely extended, and attempts made to distinguish between various classes of offences. It is scarcely necessary to add that imprisonment for short periods has taken the place of whipping and branding. "It may now be almost stated as a general proposition that any person of bad character who prowls about, apparently for an unlawful purpose, is liable to be treated as a rogue and a vagabond." [Poor Laws.]

Stephen, "History of Criminal Law," vol. iii, ch. 32; Leonard, "Early History of English Poor Relief."

[W. J. A.]

Valence, Aymer de (*d.* 1260), son of Hugh de Lusignan and Isabella, widow of King John, came to England in 1247. In 1250 he was, through the influence of his half-brother Henry III, elected Bishop of Winchester, in spite of his youth and total lack of qualifications for the office. His unpopularity was very great, both with the barons and the clergy, and he was driven out of England in 1258. His quarrel with Boniface of Savoy in 1252 is one of the most noteworthy incidents in his turbulent career. It was said that at a party banquet, just before leaving England, in 1258, he attempted to poison some of his chief opponents, but this assertion rests on no very authentic basis. Early in 1260 Aymer was consecrated by the pope to the bishopric of which he had so long enjoyed the revenues; but he died at Paris in December 1260, while on his way to force an entry into England.

Valence, Aymer de, Earl of Pembroke (*d.* 1324), was the son of William de Valence (q.v.). He was made by Edward I guardian of Scotland in 1306, and succeeded in surprising and defeating Robert Bruce at Methven, but in 1307 he was himself defeated by the Scots at Loudon Hill. On the death of Edward I he lost his command in Scotland, and he became one of the strongest opponents of Gaveston. He was one of the Ordainers (q.v.) appointed in 1310; and took Gaveston prisoner at Scarborough two years later, but it was without his knowledge and against his personal pledge that the favourite was seized by Warwick and beheaded without trial. This violent conduct on the part of Warwick and Lancaster alienated Pembroke, who then endeavoured to form a middle party between Lancaster and the king, and from May 1318 to 1321 was probably the most influential man in the kingdom. The Treaty of Leek, concluded in August 1318, was largely the work of Pembroke and his confederates. He opposed Lancaster in 1322, and was one of the judges before whom Lancaster was tried. In 1324 Pembroke was sent over to France by the king on an embassy, and there he died suddenly—murdered, it was said, by the orders of Queen Isabella.

T. F. Tout, "Place of Edward II in English History"; J. Conway-Davies, "The Baronial Opposition to Edward II."

Valence, William de (*d.* 1296), was the son of Hugh de Lusignan and Isabella, widow of King John, and consequently half-brother to Henry III. In right of his wife, Joan de Munchensi, he assumed the title of Earl of Pembroke (1247). He made himself extremely unpopular in England, and in 1258 was expelled from the country. He subsequently returned, fought for the king, and after the battle of Lewes had to flee to France, while his lands were confiscated. The defeat of the barons restored him his possessions, and he subsequently received large grants of land from the Crown. He played a part of some importance in the Welsh Wars of Edward I's reign, commanding the army of West Wales in the campaigns of 1282–3.

Valentia, or Valentiana, was the name given to the northern province of Britain (recovered from the Picts by Theodosius in 369), in honour of the Emperor Valentinian. The idea that it applied to the area between the Walls of Hadrian and Antonine appears to be erroneous. There was no extension of the border, but merely a recovery of lost ground.

Val-ès-Dunes, The Battle of (1047), was fought between Duke William of Normandy, aided by Henry I of France, and the rebellious Norman barons. William's victory was complete, and firmly established his power in the duchy. Val-ès-Dunes, the scene of the battle, is a broad plain not far from Caen.

Valetta, La, the capital of Malta (q.v.), was besieged from September 1798 to September 1800 by a force of Maltese and British, who were anxious to drive the French out of the island. After being reduced to the verge of starvation the French garrison, commanded by General Vaubois, were compelled to surrender to General Pigot, and Malta became a British possession.

Vancouver Island, on the west coast of North America, separated from the mainland by Queen Charlotte Sound, Johnstone Strait, and the Strait of Georgia, was in 1849 granted to the Hudson's Bay Company. In 1859 it became a Crown colony, and in 1866 was incorporated with British Columbia, whilst five years later the whole province became part of the Dominion of Canada (q.v.).

A. Métin, "La Colombie Britannique," 1908; Begg, "History of British Columbia," 1894.

Van Diemen's Land (Tasmania). [Australia, Commonwealth of.]

Vane, Sir Henry, the Elder (1589–1655), was educated at Oxford, and knighted by James I in 1611. He was employed on diplomatic business in Holland by Charles I (1629–1630), and subsequently became treasurer of the royal household, and in 1630 a privy councillor. In 1640 he was appointed secretary of state, through the queen's influence. He was a bitter opponent of Strafford, and one of the chief instruments in his conviction. He held his secretaryship till November 1641, though he decidedly inclined towards the opposition in parliament; and then retired into private life after being deprived of his offices. Clarendon says that he was the last of the king's counsellors who stayed with parliament, and that, "though he concurred in all the malicious designs against the king, and against the Church, he grew into the hatred and contempt of those who had made most use of him, and died in universal reproach."

Vane, Sir Henry, the Younger (1612–1662), usually known as Sir Harry Vane, the son of Sir Henry Vane, comptroller of the king's household, was educated at Westminster School and Magdalen Hall, Oxford. In 1635 he emigrated to Massachusetts, of which colony he was elected governor, but after a year's tenure of office his advocacy of unlimited religious liberty lost him his post, and he returned to England in 1637. In the Long Parliament he became one of the leaders of the Root and Branch party (q.v.), and his evidence played an important part in Strafford's trial. In July 1643 Vane was appointed one of the commissioners to negotiate the alliance with Scotland, and it was by his skill that the clause "according to the Word of God" was inserted in the Solemn League and Covenant. In the parliament Vane was recognized throughout as one of the ablest leaders of the Independents, and sided with that party and with the army against the Presbyterians in 1647. Vane disapproved of the violation of the parliament by Pride's Purge (q.v.) and took no part in the king's trial. He was chosen as a member of the council of state of the republic, but refused the proposed oath approving of the punishment of the king. As head of the commission governing the navy, and chairman of the committee for drawing up the scheme for the constitution of a new parliament, he played a very important part during this period; but his persistency in pressing forward the passing of his measure, and refusing Cromwell's plan, led the general to expel the Rump (1653). In 1656 he wrote a tract entitled "A Healing Question Propounded and Resolved," proposing the calling of a general convention to establish a free constitution, for which he was summoned before the Protector's council and imprisoned at Carisbrooke for three months. In Richard Cromwell's parliament Vane represented Whitchurch (Hants), and headed the opposition to the new government. When the restored Rump quarrelled with the army Vane took part with the army, and acted in the council of state established by it. On the second restoration of the Rump Vane was punished by being expelled from parliament (January 1660), and relegated to his estates in Durham. On the return of the king he was arrested (July 1660) and wholly excepted from the amnesty, though it was agreed that the two Houses should petition Charles to spare his life. After two years' imprisonment he was tried (June 1662) and sentenced to death, the king thinking, as he wrote to Clarendon,

that he was too dangerous a man to live if he could honestly be put out of the way. He was executed on June 14, 1662.

J. Forster, "British Statesmen," vol. iv, 1831; biographies by J. K. Hosmer, 1888; W. W. Ireland, 1905; F. J. C. Hearnshaw, 1910; J. Willcock, 1913. [C. H. F.]

Vansittart, Henry (1732–70), was a Madras civilian selected to succeed Clive in the government of Bengal (1760). He determined to depose Mir Jafar (q.v.) and place Mir Kasim (q.v.), as ruler in his stead. In this plan, however, he was opposed by several members of his council. His attempts to force revenue reforms on Mir Kasim ended in the massacre of Patna, and the restoration of Mir Jafar. Notwithstanding the ill-success which attended his measures generally, Vansittart seems to have been a man of very good intentions. He attempted to check the illegitimate trading which the company's servants carried on for their own benefit. In 1765 he returned to Europe, and in 1769 was appointed one of a company of three "Supervisors" sent out to India by the company for the purpose of investigation and reform. On their voyage to Hindustan the frigate in which these gentlemen were embarked disappeared in an unaccountable way, nothing having ever been heard of its unfortunate passengers from that day.

Vansittart, Nicholas, Lord Bexley, (1766–1851), the son of an East Indian director, was called to the bar in 1792, and in 1796 returned to parliament for Hastings. In 1801 he was sent with plenary powers to detach the court of Denmark from the Northern Alliance. Returning to England, he was elected for Old Sarum, and supported the Addington ministry, under which he held the office of joint secretary to the treasury. He continued in office when Pitt again resumed the premiership, and in 1805 was appointed chief secretary for Ireland. In the ministry of Lord Grenville he again became secretary to the treasury. In 1812 he was appointed chancellor of the exchequer by Lord Liverpool. In this important office he remained eleven years, and on his resignation was raised to the peerage with the title of Lord Bexley, and was at the same time appointed to the office of chancellor of the duchy of Lancaster, which he held for five years.

Spencer Walpole, "History of England from 1815," 1879.

Varaville, The Battle of (1058), was fought by William of Normandy against the combined forces of France and Anjou. The latter were completely routed, and shortly afterwards peace was made. Varaville is on the Dive, not far from Falaise.

Vassalage is a word signifying the condition of feudal dependence. The term *vassus* (from a Celtic word originally meaning "a growing youth") appears first in Merovingian chronicles and charters in the sense of an unfree person, while in the Carolingian period it is used for a freeman who has commended himself to some more powerful person or corporation. Commendation was symbolized by the act of homage, which was accompanied by an oath of fealty. But at first the relation was a purely personal one, and implied no change in the ownership of the land. It was only when the beneficiary tie, that relation which arose from the grant of a benefice with the obligation of service, was united to commendation that the status known in the later Middle Ages as vassalage was perfected. Frank feudalism arose then principally from the union of the beneficial system and commendation. Though commendation frequently occurs in England, its part in the creation of the English nobility by service, and of the semi-feudal condition of things immediately before the Conquest, is of comparatively small importance as compared with that of the *comitatus* and that of the English judicial system. The word *vassus*, or *vassalus*, is of very rare occurrence before the Conquest; though as early as Alfred the term is applied by Asser to the thegns of Somerset. The Conquest itself universalized a feudal tenure of land of the continental type, and with the thing came the name. [Feudalism.]

F. W. Maitland, "Domesday Book and Beyond," 1898; F. W. Maitland and Sir F. Pollock, "History of English Law," 1921; W. S. Holdsworth, "History of English Law," 1923. [W. J. A.]

Vellore Mutiny, The (July 10, 1806). Vellore, a fortress eighty-eight miles west of Madras, had been selected as the residence of the family of Tippoo (q.v.). Here they were treated with great liberality by the British government; but made use of their opportunities to foment a deep spirit of disaffection in the native army—a design in which they were greatly aided by various innovations introduced by the adjutant-general into the military code. An insurrection broke out on July 10, 1806, by the seizure of the powder magazine and the assault of the European barracks. About 170 of the British troops were wounded or killed, and thirteen officers of the garrison were slain. The surviving British troops, however, managed to hold their position till the arrival of Colonel Gillespie with succour from Arcot. An investigation succeeded in fixing the greater guilt of the revolt on the Tippoo family, who were accordingly removed to Calcutta.

Venezuela, British Relations with. The relations of Great Britain with Venezuela (which proclaimed its independence of Spain in 1811 and was recognized by Madrid in 1845) have turned mainly on a dispute of long standing as to the boundary between the Republic and the colony of British Guiana. The Venezuelans derived their territorial claims from Spain, the British from the Dutch, who ceded the colony to them in 1814. As a result of President Cleveland's message to congress on December 17, 1895, demanding that the dispute should

be submitted to arbitration, the question for a time assumed a highly critical aspect as between Great Britain and the United States, and a boundary commission was appointed by the latter power to investigate the question. In June 1897 the dispute was referred to arbitration, and in October 1899 it was settled by the award of the arbitration tribunal, presided over by the Russian jurist, Professor Martens. During the Venezuelan revolution in 1901 outrages were committed on British and other European persons and property. In 1902 Great Britain, with other powers, sent claims against Venezuela, and after an ultimatum British, Italian, and German fleets blockaded Venezuelan coasts. The matter was referred to The Hague Tribunal, which decided in 1904 that the powers were entitled to preferential treatment. The tribunal of 1907 vindicated the British and other claims (£691,160).

P. L. Bell, "Venezuela," 1922; W. S. Robertson, "History of the Latin-American Nations," 1922.

Venner, Thomas (*d.* 1661), a wine-cooper by trade, was the leader of a band of Fifth-Monarchy men, who appeared in arms in London in January 1661 (after being imprisoned 1657–9 for an abortive rising), demanding the establishment of the monarchy of Christ. The rising was suppressed, and Venner and sixteen others were executed (January 19).

Vere, Edward de, 17th Earl of Oxford (1550–1604), one of the haughtiest and most overbearing of the nobles of Elizabeth's reign, was one of the commissioners at the trial of Mary, Queen of Scots, in 1586. He subsequently did good service for England in fitting out, at his own expense, ships for the defence of the country against the Armada (1588).

B. M. Ward, "Edward Vere, 17th Earl of Oxford; A Biography," 1928.

Vere, Sir Francis (1560–1609), accompanied Sir Philip Sidney (q.v.) to the Netherlands, and in 1587 was present at the defence of Sluys and Bergen-op-Zoom (1588), where he greatly distinguished himself. In 1596 he took part in the expedition to Cadiz, and in the following year accompanied Essex in his unfortunate expedition to the Azores. Towards the end of 1597 he returned to the Low Countries, where he was wounded at The Hague in 1602. In 1604 he returned to London, where he died.

Sir C. R. Markham, "The Fighting Veres," 1888.

Vere, Sir Horace, Baron Vere of Tilbury (1565–1635), served with his brother, Francis, in the Low Countries, and was present at the capture of Sluys. Subsequently he was knighted for his gallantry at Cadiz in 1596. He succeeded his brother in the command of Brill till that town was restored to the States of Holland in 1616. On the outbreak of the Thirty Years' War (1618) he was set at the head of the force destined by James I for the preservation of the Palatinate, but on this occasion was forced to surrender to Tilly at Mannheim. He was created Lord Vere of Tilbury by Charles I on his accession to the crown, and was made master of the ordnance in 1629.

Sir C. R. Markham, "The Fighting Veres," 1888.

Vere, John de, 12th Earl of Oxford (1408 ?–1462), fought in the French wars. He was a staunch Lancastrian, and on the accession of Edward IV he was attainted and beheaded on Tower Hill.

Vere, John de, 13th Earl of Oxford (*d.* 1513), son of the preceding, was restored to his earldom in 1464, but on the restoration of Henry VI joined the Lancastrians. After the battle of Barnet he fled to France, and getting together some ships, maintained himself by piracy. He afterwards seized on St. Michael's Mount in Cornwall, where he was besieged for some months (1473–4). He at last surrendered and was imprisoned at Hammes, in Picardy. Here he remained till 1484, when he induced the governor of the castle to espouse the cause of Henry of Richmond, whom he accompanied to England, and assisted at Bosworth. He was rewarded by Henry VII, with whom he was in high favour. It was he who, according to the well-known story, was in 1498 fined 15,000 marks by Henry for breaking the Statute of Livery and Maintenance.

Vere, Robert de, 9th Earl of Oxford, 1st Marquis of Dublin, and Duke of Ireland (1362–92), was one of Richard II's chief favourites and advisers. He married in 1378 Philippa, daughter of Ingelram de Coucy, and granddaughter of Edward III, but subsequently, having obtained a divorce from her, he married a Bohemian, who had come over with Queen Anne (1387). De Vere quickly acquired a great ascendancy over the young king, by whom in 1385 he was created Marquis of Dublin, receiving as an appanage the whole territory and lordship of Ireland. In the next year he received the title of Duke of Ireland, and became practically the ruler of England. His advancement was bitterly resented by the English nobles. His chief opponent was the Duke of Gloucester, who was actuated more by selfishness than any desire for good government, and compelled the king to assent to the appointment of a commission of regency. After a feeble attempt at resistance the king had to give way, and the chief favourites were appealed of treason. Among these was de Vere, who raised a small body of troops and marched against Gloucester, but he was met at Radcot Bridge (1387) by the Earl of Derby, and, finding himself outnumbered, fled to the Low Countries. In his absence he was condemned as a traitor by the Merciless Parliament (q.v.) of 1388 and his estates were confiscated. He settled at Louvain and was slain in a boar hunt (1392). [Richard II.]

Verneuil, The Battle of (August 16, 1424), was fought by the English, under the Duke of Bedford, against the combined French and Scottish force commanded by the Dukes of Alençon and Touraine. The lack of discipline in the French army, and the misconduct of the Lombard mercenaries, contributed in no small degree to the victory of the English, which was nevertheless not an easy one. The French were eventually completely routed, and are said to have left between 4,000 and 5,000 on the field. Amongst those who fell were the Constable, and the Earl of Douglas (Touraine), while the Duke of Alençon and other generals were taken prisoners. This victory ensured for the time being the supremacy of the English in the north of France. Verneuil is one of the frontier towns of Maine, and is not far from Evreux.

Vernicomes (or Venicones), The, were an ancient British tribe who appear to have inhabited part of Perthshire, the whole of Angus, and a large part of Kincardineshire. According to Sir John Rhŷs they occupied Mearn, Angus, and the east of Fife, having for their chief town an unidentified place, Orrea. The same authority regards this tribe, who are mentioned by Ptolemy, as being one with the later Mæatæ, and considers them to have been on the whole neither Goidelic nor Brythonic, i.e., not Celtic at all by race, but members of the aboriginal Picts.

Vernon, Edward, Admiral (1684–1757), was the son of James Vernon (q.v.). Entering the navy in 1700, he served in the Vigo expedition, and was captain at twenty-one and rear-admiral at forty-four. He was member of parliament for Penrhyn and Portsmouth from 1722 to 1741, and in this position was a strong opponent of Walpole. In 1739 he was dispatched to the Antilles with a fleet to destroy the Spanish establishments there, but failed in his attempts to seize Porto Bello on account of an insufficiency of forces. In 1741 he was associated with Wentworth in the disastrous expedition against Carthagena. But even this failure did not destroy his popularity at home, where he was elected to parliament for three boroughs at once, and continued to take part in politics for some years afterwards.

"Memorial," by W. F. Vernon, 1861; D. Ford, "Admiral Vernon and the Navy," 1907.

Vernon, James (1646–1727), was a Whig statesman in the reign of William III. In December 1697, on the sudden resignation of Sir William Trumbull, he was elevated from the post of under-secretary to that of secretary of state, through the influence of Shrewsbury. Soon afterwards, in conjunction with Montagu, he was elected for Westminster (1798). He attempted in vain to moderate the violence of the House of Commons on the Resumption Bill (q.v.), proposing that William should be allowed to retain a third of the Irish grants. When the Partition Treaties (q.v.) were discussed he carried a resolution that the House would support the king, and even proposed that William should be authorized to conclude alliances. On the accession of Anne he was dismissed from office and replaced by Nottingham.

Vernon's "Correspondence," ed. G. P. R. James, 3 vols., 1841.

Verona, The Congress of (October—November 1822), the last of the congresses of powers established by Art. vi of the Second Treaty of Paris (November 20, 1815), opened in October 1822 to discuss the situation created by the War of Greek Independence, the designs of Russia against the Ottoman Empire, and the danger of a French invasion of revolutionary Spain, together with other questions, such as the slave trade, the evacuation of Naples by Austria, and the problem of Spanish America. The Spanish question occupied the chief place. The importance of the congress in British history is that it witnessed the abandonment by Great Britain, under Canning, of the congress system cherished by Castlereagh. The Montmorency Memorandum of October 20, which sought to obtain material and moral support from the alliance for France in the event of war between France and Spain, was accepted by Russia, Prussia, and Austria (October 30), but rejected by the Duke of Wellington as representative of Great Britain. Verona marks the beginning of Canning's policy of "splendid isolation," based on the doctrine of non-intervention (q.v.).

C. K. Webster, "Foreign Policy of Castlereagh, 1815–22," 1924; H. W. V. Temperley, "Foreign Policy of Canning, 1822–7," 1925. [A. C. F. B.]

Versailles, The Peace of (September 3, 1783), closed the maritime war of Great Britain against France, Spain, the United Provinces, and the United States. It was preceded by the British acknowledgment of American Independence on September 27, 1782 (followed by preliminaries of peace on November 30) and by preliminaries of peace with France and Spain on January 20, 1783. By the treaty Great Britain recognized the independence of the United States, whose boundaries were defined so as to include Louisiana, and allowed American citizens to retain their fishing-rights off Newfoundland and in the Gulf of Mexico. France restored to Great Britain Grenada, St. Vincent, Dominica, St. Kitt's, Nevis, and Montserrat, and ceded the River Gambia; Great Britain restored to France Goree, St. Louis, and all the French stations in India, and ceded the River Senegal, Tobago, fishing-rights off Newfoundland, and the right to fortify Dunkirk. Spain renewed the British right to cut logwood in Honduras, and restored the Bahamas; but retained Minorca and Florida. The United Provinces regained all their losses to Great Britain except Negapatam, in exchange for rights of navigation in eastern rivers hitherto exclusively controlled by the Dutch. The terms of the treaty were vigorously opposed

by Fox and North on the opening of parliament on December 5, 1782. And when a vote of censure was carried against the government on February 21, 1783, by 207 to 190, Shelburne resigned on February 24 and was succeeded by the Fox and North coalition.

[A. C. F. B.]

Versailles, The Treaty of (June 28, 1919), closed the Great War of 1914–18 after the cessation of hostilities declared by the Armistice of November 11, 1918. After the collapse of Bulgaria, Turkey, and Austria-Hungary in September–October, Germany sued for an armistice through Woodrow Wilson, president of the United States, who had formulated his ideas as to the essential conditions of the final settlement in his Fourteen Points of January 8, 1918, Four Principles of February 11, Four Ends of July 4, and Five Particulars of September 27. Germany accepted his preliminary stipulations on October 20; the allied powers accepted the Fourteen Points with reservations; and the Armistice was signed on November 11. The Peace Conference called by the five principal allied powers opened at Paris on January 18, 1919. Great Britain was represented by Mr. Lloyd George and Lord Balfour, France by MM. Clemenceau and Pichon, Italy by Signors Orlando and Sonnino, Japan by the Marquis Saionji, the United States by President Wilson and Mr. Lansing, Germany by Herr Müller and Dr. Bell. The first draft of the Covenant of the League of Nations (q.v.) was presented on February 14 and approved on April 28. The Treaty of Versailles between the allies and Germany followed on June 28.

It is in 15 parts:—(1) The Covenant of the League of Nations (q.v.). (2) (3) Territorial Dispositions, by which Belgium and Luxemburg ceased to be neutralized states, the left and part of the right bank of the Rhine were demilitarized, Germany lost Alsace and Lorraine to France, the Saar basin was to be controlled by an international commission, Heligoland was to be demilitarized, north Schleswig went to Denmark, Upper Silesia was subjected to a plebiscite, Dantzig was made a free city, administered by the League, and the Republic of Poland was recreated. (4) German Interests outside Germany: All the German colonies were ceded to the allies, the British Empire obtaining mandates in the Cameroons, Togoland, South-West Africa, East Africa, Samoa, New Guinea, Nauru Island; and all German treaty rights and concessions were cancelled. (5) Military, Naval, and Air clauses, by which the German army was restricted to 100,000 men, all munitions beyond that figure were to be given up and destroyed, and conscription was to be abolished. The fleet was restricted to 6 battleships, 6 cruisers, and a few destroyers, etc. (6) Clauses for the return of prisoners of war. (7) Penalties, including the trial of the ex-Kaiser (never carried out) and certain "war criminals." (8) Reparation clauses, in which the responsibility for the war was fixed on Germany (Art. 231) and means of payment (later superseded by the Dawes Scheme of 1924) were set out. (9) Financial clauses. (10) Economic clauses. (11) Aerial navigation. (12) Ports, waterways, and railways. (13) Labour clauses, including the inauguration of the International Labour Office at Geneva. (14) Guarantees, chiefly an allied occupation of the Rhineland and Cologne for fifteen and five years respectively. (15) Miscellaneous provisions.

The treaty was severe; more severe than Mr. Lloyd George or President Wilson or M. Clemenceau personally considered expedient; but pressure from their home governments was exerted on all three statesmen in the direction of severity. Its provisions came into force on January 10, 1920.

H. W. V. Temperley (ed.), "History of the Peace Conference in Paris," 6 vols., 1920–4; Text of the Treaty of Versailles (H.M. Stationery Office), 1919; Covenant of the League of Nations (Cmd. 151), 1919; Treaty summarized in R. B. Mowat, "European Diplomacy, 1914–25," chap. xvii, 1927; and H. W. V. Temperley in "Encyclopædia Britannica," supp. vol. iii, 1926.

[A. C. F. B.]

Vespasian was sent into Britain as "legatus legionum" in the year A.D. 43. In this capacity, according to Suetonius, he fought thirteen battles with the natives, subdued two of their tribes, took twenty of their towns, and captured the Isle of Wight. After attaining the empire (A.D. 70) he continued to take some interest in Britain, to which island he sent more than one army for the purpose of conquest. He also carried through some important military reforms.

Vexin, The. This province, which lay on the borderland of France and Normandy, had, according to the Norman writers, been ceded by King Henry I of France to Duke Robert of Normandy as the price of his assistance in that sovereign's restoration. During the years of William's childhood it had been resumed by France, and the conquest of Maine and England had occupied this duke's time too fully to give him leisure to reclaim the smaller province till towards the close of his reign. At last, irritated by the French king's jests, and the ravages committed on Norman ground by the French commanders in Mantes, he entered the Vexin in 1087. Mantes was razed to the ground, and it was among the burning embers of this town that William met with the accident which put an end to his life.

Vicar-General was the title given to Thomas Cromwell (q.v.) in his capacity of exercising "all the spiritual authority belonging to the king as head of the Church, for the due administration of justice in all cases touching the ecclesiastical jurisdiction, and the godly reformation and redress of all errors, heresies, and abuses in the same Church," in 1535. In 1539 Cromwell was, by act of parliament,

empowered to sit in this capacity "on the right syde of the Parliament, and upon the same fourme that the Archbishop of Canterburie sytteth on, and above the same Archbishop and his successors." It was in his capacity of vicar-general that Cromwell issued the commission for inquiry into the religious houses throughout the kingdom.

Viceroy is a term popularly used in reference to the governor-general of India, but in British government it has no official recognition.

Victoria, one of the original states of the Commonwealth of Australia (q.v.).

Victoria (Alexandrina Victoria), Queen (*b.* May 24, 1819, *s.* June 20, 1837, *d.* January 22, 1901), was the only child of Edward, Duke of Kent (fourth son of George III), and Princess Louisa Victoria of Saxe-Coburg (relict of the hereditary prince of Leiningen). The greater part of her first eighteen years of life was spent with her mother at Kensington Palace, where she was educated under Fräulein Lehzen and the Rev. George Davys (later Dean of Chester), and subsequently under the Duchess of Northumberland and Baron Stockmar. She became queen on the death of William IV, who had lately been on bad terms with her mother. For the first two years of the reign Lord Melbourne acted as her private secretary as well as prime minister. The accession involved the devolution of the crown of Hanover on the queen's uncle, Ernest Augustus, Duke of Cumberland (by the Hanoverian Salic Law), and the delegation to the home secretary of the royal prerogative of mercy. Parliament granted the queen £385,000 annually. The coronation took place on January 28, 1838. The first crisis of the reign occurred in 1839 over the Bedchamber question (q.v.) and involved the temporary resignation of Lord Melbourne. It was followed in 1840 by the queen's marriage (February 10) to Prince Albert of Saxe-Coburg (q.v.), whom she had first met at Kensington Palace in 1836. The prince was at first kept from any intimate knowledge of matters of state, but later he shared the queen's duties and powers, and she acted in later life according to the advice she believed he would have given had he lived. Prince Albert, however, was never popular in England.

Throughout her reign Queen Victoria took a keen interest in all matters of government. She accepted Peel and the Tories with reluctance in 1841, but her relations with Peel and Aberdeen were soon cordial. She paid her first visit to Scotland in 1842, the year in which attempts on her life were made by John Francis and William Bean, and her first visit to Ireland in 1849. In 1845 she supported Peel's decision to repeal the Corn Laws (q.v.), but her relations with the succeeding Russell ministry were clouded by her disapproval of Palmerston; though she was privately in sympathy with Palmerston's protest in the question of the Spanish Marriages (q.v.—1846). Fresh attempts on her life were made by William Hamilton and Robert Pate in 1850, but the rapid growth of her popularity was reflected in the "marvellous outburst of loyalty" which attended the opening of the Great Exhibition on May 1, 1851. In 1857, by a decree of June 25, Prince Albert received the title of Prince Consort. The resignation of Palmerston in 1858 on the Conspiracy to Murder Bill brought an improvement in the relations between queen and government under Lord Derby, and a better understanding with France was assured by a royal visit to Cherbourg—continued to Berlin—in August. In the queen's absence a bill for the settlement of India after the Mutiny was introduced; it received the royal assent on August 2. The Prince Consort died on December 14, 1861. The queen never went out of mourning for him, and resolved to rule henceforth as she believed he would have had her rule. Unfortunately her prolonged seclusion, and her not infrequent absence from the opening of parliament, led to a decline in her popularity in 1865. In May 1867 she founded the Royal Albert Hall. The next year saw the first ministries of both her great rival ministers, Disraeli (whom she had long admired and who was to become one of her most affectionate advisers) and Gladstone (towards whom she never developed cordial feelings). She did not share all Gladstone's Liberal views, nor did she appreciate his "mutability" of views. In his first period of office she opposed both the Irish Church Disestablishment Act and Cardwell's army reforms. In 1872 occurred a wave of Republican feeling in England, vented by Sir Charles Dilke (q.v.) in a motion to revise the civil list. It recurred in 1889. On Gladstone's fall in 1874 the queen joyfully accepted Disraeli, who treated her "as a woman" and not "as a department of state." The consequent growth of imperialist policy was exemplified in the act of 1876 which conferred on the queen the title of Empress of India; and her relations with Disraeli were strengthened by the opposition of both to Gladstone's denunciation of Turkey during the Balkan crisis of 1875–7. The queen warmly championed the Afghan and Boer Wars of 1879–80, and the policy of repression in Ireland which followed the Phœnix Park murders of 1882. She censured the government for its delay in sending relief to Gordon in Egypt (1885), and in the same year intervened to secure the smooth passage of the Third Reform Bill. She strenuously opposed Gladstone's conversion to Home Rule in 1886.

The queen was also a diligent student of foreign affairs, and on several occasions influenced the course of British foreign policy in important questions. She deprecated Palmerston's independent attitude during the crisis of 1840 over Mehemet Ali; and as she and Prince Albert came more and more to study

foreign affairs after the royal visit to Louis Philippe in 1843 (returned in 1844) and the visit of the Tsar Nicholas I in 1844, their disapproval of the foreign secretary increased. They feared the revolutionary possibilities of his support of foreign Liberals, particularly in Germany and Italy in 1848, and his bellicose attitude during the Spanish (1846) and Greek (1850) crises. [PACIFICO.] The result was the queen's famous memorandum of August 12, 1850, followed by Palmerston's dismissal on account of his open approval (without consultation) of the *coup d'état* of Louis Napoleon. He was succeeded by Granville. Queen Victoria received the first advances of Napoleon III coolly, but the Balkan situation necessitated close relations by 1853 and co-operation in the Crimean War (q.v.) in 1854. Next year, however, the fall of Aberdeen and the weakness of Lord John Russell's party forced her to accept Palmerston as prime minister (February 1855). The same year she received and returned a visit from Napoleon III, and was visited also by King Victor Emmanuel and Cavour. The pro-Italian policy of Palmerston and Russell during the War of Liberation (1859–61) greatly disturbed her; and in 1861 her and Prince Albert's intervention contrived to moderate the dispatch by which Palmerston might have rendered any successful solution of the *Trent* affair (q.v.) hopeless. Nor did her devotion to the principle of safeguarding existing monarchies accord well with the policy of the government towards the Polish insurgents in 1863; while in the Schleswig-Holstein question of 1864 (q.v.) the queen's sympathies were divided between Augustenburg and Prussia. In 1867 she was visited by Ismail Pasha and by Sultan Abdul Aziz (the first sultan to visit England), and in 1873 by the Shah of Persia. In 1875 she wrote to the Tsar and the German Emperor in an endeavour to stave off war in the Balkans; and in 1878 she supported Disraeli at the Congress of Berlin even to the extent of contemplating war. 1879 saw her first visit to Italy; 1889 the first visit of the Kaiser Wilhelm II to England. During the years 1890–3 the queen toured abroad. She received with joy the defeat of Gladstone's second Home Rule Bill in 1893, celebrated her Diamond Jubilee in 1897, and vigorously upheld the Boer War when she found peace no longer possible. She died in 1901 at the age of 81.

Popular at first, she found her people indifferent towards her during her years of seclusion, until her popularity revived and flourished after 1880 when the crown became the symbol of growing imperial unity. Imperious in will, with an exalted sense of duty, frank to her ministers and a stern critic of their work, she nevertheless suffered the royal power to decline during her reign, by reason of her absences from the opening and closing of parliament, her numerous foreign visits, and her long years of isolation.

Her nine children were:

1. Princess Victoria (Princess Royal); *b.* 1840; *m.* Prince Frederick William of Prussia, 1858; *d.* 1901.
2. Edward, Prince of Wales (Edward VII); *b.* 1841; *m.* Princess Alexandra of Denmark, 1863; *s.* 1901; *d.* 1910.
3. Princess Alice; *b.* 1843; *m.* Prince Louis of Hesse, 1862; *d.* 1878.
4. Prince Alfred; *b.* 1844; *m.* Marie Alexandrovna of Russia, 1874; *d.* 1900.
5. Princess Helena; *b.* 1846; *m.* Prince Christian of Schleswig-Holstein, 1866.
6. Princess Louise; *b.* 1848; *m.* Marquis of Lorne, 1871.
7. Prince Arthur (Duke of Connaught); *b.* 1850; *m.* Princess Louise of Prussia, 1878.
8. Prince Leopold (Duke of Albany); *b.* 1853; *m.* Princess Hélène of Waldeck, 1882; *d.* 1884.
9. Princess Beatrice; *b.* 1857; *m.* Prince Henry of Battenberg, 1885.

Biographies of Queen Victoria by Sir Sidney Lee, 1902 and 1904 (based on his article in "Dictionary of National Biography," vol. xxii, which contains full bibliography), and G. Lytton Strachey, 1921 and 1924; Sir T. Martin, "Victoria as I Knew Her," 1908, and "Life of the Prince Consort," 5 vols., 1874–80; Queen Victoria's "Leaves from a Journal in the Highlands," 1868 and 1883, and "Letters" (3 vols. 1907, for periods 1837–43, 1843–53, 1853–61; 2 vols. 1926, for periods 1862–9 and 1869–78; and 1 vol. 1927, for period 1879–88); "Letters of Lady Augusta Stanley," 1927. [A. C. F. B.]

Vienna, CONFERENCE OF (1853), met during the period of difficult diplomatic negotiations which immediately preceded the opening of the Crimean War (q.v.). It was attended by representatives of Great Britain, France, Austria, and Prussia, and was directed towards accommodating the conflicting demands of Russia and Turkey. The Russian demands, presented at Constantinople in March by Prince Menshikov, concentrated on satisfaction from the Porte in the matter of the Holy Places in Palestine, and an acknowledgment of the Tsar's protectorate over all the orthodox subjects of the Porte. This demand the British government considered inadmissible. Lord Stratford de Redcliffe at Constantinople prevailed on Menshikov to separate the two demands, and on the Sultan to concede the first of them (April); but negotiations broke down, and the Russian army crossed the Pruth on July 21. The Vienna Conference therefore assembled. The famous Vienna Note of July 31 attempted to resolve the question of Christian protectorate. But the form of words suggested by the ambassadors was rejected by the Sultan, and Stratford's amended draft, which implicitly repudiated the Russian claim, was rejected by the Tsar. Negotiations broke down, and Turkey, encouraged in her resistance by Stratford, declared war on October 25. In reply to the conference the Porte submitted a draft of the terms on which it would treat for peace, but these were rejected by the Tsar, who substituted five of his own (January 1854). The Conference thereupon dissolved.

—— Second Conference of (1855), was attended by representatives of Great Britain, France, Russia, Turkey, and Austria. It opened on March 15, was adjourned on the 26th, resumed early in April, again adjourned on April 21, and dissolved in June. The negotiations for peace broke down on the question of limiting Russian naval power in the Black Sea, and involved the withdrawal of the British and French representatives. Lord John Russell subsequently resigned on July 13 after an attack in the Commons by Milner Gibson.

Sir J. A. R. Marriott, "The Eastern Question," 1918. [A. C. F. B.]

Vienna, The Congress of (1814–15), met to settle the affairs of Europe after the first Treaty of Paris (May 1814) and the banishment of Napoleon to Elba. The chief representatives present were: for Great Britain, Lord Castlereagh; for Russia, the Tsar Alexander I; for Austria, Prince Metternich; for Prussia, Barons Humboldt and Hardenberg; for France, Prince Talleyrand; for Spain, Count Labrador; most of the smaller powers of Europe, including Turkey, were also represented. The proceedings opened on September 14, 1814, and were hampered throughout by lack of precedent (no great peace conference having been held since that of Westphalia in 1648), by the gaieties indulged in by the representatives and their families assembled at Vienna, and by the Poland-Saxony question, which reached Vienna in the form of a healthy quarrel between the four allies of Chaumont. The intention was to restrict the major issues of the congress to discussion by the five great powers and Spain, with an inner cabinet of four representing Great Britain, Prussia, Russia, and Austria. But by January 1815 Talleyrand, the astute representative of France, gained admission to the inner cabinet, increasing its personnel to five. The chief questions before the congress were Poland and Saxony, Italy, Germany, Switzerland, the slave trade, and various problems such as international rivers and ambassadorial precedence. The problems of Poland-Saxony and Italy were the most important. Lip-service was paid to the desire of Great Britain for a general abolition of the slave trade; the Swiss Confederation received a new constitution to supersede that of Napoleon; the German Confederation of 39 States was set up with a Federal constitution and a diet dominated by Prussia and Austria jointly; Sweden received Norway from Denmark; and the Belgian provinces of the Netherlands were united to Holland. The Poland-Saxony question brought out the policies of the five powers; of Great Britain, to avert French aggression in the west and Russian in the east; of Russia, to gain all Poland and part of Saxony; of Prussia, to gain Saxony and to crush France; of Austria, to safeguard herself against Russia in Saxony and against France in Italy; and of France, to save what could be saved from the ruins of Napoleon's position. The chief credit of the solution of the Polish-Saxon question is due to Castlereagh, who suggested first a representation to Russia on the part of Great Britain, Prussia, and Austria. His first plan failed because Prussia would not consent to Austria's securing a Saxon frontier. His second plan, to achieve an arrangement as to Saxony between Austria and Prussia, was also defeated by the obduracy of the King of Prussia, who was not brought into line until January 1815, and then only as the result of a secret treaty between Great Britain, Austria, and France. The settlement reached provided that Russia should obtain Poland, with the title of king and the grant of a constitution; that Prussia should receive the districts of Thorn, Posen, and Dantzig; that Austria should receive Galicia, and the Tyrol and Salsburg from Bavaria; that Hanover should be extended to the sea in East Frisia; and that Luxemburg should be given to the Netherlands. Cracow became an independent republic (until 1847). Italy was settled after a lengthy duel between Talleyrand and Metternich. The Bourbons were restored in Naples; the pope regained his legations, though garrisoned by Austrian troops; midland duchies were restored to their Austrian archdukes; and the King of Sicily was compensated for his loss of Naples by the gift of the Ionian Islands under British protection (till 1864). The congress closed on June 9, 1815. Its greatest achievement was the preservation of general peace in Europe until the Crimean War (1854). Its immediate result was the establishment of the system of congresses of powers which (set up under Art. 6 of the Second Treaty of Paris, November 20, 1815) met at Aix-la-Chapelle (1817), Troppau (1820), Laibach (1821), and Verona (q.v.—1822), to consult upon the common interests of the powers and take measures to preserve the peace and security of Europe. The principle beneath the Vienna settlement was that of Balance of Power (q.v.), a principle of great use in negotiation, but of doubtful stability.

C. K. Webster, "Congress of Vienna," 1918; "Cambridge History of British Foreign Policy," vol. i, 1922; W. Alison Philips, "The Confederation of Europe," 1893. [A. C. F. B.]

Vienna, The Treaty of (March 16, 1731), completed the settlement of Europe designed by the Treaty of Seville (q.v.). By that treaty the emperor had been isolated in Europe. He seized the duchy of Parma, and it seemed likely that Great Britain, in conjunction with France and Spain, would be forced into a war that would result in acquisitions by France in the Austrian Netherlands which would be dangerous to Britain. Accordingly Sir Robert Walpole, in conjunction with Holland, opened negotiations with the emperor. Great Britain guaranteed the Pragmatic Sanction, which secured the succession of the Austrian dominions, while Austria "accepted the terms proposed at Seville, agreed to destroy the Ostend Company,

to establish Don Carlos in his duchies, and not again to threaten the balance of European power." The treaty was signed without the participation or assent of France.

Vigo Bay, The Expedition to (1702), undertaken during the War of the Spanish Succession, was dispatched in July 1702 under the command of the Duke of Ormonde, with Sir George Rooke (q.v.) at the head of the fleet. It consisted of 50 vessels, of which 30 were English and 20 Dutch. It sailed from St. Helen's, and on August 12 anchored in the harbour of Cadiz. Through disunion and jealousy very little was effected at this place besides the plunder of a few ports. News, however, now arrived from England of the arrival of the Spanish galleons in the Bay of Vigo, and instructions to take or destroy them were forwarded to Sir George Rooke, who, however, had received this information earlier, from Captain Wishart. The Dutch vessels were communicated with, and on October 11 it was resolved to attempt to capture the French and Spanish ships which were drawn up at Vigo Bay, in a position defended by a boom and a castle. Next day the Duke of Ormonde landed some soldiers to effect a diversion, and these soon made themselves masters of the castle. Meanwhile the boom was forced by the English ships, and the French admiral, seeing destruction imminent, gave orders to set fire to his own vessels. Of the enemy's men-of-war 11 were burnt, 4 were taken by the British and 6 by the Dutch. Of the galleons 6 were taken by the British and 5 by the Dutch, who, however, sank 6 others. Of the treasure on board, valued at more than 40,000,000 "pieces of eight," much had been taken on shore before the arrival of the attacking forces, and booty to the amount of 11,000,000 "pieces of eight" alone fell into the hands of the victors.

Viking is a term derived from the old Norse *vik*, meaning a creek, bay, or fiord, and denotes the men who made such inlets their haunt. It is commonly employed to describe the Scandinavian hordes—Norse, Danish, and Swedish—who harried Europe from the eighth to the eleventh century; but also, in a broader sense, to signify a particular stage in the cultural development of the Scandinavian peoples, covering their activities in peace as well as in war. Archæological research, combined with a closer study of Scandinavian sources, has in recent years greatly modified current ideas as to the character of the Vikings and of their civilization. Professor Allen Mawer has emphasized the importance of the trading and maritime activities in which they had been engaged for many centuries before they began to trouble the peace of Christendom. Special causes, among which may be noted the Scandinavian laws of succession, the development in Norway and Denmark of consolidated kingdoms, and the militant Christianity of the Franks, precipitated the great movement of expansion of the eighth century onwards, which was facilitated by Charlemagne's destruction of the naval power of the Frisians. Henceforward the Vikings ranged the seas at will. Their westward voyagings brought them into contact with Scotland and the Isles, and the Welsh and Irish coasts; while, moving in a more northerly direction, they reached Iceland, Greenland, and even, if we are to trust the tradition of the sagas, the North American continent itself. Their southern wanderings embraced the coasts of England and Frankland, and brought them eventually through the Pillars of Hercules into the Mediterranean. Meanwhile the Swedes and Danes had been mastering the Baltic region, and pressing overland across modern Russia until they reached, by way of the Dnieper and the Black Sea, the walls of Constantinople itself. It is only if studied as part of this world-wide movement, in which were blended the motives of trade, exploration, and colonization, no less than of piracy pure and simple, that the history of the Northmen in England can be properly interpreted. [Danes.]

A. Mawer, "The Vikings," 1913.

Villa Viciosa, The Battle of (December 10, 1710), fought during the War of the Spanish Succession, was the sequel to the unfortunate defeat of the allies in Spain at Brihuega (q.v.). That defeat was mainly owing to the sluggishness of the imperial general, Stahremberg, in the support of General Stanhope. On coming within sight of Brihuega at last, Stahremberg found that Stanhope had surrendered and at once attempted to retreat, but finding that step impossible, he drew up his troops in order of battle. He had but thirteen thousand opposed to twenty thousand. The left wing of the allied troops was completely routed by the cavalry of the enemy, amongst whom was Philip, the French candidate for the crown. Instead, however, of proceeding to attack the remainder of our army, the victorious troops fell to plundering the baggage, leaving Stahremberg free to contend with the left wing, a contest in which he was so far successful that by nightfall he was left in possession of the field, from which the Duke of Vendôme and Philip had galloped in haste. The enemy's cannon were taken and the British recaptured, but the allied forces had suffered so much in the action that Stahremberg deemed it advisable to retreat to Saragossa. The campaign closed with the loss to the allies of all Spain.

J. W. Fortescue, "History of the British Army," vol. i, 1889.

Villenage, Villeins. These words respectively denote the depressed condition, and the class to which at one time the vast bulk of the population that was in immediate contact with the soil belonged. The villein class was the aggregate, formed by political and social influences, of several classes, some similar and all distinguishable, which began to be drawn closer to one another long before

the Norman Conquest, and reached their common level years after that event. It is a fair surmise that the mutual attraction exercised on each other by the various kinds of *ceorls* (q.v.) and *theows* (q.v.), the former sinking, the latter rising, till they met and blended, had been working from an early date. The *villeins*, however, were originally those who had a right to share in the common land of a *vill*. When Domesday Book was compiled the sections of the labouring population that were in a few generations to combine into the general villein class were known as *bordars*, *cottars* or *cotsets*, *serfs*, and *villeins*, the first and last in enormous majority. [The Domesday *villanus* seems sometimes to be almost a generic term, covering the bordiers, cottagers, and virgate holders. It must, then, be regarded as meaning simply *villager*, and as not everywhere holding its later much more definite legal connotation.] These classes may be assumed to have already come to differ in degree only; perhaps they were not far from the substantial amalgamation which eventually made a single class of them. When the coalescence and degradation were complete they bore many names. As tillers of the soil, and of a status distinct from that of the lower class in towns, they were called *rustics*; as being exclusively of English birth *natives* or *neifs*; *villeins* because they were bound to live on the vills, which had now become the property of feudal lords; and *serfs* because they had to serve another's will. The feature in the condition that accompanied every one of its varying stages and distinctions, and doubtless fixed the fate of the different constituents of the class, and may consequently be taken for the most significant, was the dependence of every member of it on a superior, the existence of an intermediary through whom alone they came under the eye of the law, and by whom alone their rights could be asserted. The moment this is seen in the historic development of our system—and it is clearly seen in the later Anglo-Saxon rule, that no man could be lordless—at that moment we become aware of a general set among the humbler dwellers in the land towards villenage. The fresh impetus given to the feudal principle by the Conquest, and the indifference of Norman judges to the degrees of English dependence, ensured the completion of the process; when the twelfth century began the men whose labour raised the necessary food for all were in huge proportion "irremovable cultivators," holding their cottages and patches of ground at the will of others, barely capable of political rights, and at the mercy of others for the exercise of such social rights as the law doled out to them; in a word, dependent on those who had lordship over them for everything that made living possible and life supportable. The peculiar facts of their condition were summed in the single fact, they had a master. This master commanded their services; had nominally power to take from them everything they possessed; could transfer them in the lump with the land they tilled; they were—in some instances at least—reckoned part of the stock of his estate; against his will they were not at liberty to withdraw from the conditions of their birth. They could not buy their freedom from him with their own money, because all they had was in his power. If a villein ran away from his lord he not only lost the holding that afforded him a livelihood, but was liable to be dragged back to his former dependence. The consent of his lord was needed to his becoming a knight or clerk, or to his educating his children for the service of the Church. Yet his lord's authority over him was not unbounded; for his cruelty or neglect the villein had a remedy in the king's court. And from all oppressions but his lord's he was absolutely safe; the law redressed the wrongs done to him by others as promptly as those of the most law-worthy man in the kingdom. He had, moreover, many comforts and little responsibility. He was generally left in undisturbed enjoyment of his small farm and the gains of his industry, was exempt from service in war, and often found his lord an indulgent master. There was more than one door to freedom that he might contrive to open; residence in a town as member of a gild for a year and a day, unclaimed by his lord, made a free man of him; the Church was on his side, ever raising her strong voice in favour of emancipation. Nor was he always an utter nonentity in politics, or overlooked in the great securities of the national rights. His oath was received in the great inquests; he was represented in the local gatherings; the Great Charter guaranteed his wainage (perhaps legally his lord's property) against distraint.

In course of time the villein's position came to be something like this.: he owed his lord the customary services, whereby his lord's demesne was cultivated; and to render those his continual presence on his lord's estates was required; but his lord could not refuse him his customary rights in return, "his house and lands and rights of wood and hay," and, in relation to everyone but his lord, his capacity as a citizen was unqualified—"he might inherit, purchase, sue in the courts of law." His condition, too, had a tendency to improve; custom raised his hold upon his house and land into a form of tenure—that by villenage, which eventually developed into copyhold—he was allowed to pay his rent in money instead of service; in many cases his lord's grasp upon him gradually relaxed; the current of the time ran in favour of enfranchisement. In the middle of the fourteenth century a certain number of the villeins had become actually, a large number virtually, free; these were "free to cultivate their land, to redeem their children, to find the best market for their labour." This beneficial movement was checked by the Great Plague, when the scarcity of labour gave the lords an interest in recovering stray or half-liberated villeins, [and the steps they took to this end

have been said to be one of the causes of the Great Revolt of 1381, which was preceded by a period of unrest in several counties among men who remained technically bondmen, though economically free. The abolition of villenage and substitution of rent for its services were among the demands of the insurgents. The check, however, was almost negligible. Commutation proceeded as before.] "The landlords ceased the practice of demanding base services; they let their lands to leasehold tenants, and accepted money payments in lieu of labour; they ceased to recall the emancipated labourer." It must be remembered, moreover, that emancipation had long been common, that the law was now making for freedom, throwing the burden of proof on the claimant lord, and construing doubtful points in favour of the claimed. These causes were once held to have affected mainly the "villeins regardent," as those whose bondage was dependent on land, and disabled them only towards their lords, were called. It is suspected that there were also in England "villeins in gross," whose villenage was personal and absolute, whose services at least could be sold in open market, and who had not a trace of political status; but this is still a disputed point. "We may conjecture that the villein regardent had fallen into villenage by occupying some of the demesne of the lord on servile conditions, and that the villein in gross was a chattel of the lord whom he paid or maintained by a similar allotment of land." [This theory, which is said by Professor Holdsworth not to have originated with the lawyers, must be regarded as trying to create a false division between different classes of villeins. The terms do not appear to have had any reference to personal status, but to have been employed to describe the special claims which a lord might urge in pleading. In mediæval legal theory the lord had a power which was almost absolute over the villeins, the term *villein* being equivalent to *serf*. There is a remarkable agreement among the twelfth- and thirteenth-century writers on this subject. Glanville, the Dialogue of the Exchequer, Bracton and Fleta all hold that he could sell them and do what he pleased with them. But in practice we do not find much evidence of the complete application of these views. The villein had the rights of a freeman against all but his lord, and even by him he could not be treated with the indignities which a slave might suffer, for he was protected by the criminal law. If he entered a monastery he was free whilst he lived the religious life. He was seldom transferred by sale except with the land he cultivated. If he fled and were recaptured the lord might find it difficult to prove that he was a villein, since it was base blood and not base tenure that would be most likely to convince the court. Thus proof of bastardy was often an effective answer to the lord. The confusion which arose in the minds of lawyers was partly due to the fact that villenage might be regarded in two ways, as a *status* or as a *tenure*. As manorial lands lost their old symmetry and the holdings were transferred from one hand to another—a process which is already to be observed in the thirteenth century—a freeman by birth might well acquire land held in villenage. He was thus a villein if his tenure were taken into account, but his status did not suffer. In the case of the villein by birth the advance of commutation of services for money rents gave him economic freedom, but his status remained base. The lawyer still regarded him as a villein, and it was only with the development of new processes of law and the rise of new courts of equity that the copyholder, his descendant, established what in the end amounted to personal freedom. The condition of villenage disappeared gradually; and even as late as the reign of Elizabeth there are instances of the emancipation of quite wealthy men who have long since left their village "nest," but are yet required to pay large sums for freedom.] [MANOR; COMMUTATION; COPYHOLD; DOMESDAY.]

Vinogradoff, "Villainage in England"; Pollock and Maitland, "History of English Law"; Maitland, "Domesday Book and Beyond"; Holdsworth, "History of English Law," vol. iii; Coulton, "Medieval Village." [J. R.] [A. V. J.]

Villiers, BARBARA, DUCHESS OF CLEVELAND (1641–1709), was the daughter of Lord Grandison, and wife of Roger Palmer. About 1659 she became one of Charles II's mistresses. In 1661 her husband was made Earl of Castlemaine, and it is as Lady Castlemaine that his wife is generally known. Her beauty and strong will gave her immense influence at court, while in the number of her intrigues she almost eclipsed the king. In 1670 she was created Duchess of Cleveland, and seven years afterwards left England for France, where she spent the rest of her life. In 1705 she married Robert (Beau) Feilding; but the marriage was subsequently annulled, on the ground of the husband's having committed bigamy. Of her sons by Charles II, the eldest became Duke of Cleveland, the second Duke of Grafton, and the youngest Duke of Northumberland.

Hamilton, "Memoirs of Gramont"; Pepys, "Diary"; Evelyn, "Diary"; Biography by A. Delmar, 1899; P. W. Sergeant, "My Lady Castlemaine," 1912.

Villiers, ELIZABETH (1657?–1733), was one of the ladies-in-waiting to Princess (afterwards Queen) Mary at the time of her marriage with William of Orange. She became the prince's mistress, for although destitute of personal attractions she was a woman of considerable talents, and "to the end of her life great politicians sought her advice." In 1693 William employed her in vain to induce the Duke of Shrewsbury to accept office. She married George Hamilton, afterwards Earl of Orkney. William bestowed on her a grant of part of the old Crown property in Ireland (estimated at £26,000, though really only about £4,000 a year), and this grant became very

unpopular when grossly exaggerated in value by the commission sent to inquire into the Irish forfeitures (1699). It was against Lady Orkney, Woodstock, and Keppel that the Resumption Bill of 1700 was chiefly directed.

Villiers, George, 1st Duke of Buckingham (1592–1628), born August 20, 1592, was the younger son of Sir George Villiers of Brooksley. In 1614 he was first brought before the notice of James I, and, being an active, handsome, and intelligent youth, his companionship served to amuse the leisure hours of the king. In 1615, after the fall of the former favourite, Carr, Earl of Somerset, Villiers was left without a rival in the king's favour. In 1616 he was created Viscount Villiers; in 1617 he became earl; in 1618, Marquis of Buckingham. By the royal bounty he was made one of the richest noblemen in England, and all the patronage of the court was placed in his hands. Few men could endure such rapid and unmerited advancement without detriment to their character. Buckingham was a vain and arrogant man, not ready to take advice, and not content that any should hold office who did not owe their promotion to his good will. Charges of malversation were brought against various officials, and several noblemen of high birth deprived of their offices. But although some reforms were effected in the public service, and although Buckingham was not personally avaricious, the atmosphere of the court remained venal. Those who sought promotion, if they had not directly to purchase office, were expected to requite the service in one form or another, to win the favour of Buckingham's dependents, or possibly marry one of his needy relations. Over the direction of James's foreign policy Buckingham, during the first part of his career, exercised no appreciable influence. In 1619 the Protestants of Bohemia had risen in rebellion against their king, the Emperor Ferdinand, and had bestowed the crown on James's Protestant son-in-law, the Elector Palatine. The Palatinate had been in consequence invaded by a Spanish army. James hoped to get it restored to the elector by negotiating a treaty of marriage between Prince Charles and the Spanish Infanta. Buckingham, as personal motives prompted him, joined those who approved of a Spanish alliance or those who desired to render assistance to the Protestant party in Germany. In 1620 he had married a Catholic, Lady Catherine Manners, and in 1622 his attitude became more decided. He entered into a close friendship with the Spanish ambassador, Gondomar, and the following year prevailed on James to allow him and the prince to go to Spain, under the belief that once there they could readily prevail on Philip IV to restore his lands to the elector. Arrived at Madrid Buckingham soon discovered his delusion. The Spaniards desired toleration for the English Catholics, but refused in return to bind themselves in any way regarding the Palatinate. During his absence James conferred on Buckingham the title of duke. The new duke and Charles both returned, irate with the Spaniards and eager to declare war. A parliament was summoned and its support asked (1624). For a time the duke was immensely popular, but his popularity was short-lived. He had many schemes in his head for the recovery of the Palatinate, but he had not the qualities of a statesman, and did not understand the first conditions of success. A treaty was agreed on for the marriage of Charles with Henrietta Maria, the sister of Louis XIII, in which concessions were made in favour of the English Catholics, although a distinct promise had been given to the parliament that nothing of the sort should be done. James and Buckingham expected that in return Louis would aid them to recover the Palatinate, but they were soon undeceived. Dire misery and misfortune befell an isolated body of 12,000 men sent to pass through Holland and fight their way into the heart of Germany. In March 1625 James died, and Charles, who was deeply attached to the duke, came to the throne. A parliament was summoned from which Charles parted in displeasure because it expressed distrust of the duke's capacity. A fleet dispatched to Cadiz to seize Spanish treasure-ships returned without effecting its object. Want of money led to the summoning of a second parliament, which impeached the duke and was angrily dissolved by the king (1626). Buckingham, always buoyant and sanguine, believed that if he could achieve success he would recover popularity. Anger against the French king led to a declaration of war with France, and Buckingham sailed in command of a fleet to succour the Protestant town of La Rochelle, which had rebelled against Louis (1627). He effected a landing on the Isle of Rhé, but was subsequently driven off by the French with heavy loss. The king summoned a third parliament, which passed the Petition of Right (q.v.) and afterwards drew up a Remonstrance demanding that Buckingham should be removed from office (1628). In consequence the parliament was dissolved, and popular feeling became more excited than ever against the duke. He was at Portsmouth, preparing a second expedition for the relief of La Rochelle, when as he left the room where he had breakfasted he was stabbed to the heart by a discontented officer, John Felton, who had served under him, and who thought with one blow to avenge his private wrongs and rid his country of a public enemy (August 23, 1628).

John Forster's "Life of Eliot," 1864; biography by P. H. Gibbs, 1908. [B. M. G.]

Villiers, George, 2nd Duke of Buckingham (1627–88), was the son of the 1st duke. He served in the Royalist army, and was present at the battle of Worcester, after which he retired to the continent. He returned to England in 1657, and married the daughter of Lord Fairfax, through whose influence he was able to recover a portion of his large estates.

At the Restoration he was made master of the horse and a privy councillor. In 1666 he took part with the opposition in parliament, and on a charge of having endeavoured to excite a mutiny in the fleet he was committed to the Tower, but in less than a year he was pardoned. On the formation of the Cabal ministry (q.v.) in 1667 he became one of its chief members, and when it fell in 1673 he, like Shaftesbury, joined the opposition. But his health was so bad that he took little further part in public affairs, and spent the rest of his life at his seat in Yorkshire. In his private character he ranks as the most profligate member of the most profligate court England has ever seen. He was strongly suspected of having hired Colonel Blood to assassinate the Duke of Ormonde, while his seduction of the Countess of Shrewsbury and the death of the earl in a duel with him created a fearful sensation even in those days. He is thus described by Dryden, under the name of Zimri, in some famous lines of "Absalom and Achitophel"—

> "A man so various that he seemed to be,
> Not one, but all mankind's epitome;
> Stiff in opinions, always in the wrong,
> Was everything by starts, and nothing long . . .
> Railing and praising were his usual themes;
> And both, to show his judgment, in extremes . . .
> He laughed himself from court; then sought relief,
> By forming parties, but could ne'er be chief."

Macaulay describes him as "a sated man of pleasure, who turned to ambition as to a pastime."

Buckingham's miscellaneous "Works" were printed in one vol., 8vo, 1704; biography by Lady Burghclere, 1903.

Vimeiro, The Battle of (August 21, 1808), fought during the Peninsular War, was brought on by an offensive movement of the French army under Junot, four days after the combat of Roliça. The village of Vimeiro stands in a small plain at the foot of hills, near the river Maceira, and about nine miles from Torres Vedras. Wellesley's object was to keep near the coast, in order to protect the landing of British troops; but although holding the road to Torres Vedras, he had been forestalled at that place by Junot, who had collected there the scattered troops of Delaborde and Loison. Wellesley accordingly took up a defensive position, occupying two ridges and some high ground between them. On the high ground to the south of the village he placed Fane and Anstruther with some infantry and six guns, while the bulk of the troops occupied the range west of the Maceira. On the heights to the east and north few troops were posted owing to a want of water. The total of British and Portuguese troops was about 20,000. Junot's plan was to attack these heights, so thinly defended, and so to outflank the British left; but Wellesley, to meet this, withdrew large bodies from the right. The French attack on the centre, which was intended to be supported by the troops who were told off to outflank and destroy the British left, met with some little success at first, but was checked at the summit of the plateau by the 50th Regiment, who drove it back over the hedge, and a cavalry charge completed the rout. In the meantime the French troops on the right, having too late extricated themselves from the ravines which had intercepted their progress, attacked Ferguson on the extreme left, but were vigorously repulsed. The pursuit, which would have destroyed the French army, was arrested by Burrard, who had arrived, and now took up the command.

Sir C. W. C. Oman, "Peninsular War," 1902–20; J. W. Fortescue, "History of the British Army," vol. vi, 1910.

Vincent, Henry (1813–78), one of the chief leaders and orators of the Chartists, was tried at Monmouth for sedition in August 1838, and sentenced to twelve months' imprisonment. His release was one of the objects of the unsuccessful attack on Newport, November 4, 1839, for participation in which Frost, Ernest Jones, and Williams were sentenced to death.

Biography by W. Dorling, 1879.

Vinegar Hill, The Battle of (June 21, 1798), was fought near Enniscorthy, in Wexford, during the Irish Rebellion of 1798. The Irish rebels, headed by Father Murphy (q.v.), assembled here, established a camp, and committed fearful cruelties in the neighbourhood. From May 29 till the time when the camp was stormed the massacre of Protestants was a matter of almost daily occurrence. On June 21, 13,000 British troops, under the command of General Lake, advanced from five sides to attack the rebels, the road to Wexford being, however, perhaps intentionally, left open. The camp was taken without much fighting, only 400 out of 16,000 being killed. Thirteen guns, however, were taken, and the rest of the rebels fled in disorder to Wexford.

P. F. Kavanagh, "Rebellion of 1798," 1913.

Virgin Islands, The, are a group of islands owned by the United States, Denmark, and Great Britain. The British islands are the most northerly and form a presidency of the Leeward Islands colony. Discovered by Columbus, they were called Las Virgenes in honour of St. Ursula. Tortola was the home of Dutch buccaneers from 1648 until an English expedition from Jamaica expelled them (1666), and was added to the empire in 1872. St. Croix, or Sancta Cruz, was held jointly by Dutch and English as early as 1625. St. Thomas and St. John, captured from the Danes, was restored in 1802, surrendered in 1807 and restored in 1815 again, to be bought by the United States in 1917. The inhabitants are English-speaking even after two centuries of Danish rule. The islands were given a nominated legislative council of eight members (four being official) in 1774. The natives are interesting as being a mixture of Carib and Spanish with marked character-

istics. Now they are ruled by a governor and executive council.

W. Westergaard, "The Danish West Indies under Company Rule, 1671–1754," 1914; J. T. Faris, "The Virgin Islands," 1918; Suckling, "Historical Account of the Virgin Islands," 1780.

Virginia. [American Colonies.]

Viscount is a title of nobility between those of earl and baron. As an hereditary honour it was introduced into England in Henry VI's reign, John, Baron Beaumont, being created viscount by letters patent of February 1440. The title has never been used to any great extent in England, though in latter times it has been the custom to confer it on prominent cabinet ministers when they are raised to the peerage, and on retiring Speakers. It must be remembered that the Latin word *vice-comes* is always used to translate the English *sheriff*; in this sense the word seems to have been brought into England from Normandy at the time of the Conquest, and was used by the invaders for the English shire-reeve because the Norman *vice-comes* was the nearest equivalent to that office.

Visitation, The Committee of, appointed by the Scottish parliament, consisted of Presbyterian clergymen, who were to purify the Church by visitation. The result was the expulsion of many Episcopalian clergy on charges of immorality, which were often the result of malice.

Vitoria, The Battle of (June 21, 1813), was the first great battle of Wellington's campaign of that year in the Peninsular War. Vitoria stands on a small eminence with the Zadora flowing through the plain on its northern side. In the Vitoria basin Joseph Bonaparte had collected all the baggage, camp-followers, and plunder of the previous campaigns. On the 19th the allies came up, and encountered the French in some partial skirmishes. Joseph's plan was to hold the bridges over the Zadora; Wellington determined to deliver three attacks on the French position, which was very widely extended. Hill, on the right, was to force the bridge of the narrow pass called La Puebla, and drive in the French left. Wellington himself was to carry the three chief bridges in the centre, while on the extreme left Graham was to turn the French right, and so enclose the whole army in the Vitoria basin between the Zadora and the Puebla range. On the morning of the 21st Hill seized the village of La Puebla, and while some of his men were detached to seize the heights, he himself pushed on through the pass, and carried the village of Subigana. In the centre, and on the left, Kemp and Graham succeeded in driving back the enemy, and before long all the British troops were across the Zadora. The French began to retreat, but were hotly assailed on all sides, especially by Wellington from the hill of Aimez, which he had seized by a sudden rush. They nevertheless kept up a running fight for five miles, until, after being driven from each successive position, they finally gave themselves up to a headlong flight, leaving women and children, baggage, and artillery behind them as spoil for the pursuing troops. The allied casualties were about 5,000 and the French about 8,000.

Sir C. W. C. Oman, "Peninsular War," 1902–20; J. W. Fortescue, "History of the British Army," vol. ix, 1920.

"Vixen," Seizure of the, 1836. The *Vixen*, a vessel owned by the house of Messrs. Bell, London merchants, was seized by the Russian government in 1836 for infringing the blockade of Circassia. Great excitement was caused in England by the seizure, but the demand of Roebuck and others in parliament for a select committee on the subject was rejected by Lord Palmerston (June 1837).

Volunteer Corps in Great Britain are not entirely of recent origin. Henry VIII granted a charter in 1537 to the voluntary Gild of St. George, which grew into the Honourable Artillery Company. But an organized volunteer force originated in the Militia Bill of 1757. Disbanded in 1783, the English and Scots Volunteers were revived soon after the outbreak of the Revolutionary War with France (1793), when numerous volunteer corps were raised in England to defend the country in case of invasion, and to overcome internal disorder if necessary. These regiments were raised chiefly from the gentry and the middle classes, and were armed and equipped at their own expense. Several of the corps consisted of cavalry. In 1803, when the war broke out again, the volunteer movement received a great impetus. A bill known as the Military Service Bill was passed, authorizing the enrolment as volunteers of all able-bodied men. Many new regiments were formed, and the numbers of the Volunteers rose to over 300,000. Pitt put himself at the head of the movement, and, as warden of the Cinque Ports, raised a force of 3,000 Volunteers, of which he was in command. Though not called upon to repel invasion, these Volunteer Corps were frequently useful in suppressing riots. In 1857 the intemperate language used about Great Britain in French newspapers and public meetings roused the nation to its defenceless condition. In consequence large numbers of Rifle Volunteer Corps were formed all over the country in 1859. The movement spread and took firm root. In 1860 an act was passed to regulate the conditions of service, and in 1862 amended. Several other statutes were passed in reference to the Volunteers, and in 1871 an act provided for the resumption by the Crown of direct authority over the Volunteers. Thus the Volunteers were closely incorporated with the military system of the country, and placed under the direct control of the war office. In 1881 they were further affected by the regulations of the forces, and by administrative changes; the chief of which was that of attaching the Volunteer Corps as auxiliary battalions to the line regiments. The Volun-

teers did signal service during the Boer War, some 20,000 being used in the campaign of 1900. In 1908 the whole force (335,000 strong) was combined with the yeomanry into the new Territorial Force (q.v.).

Volunteers, The Irish. The movement for establishing Volunteer corps began about 1778, owing, on the one hand, to the boldness of American privateers, and, on the other, to want of money, which prevented the lord-lieutenant from establishing a militia. It was part of the definite system of compelling the English government to grant legislative and commercial independence to Ireland by that country adopting the methods of agitation which had been so successful in America. In 1779 the first regular regiment, under command of the Duke of Leinster, was formed in Dublin, and though the Catholics were persuaded to abstain, Protestant corps were formed all over the country, commanded by country gentlemen. They were soon 40,000 strong. On September 13 parliament passed a vote of thanks to them, and the patriots, anxious to imitate America, at once determined to use them to extort concessions from England. In this they had not miscalculated; and the government, being unable to spare troops for Ireland, had to grant free trade in 1779. Grattan had now begun to attack the Union. The Volunteers supported him, and elected Lord Charlemont to be their leader, in defiance of the Castle. In the north they began to hold reviews, their flag bearing the inscription "*Hibernia tandem libera.*" Soon afterwards, they passed resolutions declaring free trade in danger and denouncing the Perpetual Mutiny Bill. The House of Commons at last took alarm, and in September 1780 declared their resolutions "false, scandalous, libellous, and tending to raise sedition." All through 1781 the Volunteers continued to recruit till their numbers were estimated at 100,000. Meanwhile their uselessness in case of invasion had been shown by the fact that when Cork was threatened, only 300 came forward to defend it. In April 1782, when parliament again met, the Volunteers poured into Dublin in great numbers to give Grattan confidence. The Irish demands were granted, and without doubt the constitution of 1782 was due to the inability of the government to oppose any force to the Volunteers, who at this time actually had 80,000 men under arms, and 130,000 on the rolls. It was owing to their opposition that a projected increase of the army had to be given up. The second Convention at Dungannon declared in favour of reform, and, with the Earl of Bristol as leader, the Volunteers became a real danger to the State when they assembled again in the "Volunteer Convention" of November 10, 1783, at Dublin, under the presidency of Lord Charlemont, and drew up a Reform Bill, which excluded all Catholics. After this the better classes retired from the movement, and the ranks began to be filled chiefly with Catholics. In 1785 they were again the idols of the mob, though a vote of thanks to them was lost in the Commons. The failure of a congress to be held under their auspices through the firm action of the government, and the suppression of the Whiteboys (q.v.) in 1787, made them less formidable. Wolfe Tone tried to revive them, but without success, and the Arms Bill of 1792 finally put an end to the movement, the carrying out of the law being entrusted to the soldiery, who met with opposition at Belfast alone. Many of the arms of the Volunteers, however, had previously passed into the hands of the peasantry, and were used in 1798.

J. A. Froude, "English in Ireland," 1872–4.

Vortigern was, according to the traditional story of the Anglo-Saxon conquest, the prince of a confederacy of tribes in Northern Britain about the middle of the fifth century. The "Historia Brittonum" of Nennius is our authority for the statement that he invited the Saxons into Britain to help him against the Picts and Scots. Hengest (q.v.), their leader, is said, however, very soon to have turned against him, and, after several engagements, to have driven him out of Kent. His many vices were punished, through the intervention of St. Germanus, by a fitting end, fire descending from heaven to consume him, his harem of wives, and all his following! That this story belongs, so far as the details are concerned, to the realm of legend rather than of history, is self-evident. But it is probable that it contains a substratum of truth, since the expedient of calling in one set of barbarians for defence against another was common in the declining years of the Empire, and the story of the mercenaries turning against their employers and becoming conquerors instead of defenders finds many parallels in contemporary history.

Vortimer (Gortimer) (*d.* c. 450) was, according to Nennius, the eldest son of Vortigern (q.v.), and the active opponent of Hengest and the Saxon invaders, whom he is said to have valorously encountered on four occasions. According to Nennius's account, Vortimer at first succeeded in confining the Jutish invaders to the isle of Thanet, defeated them in three battles, and forced them to send over to Germany for a fresh supply of warriors. Three times after this he defeated the new-comers. Shortly after this last victory he died, with his last breath bidding his friends bury him by the sea-side, and uttering a prophecy that the strangers would not hold their conquests for ever. There is, however, every reason to suspect the details of the story.

W

Wade, George, General (1673–1748), entered the army in 1690. He served under the Duke of Marlborough during the reign of Queen Anne. In 1708 he was raised to the rank of

brigadier-general, and was elected member of parliament for Hindon in 1715. In 1725 he was sent to pacify the Highlands in pursuance of the "Act for Disarming the Highlanders." He seems to have become personally popular, even whilst faithfully obeying most distasteful orders. He employed himself more usefully in making military roads across the Highlands. They have been immortalized in the famous lines—

"If you had but seen these roads before they were made,
You would hold up your hands and bless General Wade."

From 1722 to 1748 he sat as a member for Bath. In 1744 he commanded the British forces in Flanders, but could accomplish nothing against the superior skill of Marshal Saxe. On the outbreak of the Jacobite rebellion of 1745 he collected what troops he could at Newcastle. A false report that he was advancing to relieve Carlisle induced the Pretender to relinquish for a while the siege of that city. However, he pursued the Pretender through Yorkshire, but his inactivity during the campaign was a general subject of complaint, and he was in consequence superseded in command by Hawley.

Wade, Sir William (1546–1623), one of the diplomatists and statesmen of Queen Elizabeth's reign, was sent to Madrid in 1584 to explain to Philip II the causes of his ambassador's (Mendoza) dismissal, but the king refused to see him. The same year he was entrusted with the task of explaining to Mary, Queen of Scots, her hopeless position if she refused a reconciliation with Elizabeth, and in 1585 vainly endeavoured to procure the extradition of the Jesuit, Thomas Morgan (q.v.), from Henry III of France. He subsequently took possession of the Queen of Scots' papers at Chartley after the discovery of the Babington Conspiracy (q.v.). He was knighted by James I in 1603.

Wager of Battle, "a relic of old Teutonic jurisprudence," was apparently a Norman innovation introduced into England under William the Conqueror. It was thereafter used to settle many questions. Witnesses might be compelled to defend their veracity by battle; a man could prove in this way his innocence of crime, his right to property, or his right to obtain payment of a debt. If charged with an offence by a private individual he had the right to plead not guilty, and throw down his glove and declare his readiness to defend his innocence with his body. If the challenge was accepted by the accuser the two proceeded to fight on the appointed day; if the defendant was defeated, or unable to continue the combat all day, he was convicted and punished; while if he was victorious, or could protract the fight till nightfall, he was acquitted, and his adversary was fined sixty shillings and declared infamous. The parties were obliged to fight in their own persons, except the appellant were a woman, a priest, an infant, sixty years old, lame, or blind, in any of which cases he might "counterplead the battle," and compel the defendant to put himself upon trial by his country. The practice of employing "champions" easily developed, however, and in 1275 was recognized by statute. As a Norman innovation trial by battle was much disliked in England, and in borough charters we frequently find exemptions from it granted as a privilege. Frowned upon by the Church, and by the growing body of lawyers who favoured the newer remedies of Henry II, it fell gradually into disrepute, although it remained as a possible alternative in real actions to the Grand Assize and as a means of disproving an appeal of murder down to 1819. In 1817 a certain Abraham Thornton, on his trial for alleged murder, demanded a "trial by battle," and on the refusal of the prosecutor to accede, was discharged; this led, in 1819, to an act abolishing "appeals of murder, treason, felony, or other offences, and Wager of Battel, or joining issue, and trial by Battel in Writs of Right." [Ordeal.]

W. S. Holdsworth, "History of English Law," 1923; Neilson, "Trial by Combat"; Lea, "Superstition and Force."

Waitangi, The Treaty of (February 1840), was made between Captain Hobson, representing the British government, and the Maori chiefs. By it the sovereignty of New Zealand was handed over to Great Britain, whilst Captain Hobson promised protection to the natives together with the rights of British subjects, confirming also to the chiefs and tribes of New Zealand the full, exclusive, and undisturbed possession of their lands, etc., "so long as it might be their wish to retain them."

Wakefield, The Battle of (December 31, 1460), was an important Lancastrian victory during the Wars of the Roses. The battle of Northampton had placed the supreme power in the hands of York, who had been acknowledged heir to the crown, but Queen Margaret, who had fled to Scotland, refused to acknowledge this arrangement, whereby her son was deprived of the succession, and, raising an army in Wales and the north, advanced against the Yorkists. The Duke of York marched against her, and took up his position in his castle at Sandal, near Wakefield. The two forces met on Wakefield Green, between the town and Sandal Castle. The Yorkists, who were greatly inferior in numbers, were defeated; the duke was slain, his son, Rutland, was murdered by Lord Clifford while escaping from the battlefield, and the Earl of Salisbury and others were sent to Pontefract, where they were beheaded.

R. B. Mowat, "Wars of the Roses," 1914.

Wakefield, Edward Gibbon (1796–1862), remembered for his imprisonment in 1826 as a result of his marriage with Ellen Turner at Gretna Green, was the originator of the system of colonization bearing his name. It aimed at securing an adequate supply of labour in newly-settled countries by abolishing the free granting of land to intending settlers. Instead of this practice, the land was to be sold at £1 or more

per acre, and the proceeds were to be applied to assisting immigration. Thus an industrial element might be secured in the population of the colony which would cause an additional demand for agricultural produce and so increase the total production of wealth. This system, which was at first adopted in South Australia and Victoria, as well as in New Zealand, was strongly opposed by Sir Richard Bourke, governor of New South Wales, and, except in South Australia, never had any hold. In May 1839 Wakefield became private secretary to Lord Durham, while high commissioner of Canada.

Wakefield, "Art of Colonisation," 1849. A sketch is given in Fawcett's "Manual," and some reference is made to it in J. S. Mill's "Political Economy." Biography of Wakefield by R. Garnett, 1898.

Wakeman, Sir George (*fl.* 1608–85), was physician to Queen Catherine, wife of Charles II. He was accused of conspiring to poison the king at the instance of the queen (1679). The chief witness against him was Titus Oates (q.v.), whose evidence on this occasion was more than usually contradictory. Wakeman was acquitted, but was so frightened by the menace of a second trial that he left the kingdom.

Walcheren Expedition, The (1809), was projected by the British government on the renewal of the war between France and Austria, in order to effect a diversion and assist the latter power, by compelling the French to withdraw part of their forces from the Danube valley. The capture of the immense arsenal which Bonaparte had fortified and extended, expressly as a menace to Great Britain, was also a great object. The armament, which was dispatched on July 28, was one of the largest ever sent forth by Britain. It consisted of 35 ships of the line and frigates, and an enormous number of transports, conveying over 40,000 infantry and cavalry; but the results achieved by this great force were miserably inadequate. Lord Chatham, the brother of Pitt, who was in command, was destitute of decisive energy or military capacity. On July 29 part of the British force landed in the isle of Walcheren and seized Middelburg, while other divisions captured the fortresses at the mouths of the Scheldt. Antwerp might have been seized by a *coup-de-main*; but instead, time was lost in the siege of Flushing, which surrendered on August 16. By the time the British were prepared to begin the siege of Antwerp that city had been put into a thorough state of defence, and the garrison had been very largely reinforced. As it was now the beginning of September, Chatham, suspending operations, withdrew his troops to the island of Walcheren, and kept 15,000 of them there as a garrison, while the remainder were sent back to England. But the sanitary arrangements of the army were extraordinarily bad, and the damp climate of Walcheren told terribly on the soldiers. Before a month was over half the garrison was in hospital. Orders were therefore given to destroy Flushing and abandon the island, which was completely evacuated before the end of the year. The failure of the expedition was made the occasion of violent attacks in parliament, and the ministry were only saved from a vote of censure by a narrow majority. A violent quarrel broke out between Canning, who was foreign minister, and Castlereagh, who, as war minister, was held to be largely responsible for the mismanagement of the campaign. It resulted in a duel (September 21), followed by the resignation of both ministers.

"Parliamentary Debates," vol. xv, appendix i; "Annual Register," 1809.

Waldegrave, Sir Edward (1517–61), one of Mary's most trusted advisers, used his utmost endeavours to prevent the queen's marriage with Philip II of Spain. He was appointed in 1558 on a committee of ways and means, but found no favour with Elizabeth, by whom he was sent to the Tower for transgressing the Act of Uniformity (1561).

Walden, Roger, Archbishop of Canterbury (*d.* 1406), was secretary to Richard II, by whom he was employed on diplomatic errands. In 1395 he was appointed lord high treasurer of England. When Archbishop Arundel was driven into exile in 1397 the king obtained the archbishopric from the pope for Walden. On the deposition of Richard II Walden's life was threatened, but he came to terms with Arundel and, resigning the see, retired into private life. In 1405 he was elected Bishop of London by Arundel's influence, and held that see till his death in the next year.

Wales is strictly the district inhabited by the foreigners, for that is the literal meaning of the term "Welsh," applied by the English to all the Britons alike. Its limits have varied with the progress of the English arms. In the sixth century it included an unbroken stretch of country from the Clyde to the English Channel, but the conquest of Chester and the Severn Valley at the end of that century cut up the land of the Welsh into three distinct portions, of which the northern part has been described under Cumbria, and the southern under Damnonia. It remains to speak of the central portion, which we still call Wales, but which was then called North Wales, to distinguish it from West Wales, south of the Bristol Channel, and whose inhabitants called themselves Cymry, and the land Cymru. Before the end of the sixth century the modern Wales was simply a fragment of South Britain. It was originally peopled by the primitive pre-Aryan savages, who are thought to have largely survived in the great tribe of the Silures; then by Goidels of the earlier Celtic migration, who long maintained their hold in the west; and then by Brythonic Celts, who were in turn subdued by the Romans, whose roads, towns, and mines showed the reality of their power. Their withdrawal in 410 led to the breaking up of settled government, the relapse of the Britons into the tribal organizations so characteristic of the Celts, the relaxation of the

feeble bonds which Roman Christianity had cast over them, and an anarchy which threatened speedy conquest by the English.

During the sixth century, however, a remarkable revival of energy seems to have occurred in Celtic Britain, and not least in Wales. The political revival, which set bounds to the English conquest, and united the Britons, firstly under Gwledigau, or temporary generals in war, such as the famous Arthur, and, at a later stage, under national kings, such as Cadwallon, who held Northumbria a whole year in servitude—the political revival, perhaps, affected Strathclyde more intimately than Wales. But even in Gildas we read of great princes, like Maelgwm of Gwynedd, and the tradition of the migration of Cunedda from the region of the Wall to North Wales, of the expulsion of the Goidel by his descendants, and the story of Kentigern's wanderings from Clyde to Clwyd show that Wales, too, was affected by the movement. The peculiar organization of the Celtic Church certainly originated in Wales, though its highest development was worked out in Ireland and Scotland.

But the promise of national development was never fulfilled. Enough was done to set limits to the Saxon conquest, but no really united state was formed. Despite the later stories of Kings of all Britain, and Kings of all Wales, Wales was during nearly the whole of its history split up into an infinity of tribal states, over which very rarely some powerful character or vigorous stock acquired a loose overlordship that was never strong enough to make itself permanent. In the north the Kings of Gwynedd were, perhaps, the strongest line in Wales, but their authority over much of the wide district so named was probably very slight. In the south we know of a very large number of petty states. In the south-west the kingdom of Demetia or Dyfed was in early times the most important. But to the north the aggressive state of Ceredigion grew at the expense of the older kingdom. Gwent, Morganwg, Brecheiniog, and, in the north-east, Powis, were other important divisions. In short, Wales was a group of clan states, with a few greater sovereignties, claiming indefinite suzerainty over the lesser ones and each other. The history of these petty states consists primarily in endless and purposeless feuds with each other, true "battles of kites and crows," as no political development, no national state gradually evolved from the conflict. But fierce invaders from east and west made it necessary for the petty kings to unite sometimes for common defence. The English from the east, the Irish Danes from the west, constantly plundered and pillaged. Especially terrible were the ravages of the "black pagans" from beyond sea. After a long period of predatory incursions they perhaps ultimately formed a permanent settlement in Dyfed. On the west the Mercian overlords were formidable neighbours during the eighth century. Offa conquered Pengwern and the western portion of Powis, and built a dyke from Dee to Wye to mark off the limits of his kingdom and keep the Welsh marauders in check. He probably co-operated with Elvod, Bishop of Bangor, in forcing the Catholic Easter on the unwilling Welsh. During this period the meagre Welsh annals give a bare catalogue of obscure kings. The end of the Mercian overlordship left the way clear for the development of the remarkable power of Rhodri Mawr (843–877), who seems to have added to his patrimony of Gwynedd the kingdoms of Powis, Ceredigion, and Dyfed, and to have thus been ruler of nearly all Wales. It is said that on his death he divided his dominions into three portions among his three sons, and that the three chief states of later Wales—Gwynedd, with its capital Aberffraw, Powis, with Mathraval as the royal seat now that Pengwern had become Shrewsbury, and Ceredigion, including Dyfed, with the king's residence at Dinevawr, near Llandilo. Under Rhodri's grandson, Howel Dda (q.v.) of Dinevawr (907–48), another hope of national unity arose. But the West Saxon monarchs were too strong for such attempts. The friendship of Asser had brought Alfred's troops into the western wilderness of Demetia. All the South Welsh kings acknowledged Alfred as their lord. South Welsh bishops were consecrated at Canterbury, and a deadly blow struck at the old wild freedom of the Welsh episcopate where every bishop was, so to say, archbishop as well as bishop of his own see. Howel himself attended Edward's and Athelstan's witenagemots. The laws that go by his name are a curious combination of old Welsh customs with those of the English court. On Howel's death Wales became more anarchic than ever. Its relation to England checked its internal development, but the English supremacy was too weak to impose order and strong government from without.

In 1015 Llewelyn ap Sitsyll conquered the usurper Aedhan ap Blegywryd, and inspired with new vigour the kingdom of Gwynedd. His son Gruffyd became king over all Welshmen, and, in close alliance with his father-in-law, Elfgar, Earl of the Mercians, played a really important part in the history of the time. At last the triumph of the house of Godwin proved fatal to the Welsh king. His great victories in Herefordshire, which far exceeded the measure of the border forays which are the staple of Welsh history, were punished by two brilliant English campaigns under Harold in person. At last in 1065, after Harold had ravaged Wales from end to end, Gruffyd was slain by the treachery of his own men. The conqueror divided his dominions among his kinsmen, Bleddyn and Rhiwallon, to be held as dependencies of the English crown, and, by pushing the English frontier still farther westward, prepared the way for the new period of Saxon aggression, which made the Norman Con-

quest an event more important in Welsh than even in English history.

The foundation of the great border Palatinates by William I was the first result of the Conquest on Wales. The earldoms of Hugh of Chester and Roger of Shrewsbury proved an iron barrier which effectually set limits on Welsh forays for the future. Their military organization made them equally capable of becoming centres of offensive warfare. In the true spirit of their race a swarm of Norman knights and adventurers poured over the borders into Wales. The earldom of Chester soon extended its bounds to the Conway, and its vassal, Robert of Rhuddlan, governed the vale of Clwyd. The modern county of Montgomery roughly marks the district now added to the Shrewsbury earldom. Earl Robert of Belesme was the terror of all Welshmen. His brother Arnulf conquered Ceredigion and Dyfed. Bernard of Neufmarché founded the lordship of Brecon in the old district of Brecheiniog. Robert Fitz-Hamon conquered the vale of Glamorgan. Gower, Kidwely, Ystradtowy, were similarly appropriated. Unable to withstand the Normans in the field, the Welsh withdrew to their mountain fastnesses, and, in sudden forays, revenged themselves on their oppressors. Revolt after revolt of the conquered peasantry confined the Norman lords to their castle walls. To guard against the repetition of such events, English or Low German colonists were planted in southern Dyfed, in Gower, and perhaps in parts of Glamorgan, and the old inhabitants ruthlessly driven out. Commerce came in the invaders' train, and towns sprang up in a community hitherto unacquainted with urban life. Norman priests and bishops followed the soldiers and merchants. The Welsh sees were finally subjected to Canterbury. The southern bishoprics were permanently bestowed on Normans. By the time of Henry I the Normans had conquered all southern and western Wales worth having. After the fall of Rhys ap Tewdwr (1090) the native princes laid aside even the title of king. In Gwynedd alone, whose monarch now began to be called Princes or Kings of Wales, was a really strong Celtic power left. There the disastrous fate of Norman interlopers into the see of Bangor showed that the native spirit was still unsubdued. The territories thus conquered became known as the Lordships Marcher. Conquered by independent adventurers, they possessed all the rights of a Palatine earldom. [Counties Palatine.] Their lords were practically kings on their own estates, and were bound to the English monarch by no other tie than simple allegiance. For all practical purposes they were as free as the lords of Aberffraw. After a generation or two, many begin to amalgamate with the conquered race, or at least to intermarry with them and get mixed up in their quarrels. The succession of great English barons to some of these lordships—for example, the union of Gloucester and Glamorgan—had an important reflex influence on English politics. Yet the Welsh race was still far from being subdued. The return of Gruffyd ap Cynan from his Irish exile (1100) marks a new development of culture and literature among the Cymry. The Welsh bards renewed their songs. The Welsh chroniclers became more copious. The old laws were re-edited. Even politically they were only reduced to a certain extent. The Marcher lords were as much divided as the Welsh chieftains. English help was far off, and often ineffectual. Physical difficulties always imposed obstacles on feudal armies among the mountains of Gwynedd. Henry II's three expeditions into Wales (1156, 1163, and 1165) were disastrous failures, and were followed by none of those indirect successes which had attended similar invasions of Rufus. Owen Gwynedd (*d.* 1169) was a prince of vigour, activity, and power. The expensive energy of the Normans was diverted into other channels with the departure of Strongbow to Ireland. The Celtic sympathies of Geoffrey of Monmouth, the strangely chequered career of Giraldus Cambrensis, show the approximation of the two races. Archbishop Baldwin's crusading tour throughout all Wales in 1188 marks the comparative peace that now reigned. The alliance of Llewelyn ap Iorwerth, who became Prince of Gwynedd in 1194, with the baronial opposition to John, shows that, despite differences of race, all feudal dependents of the Angevin monarchs had a common interest in setting limits to the arbitrary power of their imperious overlord. Llewelyn's occupation of Shrewsbury helped the success of the movement that won Magna Carta, and the regard shown to his rights in that famous instrument suggests that the barons were not ungrateful for his aid. Llewelyn's marriage with John's bastard daughter kept him in peace with Henry III for some time. But in 1228 Henry sent an expedition against him which signally failed, and exacted nothing but barren homage from the powerful chieftain. Up to his death in 1240 Llewelyn waged constant and not unsuccessful war on the Lords Marchers, and succeeded in extending his power in some of those southern districts where their power was slight. Between 1240 and 1246 David, son of Llewelyn by his English wife, governed the principality; but in 1246 Llewelyn, son of Gruffyd, son of Llewelyn by a Welsh mother, succeeded him, at first jointly with his brothers, but afterwards alone. The national revival, which had been marked under Llewelyn ap Iorwerth, reached its culminating point in Llewelyn ap Gruffyd. The energy of the Welsh became greater, their literary activity bore greater results.

In 1255–7 the young prince Edward failed in his attempts to curb Llewelyn's power. In alliance with Simon de Montfort, Llewelyn took an active part against the king during the Barons' Wars. His projected marriage with Eleanor, Earl Simon's daughter, involved his

alliance with the French crown and the remnants of the disaffected party in England. In 1275 Edward I seized the bride on her way to Wales. A fierce attack of the injured prince upon the Marchers was followed in 1277 by an expedition of Edward that exacted his submission, and in 1278 he was allowed to marry Eleanor. But in 1282 his treacherous brother David incited him to a fresh revolt. Edward resolved to settle the Welsh question once for all. He made a great effort, systematically conquered the country, and, on Llewelyn's death in battle, declared his dominions forfeited to the Crown. Thus Edward I subdued the only native Welsh state of any importance. The Statute of Wales (12 Ed. I) finally annexed the Principality (i.e., the dominions of Llewelyn) to the Crown, introduced the English law, with a special judicial system under the Justice of Snowdon, and established six sheriffdoms of Anglesey, Carnarvon, Merioneth, Flint, Carmarthen, and Cardiganshire, with organization analogous to those of the English shires. But the Principality, though united to the Crown, was not absorbed in it. It was not a part of England, but a conquered country. It became the custom to invest with the dignity of Prince of Wales the eldest son of the sovereign. Edward's campaigns and legislation affected the Principality only. The hundred and forty Lordships Marcher went on as before, except that an act of 1354 (28 Ed. III, c. 2) declared them dependent not on the Principality, but on the English crown. Their wild freedom, with its private wars and constant outrages, still continued.

Several revolts showed the unwillingness of Gwynedd to acquiesce in the English conquest. The strong line of Edwardian castles alone kept the country subdued. David's luckless rising in 1283, the revolts of Rhys ap Maredudd in 1287 and 1292, that of Madoc, Mailgwn, and Morgan in 1294, show the difficulty involved in establishing the Edwardian system. After it had slept for nearly a century Welsh national feeling was again aroused by the revolt of Owen Glendower (1400—q.v.), whose private feud with his neighbour, Lord Grey of Ruthin, became the germ of a determined effort to throw off the English yoke. In conjunction with the Percys, the Mortimers, and the Scots, afterwards with French support, Owen managed to defeat expedition after expedition sent against him by Henry IV. From one end of the country to the other he made his power felt, and managed to maintain his independence till his death (about 1415). But the English reconquest was ultimately effected, and a series of harsh penal statutes was passed to check further revolts. The establishment at Ludlow of the Court of the President and Council of Wales (1478) was Edward IV's contribution to the establishment of a stronger system of government. The disorders of the period of revolt gradually disappeared. The conquerors and the conquered began to approximate towards each other. The queen dowager of England, and the last representative of the line of John of Gaunt, both married into the same Welsh family. Henry Tudor became King of England. His son passed a series of statutes which incorporated the Principality with England, restrained the powers of the Lords Marchers, made all Wales shire-ground, and introduced, with English laws, English local self-government and parliamentary representation (27 Hen. VIII, c. 26, and 34 & 35 Hen. VIII, c. 26). The only difference between Wales and England now, besides the still existing, though diminished, powers of the Marchers and the Court of the Council of Wales at Ludlow, was the fact that instead of being united to any English circuit, a special court of justice, called the "King's Great Sessions in Wales," was to be held twice a year under special justices; an arrangement which continued until 1830, when Wales and Cheshire were formed into new English circuits.

These great measures of justice formed a new epoch in Welsh history. The peaceful, if slow, acceptance of the Reformation, the literary and educational revival that began under Elizabeth, illustrate the beneficial results of the change. During the Civil War Wales was, as a whole, strongly Royalist. Some North Welsh castles were the last places to hold out for Charles I. Soon after the Revolution of 1688 the Court of Ludlow, and the remnants of the Marcher jurisdiction, were abolished.

During the eighteenth century the Methodist movement profoundly influenced the character of Wales. While introducing a new religious fervour, a higher tone of morality, and a greater amount of energy, its Puritanism made much havoc with the more harmless features of old Welsh life. The movement began with Griffith Jones, vicar of Llanddowror, whose system of "circulating schools," established in 1730, was the only important step made in that age towards popular education. In 1736 Howell Harris began to preach. His connexion with Whitefield determined the theology of Welsh Methodism. The suspension of the famous preacher, Daniel Rowland of Llangeitho, first turned the Welsh Methodists in the direction of Nonconformity. In 1811 the formal separation from the Church took place. By that time the great bulk of the people had become Dissenters. [As a logical consequence the disestablishment and disendowment of the episcopalian Church of Wales was at length effected by the Welsh Church Act of 1914.] Hardly until the nineteenth century did the industrial revolution affect Wales. The development of the coal and iron trades in the south has since enormously increased its population and resources; [and has led to a steady process of urbanization with resultant depopulation of the rural districts]. [Celts; Church of Wales; Church, The Early Celtic; Counties, The Welsh.]

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[T. F. T.]

Wales, Church of. [Church of Wales.]

Wales, Prince of, is the title usually borne by the heir apparent of the English sovereign. After the death of Llewelyn, the last native Prince of Wales, Edward I in 1301 created his son Prince of Wales. It is noticeable that, whereas the heir apparent is born Duke of Cornwall, it is only by creation that he becomes Prince of Wales. The English princes who have borne the title are:—

Edward, son of Edward I (afterwards Edward II).
Edward, son of Edward III (the Black Prince).
Richard, son of the Black Prince (afterwards Richard II).
Henry, son of Henry IV (afterwards Henry V).
Edward, son of Henry VI.
Edward, son of Edward IV (afterwards Edward V).
Edward, son of Richard III.
Arthur, son of Henry VII.
Henry, son of Henry VII (afterwards Henry VIII).
Edward, son of Henry VIII (afterwards Edward VI).
Henry, son of James I.
Charles, son of James I (afterwards Charles I).
Charles, son of Charles I (afterwards Charles II).
James, son of James II (the Old Pretender).
George, son of George I (afterwards George II).
Frederick, son of George II.
George, son of Frederick (afterwards George III).
George, son of George III (afterwards George IV).
Albert Edward, son of Queen Victoria (afterwards Edward VII).
George Frederick Ernest Albert, son of Edward VII (now George V).
Edward Albert Christian George Andrew Patrick David, son of George V.

Wales, The Statute of (1284), was passed by Edward I immediately after the conquest of Wales. Many English laws and regulations were introduced, such as the English law of succession; while Welsh local customs, as far as they were comparatively unimportant, were retained. [Wales.]

J. E. Lloyd, "History of Wales," 1911.

Walker, George (1618–90), was rector of the parish of Monaghan. He took refuge in Londonderry before the siege of that town, and was active in rousing the inhabitants to resist James II's troops. On April 17, 1689, he was elected one of the governors of the city, an office he continued to hold till August, when he yielded up his authority to Colonel Kirke. There is still a Walker Club in the town, and his statue surmounts the pillar erected on one of the bastions in memory of the siege. When he arrived in London, soon after the delivery of Londonderry from the Irish, the House of Commons passed a vote of thanks to him, and the king gave him £5,000. In June 1690 the bishopric of Derry fell vacant, and William III at once bestowed it on him. He had, however, contracted a passion for war, and much shocked the king by appearing at the head of the men of Londonderry in the campaign of 1690. He fell while leading the resistance to the Irish cavalry at the battle of the Boyne (July 1, 1690).

P. Dwyer, "Siege of Londonderry," 1893.

Walkinshaw, Clementina (1726?–1802), was a mistress of Charles Edward Stuart, the Young Pretender. He first became acquainted with her on his expedition to Scotland in 1745. He sent for her after his return from that country, and soon she acquired complete dominion over him. It was believed that she was in the pay of the English ministers; accordingly, in 1748, the English Jacobites sent an agent named Macnamara to request that the lady should, for a time at least, retire to a convent. Charles, however, obstinately refused to agree to this. He had a daughter by her in 1753, who died in 1789.

Vernon Lee, "The Countess of Albany," 1884; A. C. Ewald, "Life of Prince Charles Edward," 1875.

Wallace, William, the Scottish national hero, is believed to have been a younger son of Sir Malcolm Wallace of Ellerslie, in Renfrewshire. He began his career as a fugitive from justice, having been outlawed for an offence the nature of which is uncertain. He mustered a guerrilla band, and in May 1297 made an attack on the English quarters at Lanark, where he killed Hazelrigg, the governor. In the same month he pillaged the English court at Scone and almost captured the justiciar himself. His crowning achievement, however, was yet to come. On September 11, 1297, Wallace thoroughly defeated the English at Stirling, following up his victory by a raid into England. The next year he was chosen guardian of the kingdom in the name of King John (Baliol), and as a consequence increased the jealousy of many of the Scottish barons. Meantime Edward had returned from Flanders and hurried to Scotland, where he defeated Wallace at Falkirk (q.v.—July 22, 1298). At this time Wallace disappeared from public life, and is said to have visited France and Rome to enlist the sympathy of King Philip and the pope. It is perhaps more probable that he remained in the wilds of his native country with a few followers. In 1305 he was betrayed into the hands of the English at Glasgow by Sir John Menteith, carried to London, and tried at Westminster. He was condemned as a rebel and traitor to the English king, and executed (August 23, 1305). In spite of the want of authority which characterizes most of the stories told about Sir William Wallace,

there seems no doubt that he was a man of great capacity, and a military genius of a high order.

P. Hume Brown, "History of Scotland," 1911; C. S. Terry, "History of Scotland," 1920; J. P. C. Stuart, Marquis of Bute, "The Early Days of William Wallace," 1912; A. F. Murison, "Sir William Wallace," 1898; L. Spence, "The Story of William Wallace," 1919.

Waller, Edmund (1606–87), poet, was a relation of John Hampden. He was educated at Cambridge, and in 1623 took his seat in parliament as member for Amersham. The story of his unsuccessful courtship of Lady Dorothy Spencer, the daughter of the Earl of Leicester, appears to be well authenticated. A zealous member of the Long Parliament, Waller was appointed in 1643 one of the commissioners who negotiated with Charles I at Oxford. There he was won over by the court, and played a decidedly equivocal part, agreeing on his return to London to publish a commission of array, and so having collected troops to seize the city by a *coup de main*. The plot, however, miscarried, and he was heavily fined and condemned to banishment, after an abject submission to the House of Commons. In 1651 he was allowed to return to England, and attempted to curry favour with the Protector by his "Panegyric on Cromwell," which he followed up by an ode to Charles II after the Restoration. "Poets, sire," he wittily remarked to the king, "succeed better in fiction than in truth." In spite of his time-serving disposition, Waller was popular in the House of Commons, of which he was a member until 1683. His poems—dainty, but uninspired productions—have been frequently published. A fairly complete edition appeared in 1694.

Johnson, "Lives of the Poets."

Waller, Sir William (1597–1668), was a cousin of Edmund Waller (preceding). His military education was acquired in Germany during the Thirty Years' War. In 1640 he was returned to the Long Parliament as member for Andover. On the outbreak of the Civil War he was sent into the west of England, and at first gained such success as to acquire for himself the title of "William the Conqueror," but in July 1643 he was severely beaten both at Bath and Devizes. Parliament nevertheless thanked him for his exertions. In the following year he fell out with Essex, the commander-in-chief, and in consequence Charles I managed to make a sortie from Oxford and defeat him at Cropredy Bridge (June 29). Waller again returned unsuccessful to London. In 1645 he was removed from his command by the Self-denying Ordinance (q.v.), but soon resumed his appointment, and under Cromwell was successful in the west in the first campaign of the New Model army (q.v.). In 1647 he was one of the leaders of the Presbyterian party who attempted in vain to oppose the advance of the army on the capital, and was one of the eleven members against whom its resentment was especially directed. In 1660, during the troubled time which preceded the Restoration, he was a member of the council of state.

"Vindication of Sir William Waller," by Himself.

Wallingford, The Treaty of (1153), is the name usually given to the peace made between Stephen and Henry of Anjou, though only the preliminary negotiations took place at Wallingford, the treaty itself being concluded at Westminster. By this treaty Stephen was to retain the kingdom during his lifetime, but Henry was to succeed him, the rights of Stephen's children to the private dominions of their parent being guaranteed. According to later authorities a scheme of administrative reform was at the same time decided upon, which was intended to restore things as far as possible to the state in which they had been left by Henry I, but of this no mention appears in contemporary chronicles.

Walmoden, Amalie Sophia Marianne, Countess of Yarmouth (1704–65), was a mistress of George II. He had known her in Hanover, and shortly after the death of Queen Caroline she was brought to England and created Countess of Yarmouth—the last instance in our annals of a British peerage being bestowed on a royal mistress. Her character was quiet and inoffensive, and though she did not at first possess, she gradually gained considerable influence over the king. She was summoned when George was found dead, and by a codicil to the king's will was bequeathed £10,000. [George II.]

Walpole, Horace, 1st Baron Walpole (1678–1757), the elder brother of Sir Robert Walpole, became prominent as secretary to General Stanhope in Spain (1706). In 1707 he was appointed secretary to Henry Boyle, chancellor of the exchequer. In 1709 he was sent as secretary to an embassy to The Hague, and was afterwards in the same position at the negotiations at Gertruydenberg (q.v.). In 1716 he was sent as envoy to The Hague. He subsequently appeared at Hanover, and remonstrated with Stanhope for the suspicions he entertained of Townshend, and was sent home with letters calculated to heal the breach in the ministry. In 1720 he was appointed secretary to the Duke of Grafton, lord-lieutenant of Ireland. In 1723 he was dispatched to Paris to counteract Sir Luke Schaub (q.v.). He ardently attached himself to Cardinal Fleury, and remained in France until 1727. In 1728 he was one of the plenipotentiaries to the congress at Soissons. In 1733 he was sent as envoy to the States-General. In 1739 he was sent to Holland to receive the auxiliary troops stipulated in case of hostilities. In 1741 he was made secretary to the exchequer, and in 1756 was raised to the peerage. According to his nephew, "he knew something of everything but how to hold his tongue, or how to apply his knowledge."

Horace Walpole, "Memoirs," 2nd edn., 1802; Coxe, "Walpole," 1816.

Walpole, Horace, 4th Earl of Orford (1717–97), was the fourth son of Sir Robert Walpole, and the nephew of Lord Walpole. In 1741 he entered parliament for Callington, but he never took a prominent part in debate. In 1757 he exerted himself in favour of Admiral Byng. He remained in parliament till 1767. In 1791 he succeeded his nephew in the family title and estates; but never took his seat in the House of Lords. So far as he had any political feeling at all, he was inclined to a speculative republicanism. As a man of letters, *virtuoso*, novelist, critic, and retailer of public and private gossip, Horace Walpole is one of the most characteristic figures of the eighteenth century. His "Memoirs" of the last ten years of George II's reign, though inaccurate and prejudiced, contain a good deal of information, and his letters (which are among the most entertaining in the language) are very valuable for the insight they give into the social history of the century.

Walpole, "Works," 1792, and "Correspondence," 1840; Lord Dover, "Life," prefixed to the "Letters to Sir H. Mann"; L. B. Seeley, "H. Walpole and His World," 1884; Austin Dobson, "Horace Walpole," 1890 and 1910.

Walpole, Sir Robert, 1st Earl of Orford (1676–1745), was the son of a Norfolk gentleman, and was educated at Eton and King's College, Cambridge. In 1701 he entered parliament as member for Castle Rising, and in 1702 for King's Lynn. He soon attracted the attention of the Whig leaders. In 1705 he was placed on the council of Prince George of Denmark as lord high admiral, and in 1708 succeeded St. John as secretary at war. In 1710 he was one of the managers of Sacheverell's trial, of which he secretly disapproved; and when the Whig ministry was driven from office he persisted in resigning in spite of Harley's solicitations to him that he should retain his place. He now became with Somers a leader of the Whig opposition, and being charged with peculations as secretary at war he was expelled the House and sent to the Tower, where he remained till the prorogation. His defence was, however, quite complete, and he was re-elected for King's Lynn. He wrote at this time two able pamphlets in support of the late ministry, "The Debts of the Nation Stated and Considered," and "The Thirty-five Millions Accounted For." On the accession of George I Walpole was chosen chairman of the committee of inquiry into the conduct of the last ministry. In 1715 he became first lord of the treasury and chancellor of the exchequer. But, disliked by the king, and angry at the dismissal of Townshend, he resigned in 1717. In this year he had established the first sinking fund. Immediately he passed into unscrupulous opposition, and spoke against the Mutiny Act, the Quadruple Alliance, the Peerage Bill, and the repeal of the Schism Act. Finding opposition hopeless, he offered to rejoin the ministry, but was only made paymaster of the forces, 1720. On the fall of the South Sea Company it was felt that he alone could deal with the matter, and his measures, though severe, were felt to be just. On the death of Stanhope he was left without a rival, and became chancellor of the exchequer and prime minister (April 1721). His history is now the history of England. He crushed Atterbury's plot (q.v.), and taxed the Non-jurors' estates to the amount of £100,000. Already his jealousy of rivals, the great fault in his character as a minister, had become apparent; and he and Townshend drove Carteret from office. Meanwhile the situation abroad had become complicated; the alliance between Austria, Spain, and the Duke of Bourbon's party in France was checked by the Treaty of Hanover between Great Britain and France. On the death of George I Walpole, disliked by the new king, found himself in danger of being superseded by Sir Spencer Compton. Owing to the representations of Queen Caroline he remained in power. The opposition consisted of discontented Whigs led by Pulteney, and the remnant of the Tories under Bolingbroke. In 1730 Walpole quarrelled with Townshend, who retired from political life, and in 1733 with Chesterfield. His supporters consisted of such second-rate men as Newcastle, Stanhope, Compton, and Harrington. He had, however, at his back a majority secured by bribery. In 1729 the Treaty of Seville (q.v.) preserved the peace of Europe for a time. In 1733 Walpole brought forward his celebrated excise scheme, a measure thoroughly sound and justifiable; but such was the success of Pulteney in rousing public feeling against it that he had to abandon it. In 1734 he was much blamed for keeping aloof from the war waged by the emperor against France and Spain. In this year the opposition joined to attack the Septennial Act. They failed; and Bolingbroke withdrawing to France, the leadership of the party fell on the Prince of Wales, whom Walpole had offended by resisting the increase of his income. In 1737 Queen Caroline's death deprived him of a staunch and faithful friend. The opposition, now reinforced by Pitt, continued to attack his pacific policy; Newcastle began to intrigue against him, and favoured the king's desire for war. Nevertheless Walpole concluded a convention with Spain; and the opposition, wishing to drive matters to a crisis, seceded from the House. It had become obvious that he must declare war or resign. He chose the former course (1739). The war was disastrous. [George II.] In February 1741 Sandys proposed that he should be removed from the king's councils. The motion was thrown out; but in the following year Walpole, taking his defeat on the Chippenham election petition (February 2, 1742) as a test, resigned. He was created Earl of Orford. In March a secret committee of inquiry against him was chosen; but in spite of its animosity it failed to bring any but the most trivial charges against the ex-minister. He seldom spoke in the Lords, having, as he remarked to

his brother Horace, "left his tongue in the Commons." In 1745 he died, having retained his influence with the king to the last. Walpole's character was exposed to the most violent misrepresentation from his contemporaries. His jealousy of power made many eminent men of the age his enemies; while the corruption by which he maintained his position is indisputable. But to him are due the completion of the Revolution Settlement, and the preservation of peace at a time when peace was most required by his country. "The prudence, steadiness, and vigilance of that man," says Burke ("Appeal from the New Whigs," etc.), "preserved the crown to this royal family, and with it their laws and liberty to this country."

Coxe, "Memoirs of Sir Robert Walpole," 1816; Ralph, "Critical History of Lord Walpole's Administration"; A. C. Ewald, "Sir R. Walpole," 1875; Lord Morley, "Walpole," 1889; E. Jenks, "Walpole," 1893; P. Vaucher, "Robert Walpole et la Politique de Fleury, 1731–42," and "La Crise du Ministère de Walpole, 1733–4," 1924.

Walsingham, Sir Francis (1530?–1590), "the most penetrating statesman of his time," was born at Chislehurst, in Kent, and passed most of his youth abroad. On his return to England after the accession of Queen Elizabeth his abilities and accomplishments recommended him to the notice of Lord Burghley, who sent him to the court of France as ambassador (1570), in which capacity he showed great "fidelity, diligence, and caution." In 1573 Sir Francis was recalled, sworn of the privy council, and made one of the principal secretaries of state, devoting himself especially from this date to the unravelling of the numerous plots against the queen and her government. His system of espionage was most elaborate, and his spies were active, faithful, and ubiquitous. He was knighted in 1577. In 1581 he was employed to negotiate the proposed marriage between Elizabeth and the Duke of Anjou, but failed to bring the matter to a successful issue, through the caprice of the queen herself. Two years later Walsingham was sent on a mission to Scotland, and subsequently had the satisfaction of detecting Babington's conspiracy (q.v.) and of implicating in it the Queen of Scots. That Sir Francis was her enemy there is no doubt, but it is unlikely that he forged any of the letters produced in evidence, as Mary declared, and his reputed letter to Sir Amyas Paulet, urging him "to find out some way to shorten the life of the Scots queen," is most probably a forgery. He was subsequently the means of preventing a breach between Elizabeth and James VI. Sir Francis, who was a staunch Protestant, and a thoroughly religious man, did his best to procure toleration for the Puritans; he "has the honour of having sustained and cemented the Protestant cause in times of its greatest peril, and of having effectually ruined the interests of popery by detecting and baffling all its plots." The integrity of his character was such that with every facility for amassing wealth in an age of corruption, he died so poor as to leave barely enough to defray the expenses of his burial. A biographer of the following century (Lloyd) says of him, "His head was so strong that he could look into the depths of men and business, and dive into the whirlpools of state. Dexterous he was in finding a secret; close in keeping it. His conversation was insinuating and reserved; he saw every man, and none saw him."

"Walsingham Correspondence"; Lloyd, "Statesmen and Favourites of England," 1665; biography by Karl Stählin, 1908; Conyers Read, "Mr. Secretary Walsingham and Queen Elizabeth," 3 vols., 1926; A. D. Innes, "Ten Tudor Statesmen," 1906.

Walter, Hubert, Archbishop of Canterbury (1193–1205), and justiciar (1194–98), was a nephew of Ranulf de Glanvill (q.v.), and first came into prominence during King Richard's captivity. He had accompanied the king on his crusade, and on his way homewards, hearing that Richard had been taken prisoner, he visited him. The king sent him over to England to act as vicegerent in his absence, to counteract the intrigues of John, and raise the ransom, while at the same time he used his influence to obtain Hubert's election to the archbishopric. In 1194 he was appointed justiciar, and held that office for four years, governing well and vigorously, his most important work being the repression of the insurrection of William Fitz-Osbert. To his administration belongs the initiation of several significant constitutional changes. The germs of the office of coroner and of that of justice of the peace are to be seen in his measures of 1194 and 1195, while important new departures in the sphere of taxation were necessitated to meet the heavy expenses incurred as a result of Richard's wars and captivity. On the death of Richard, Hubert supported the claims of John to the throne, and was by him appointed chancellor. His death removed a powerful check upon the violence and tyranny of the king and was followed by the outbreak of the great quarrel with the Papacy over the question of the appointment of his successor to the see of Canterbury. Hubert Walter is a favourable specimen of the statesman-ecclesiastic of the Middle Ages, and it is in the former light that he more frequently appears. He was a strong minister, and although as a good Englishman he made the pressure of his master's hand lie as light as he could upon the people, as a good servant he tried to get out of the people as much treasure as he could for his master. In the raising of the money and in the administration of justice he tried and did much to train the people to habits of self-government. He taught them how to assess their taxes by jury, to elect the grand jury for the assizes of the judges, to choose representative knights to transact legal and judicial work—such representative knights as at a later time made convenient precedents for parliamentary representation. The whole working of elective and representative institutions gained greatly

under his management. He educated the people against the better time to come.

Walter, Sir John (1566–1630), was attorney-general to Prince Charles in 1619, but refused to conduct the prosecution against Sir Edward Coke. Notwithstanding this, he was made chief baron of the Exchequer by Charles I in 1625. He showed considerable independence and spirit in the exercise of his judicial functions, and in 1629 gave his opinion against Holles and other members of parliament being prosecuted for acts done in the House of Commons. For this the king prohibited his taking his seat on the bench, though he nominally held his office till his death.

Walter, Lucy (1630 ?–1658), was the daughter of a Welsh gentleman, and in 1648 became the mistress of Charles II, by whom she was the mother of James, Duke of Monmouth. She lived with Charles in Holland. In 1656 she came over to England, where she was imprisoned in the Tower, but shortly afterwards released. After this little or nothing is known of her. When Monmouth put forward his claims to the throne it was contended by his adherents that his mother had been secretly married to Charles II, but of this assertion no proof was forthcoming, and Monmouth himself subsequently retracted it.

M. C. La Rothe, "Memoirs of the Court of England in 1675," 1913; A. I. Dasent, "Private Life of Charles II," 1927.

Waltheof (*d.* 1076) was a powerful nobleman, the son of Siward of Northumbria. After the battle of Hastings he submitted to William the Conqueror, and was allowed to retain his earldom of Northampton and Huntingdon. Subsequently, in 1069, he rebelled, but was forgiven, retained in his earldom, and married to the conqueror's niece, Judith. In 1072 he was given the earldom of Northumbria in succession to Gospatrick. In 1075 he was implicated in the conspiracy of the Earls of Hereford and Norfolk, which had for its object the partition of England into three earldoms under a purely nominal kingship. What Waltheof's share in this plot was is uncertain, probably it was no more than a tacit acquiescence. When the rebellion broke out he betrayed the plot to Lanfranc, and was for the moment pardoned, but in May 1076 he was executed at Winchester, it is said at the instigation of his wife. His body was removed to Croyland, where miracles were said to be worked at his tomb. The English looked upon Waltheof as a martyr, and the later troubles of William's reign were considered by them to be judgments on him for the murder of the earl.

Walton, Valentine (*d.* 1661 ?), married Margaret, sister of Oliver Cromwell, and joined the Parliamentary cause in the Civil War. In 1646 he was made a colonel, and in 1648 was appointed one of the members of the High Court of Justice to try the king. He was present at most of the sittings, and signed the death warrant. In 1649 he was made one of the council of state, but his stern republican views did not recommend him to Cromwell, and after the dissolution of the Long Parliament he retired into private life till Richard Cromwell's deposition, when he declared for the parliament against the army, and joined Monck. Perceiving that the Restoration was inevitable, he withdrew to the continent, where he remained in disguise till his death.

Walworth, Sir William (*d.* 1385), a citizen of London, was appointed with John Philipot in 1377 by parliament to supervise the collection and expenditure of the two tenths and fifteenths granted on October 13. In 1374 and again in 1381 he was lord mayor of London, and in the latter year attended the young king at his conference with Wat Tyler and the other insurgents. Fearing that Tyler was about to attack Richard, Walworth slew the rebel leader, for which feat he received the honour of knighthood.

Wandewash, The Battle of (January 22, 1760), was fought during the Seven Years' War between the French and British in India. The two armies of Lally and Coote encountered each other near Wandewash. The British had 1,900 Europeans and 2,100 native infantry, with 1,250 native cavalry, and 16 field pieces; the French 2,250 native cavalry and 1,300 sepoys, besides their Mahratta horse, with 20 field pieces. The forces were therefore fairly equal. After the combat, the French, who had suffered very severely, retreated. If the British native horse had done their duty, the defeat might have been even more decisive.

H. C. Wylly, "Sir Eyre Coote," 1922.

Wapentake is a name of Danish origin, and occurs only in the districts occupied by the Danes (e.g., Lincolnshire, Derbyshire, Nottinghamshire, Leicestershire, Rutland, Yorkshire, Lancashire), where it corresponds to the hundred (q.v.) of other parts of the kingdom.

Warbeck, Perkin (*d.* 1499), was one of the most celebrated impostors in history, who, for several years during the reign of Henry VII, succeeded in persuading many persons that he was Richard, Duke of York, the younger of the two princes generally supposed to have been murdered in the Tower under Richard III. According to the story of the writers under the Tudors, he was in reality the son of John Osbek, a Jew of Tournai, who settled in London in the reign of Edward IV and afterwards returned to Tournai. The lad, after his father's death, went to Antwerp, and came into communication with the agents of the Duchess Margaret of Burgundy, who, struck by his noble demeanour and resemblance to the Yorkist family, conceived the design of bringing him up as a pretender to the English throne. This story is borne out by Warbeck's own "Confession," and by a letter of Henry VII to Sir Gilbert Talbot as early as 1493. The mystery

can hardly be completely solved. The history of Warbeck's proceedings is briefly this. In 1492 he made his appearance in Cork as Richard Plantagenet, Duke of York, and obtained a reception so encouraging to his hopes of success that Charles VIII of France thought it well to invite him to take up his residence in Paris. He did not, however, have any long enjoyment of the French king's protection and hospitality, for Henry made it a special article of the treaty concluded at Etaples in the autumn of 1492 that no further shelter or assistance should be given to Warbeck. Flanders was the pretender's next refuge, and here he received a most cordial welcome from Margaret, Duchess of Burgundy, who acknowledged him at once as her nephew, honouring him on all occasions with the title of the "White Rose of England." Warbeck's arrival in Flanders was the signal for the beginning of a vast system of conspiracy in England against Henry's life and authority; but the king's resolute caution and the zealous activity of his spies, conspicuous among whom was Sir Robert Clifford, proved more than a match for the efforts of his enemies. Sir William Stanley, Lord Fitzwalter, Sir Simon Montfort, all prominent adherents of Warbeck, were brought to the block; and the pretended Duke of York, forced by these occurrences into a display of decided action, made in July 1495 a hurried descent upon the coast of Kent, at Deal. This, however, was a miserable failure, ending in the capture of 159 of his troops by the people of Sandwich. This experience of the feeling of the country for his cause drove Warbeck in despair to Flanders; but the commercial treaty concluded in February 1496, between Henry VII and Philip, Duke of Burgundy, expressly stipulating for his expulsion, the impostor, after an unsuccessful attempt to make a settlement in Ireland, crossed over thence to Scotland. Here his fortunes began for a time to look brighter; the Scottish monarch received him as Richard IV, the lawful King of England, and, as a very practical proof of the sincerity of his belief in his pretensions, bestowed upon him in marriage a kinswoman of his own, the Lady Catherine Gordon. Two fruitless invasions of England, and probably, too, the influence of Ferdinand of Spain, tended greatly to cool James IV's affection for Warbeck's cause, and in July 1497 he requested him to leave the country. Thus once again abandoned by his friends, Warbeck found a temporary refuge in the wilds and fastnesses of Ireland, which, however, he left on receiving an invitation from the people of Devon and Cornwall to make another attempt in England. He landed accordingly at Whitesand Bay, near Penzance, September 27, 1497, and, after capturing St. Michael's Mount, laid active siege to Exeter. On the approach, however, of the royal forces under Lord Daubeny, Warbeck retired to Taunton, whence, in despair of success, he withdrew secretly to the sanctuary of Beaulieu, in the New Forest. Here, on promise of his life being spared, he surrendered himself, October 5, to Lord Daubeny, by whom he was dispatched a prisoner to London. For a time Warbeck was treated with marked leniency, but on his attempting to escape in June 1498 he was at once placed in close confinement in the Tower; and in November 1499 he was executed in company with his fellow-prisoner, the young Earl of Warwick, on a charge of again attempting to escape, and of having conspired with Warwick and others, as a part of his plan, to get forcible possession of the Tower.

Gladys Temperley, "Henry VII," 1917; J. Gairdner, "Richard III," appendix, 1898; E. Henes and G. C. Brian, "Historical Sketch of Perkin Warbeck," 1902.

Ward, John William, 1st Earl Dudley and Ward (1781–1833), was elected member for Downton in 1802, and soon distinguished himself as a speaker in the House of Commons. In 1823 he succeeded his father in the peerage, and on the formation of Canning's ministry became head of the foreign office (1827), in which capacity he signed the Treaty of London (July 6), and the same year was raised to the dignity of an earl. In 1828 he joined Wellington's cabinet as foreign secretary, but retired in May of that year along with Huskisson and the other Canningites, Palmerston, Granville, and Grant. He was a man of eccentric manners, with a habit of thinking aloud. It was of him that Rogers wrote his celebrated couplet—

> "They say Ward has no heart, but I deny it;
> He has a heart, he gets his speeches by it."

Dudley, "Letters to 'Ivy,'" ed. S. H. Romilly, 1905.

Wardrobes, The. In the beginning the king's wardrobe was part of the king's chamber, being the small room adjacent, in which garments and valuables were kept. When the administrative work of the chamber increased, the wardrobe, becoming a repository for money and records, grew into a third treasury, and in the thirteenth century superseded the chamber as the financial and administrative department of the household. The chief officials of the wardrobe were a lay steward and a clerical keeper. Most of its revenue came from the exchequer, to which the keeper rendered an account, checked by a counter-roll, compiled by its second clerical officer, the controller. The controller was also keeper of the privy seal until 1312. As Chancery (q.v.) became more occupied with public business, the wardrobe, already the domestic exchequer, developed into the domestic chancery. Moreover, when the king went to war in person the wardrobe administered the finances of the undertaking, notably of the Scottish and Welsh wars of Edward I, and of many of the campaigns of the Hundred Years' War. Immediate dependence upon the king, freedom from rigid tradition, and machinery easily adaptable to the needs of the household in arms combined to fit the wardrobe for such a task. As both wardrobe and chamber followed

the court, it was convenient to have depositories or wardrobes in many of the places where the household stayed, in which cumbersome and other storable goods could be safely left until needed. To look after such stores there arose a subordinate wardrobe, first described as the GREAT WARDROBE in 1253—"great" indicating the size of the articles handled, not the dignity of the office. Most of the officials, of whom the head was the clerk of the great wardrobe, accompanied the household. But gradually the great wardrobe set up a central depot, first in the Tower of London, and later in various houses in the city of London. The former house of the Bardi in Lombard Street was used intermittently from 1331 to 1361, when permanent quarters were obtained in the parish of St. Andrew's by Baynard's Castle. There the great wardrobe stayed until the Great Fire. After that it was removed to Buckingham Street in the Savoy, and later was given accommodation in Great Queen Street. It accounted to the king's wardrobe up to 1324, and afterwards to the exchequer (q.v.), except between 1351 and 1360. The great wardrobe was also a clothing and arms and armour factory, and the collecting and distributing agent of the goods it stored and made. In war-time it was the ministry of munitions until another subordinate wardrobe, the PRIVY WARDROBE, grew up to look after arms and armour. In essence this was a movable store of chamber, wardrobe, and great wardrobe commodities. Between 1323 and 1344, directed by its keeper, a clerk, it established head-quarters in the Tower of London. The office in the Tower became independent of the court before 1360, and by 1399 was equally independent of chamber and great wardrobe, a small privy wardrobe being retained within the household. The premises of the privy wardrobe in the Tower were sacked by the rebels of 1381. The final result of all the fourteenth-century differentiation was that the king's wardrobe became, except in time of war, little more than an office of accounts for the household, described as the "wardrobe of the household," or more simply as "the household." When the privy wardrobe in the course of the fifteenth century grew into the king's armouries in the Tower of London, the great wardrobe was generally called "the wardrobe." It was abolished in 1782 and little even of the wardrobe of the household survived Burke's economical reform. [CHAMBER; HOUSEHOLD, THE ROYAL; SEAL, THE PRIVY.]

T. F. Tout, "Chapters in the Administrative History of Mediæval England." [D. M. B.]

Wards, THE COURT OF, was a court of record founded by 32 Hen. VIII, c. 46, for the survey and management of the rights of the Crown over its wards. Being joined to the Court of Liveries by 33 Hen. VIII, ch. 22, it was called the Court of Wards and Liveries. The seal of the court was kept by its chief officer, the master of the wards. Its province was to see that the king had the full profits of tenure, arising from the custody of the heirs of his tenants being infants or idiots, from the licences and fines for the marriage of the king's widows, and from the sums paid for livery of seisin by the heir on entering on his estate. A Court of Wards established in Ireland by James I compelled all heirs in the king's custody to be educated as Protestants, and enforced the oath of supremacy as a condition of livery of seisin. The jurisdiction of the Court of Wards was unduly extended, and became very oppressive under the first two Stuart kings. On February 24, 1645, the House of Commons "passed a vote that the Court of Wards itself, and all wardships, tenures, licences for alienation, etc., should be taken away"; and the lords concurred therein. The court was finally abolished by the statute 12 Car. ii, ch. 24, which destroyed military tenures.

J. R. Tanner, "Tudor Constitutional Documents," 1923; W. S. Holdsworth, "History of English Law," 1922. [W. H.]

Wardship ranked as one of the incidents of tenure by knight service (q.v.) and by grand serjeanty (q.v.), and consisted in the right of the lord, if the heir were under age on the death of the ancestor, to the custody of his land and person. The king possessed a right of prerogative wardship which entitled him to the custody of all the lands of a tenant-in-chief of whomsoever they were held, and of the person of the heir, to the exclusion of all other claimants. The right, which was obviously capable of great abuse, was carefully limited by Magna Carta. But increasing stress was laid on it by the Crown in proportion as the original meaning of feudal tenure was lost sight of, and in the sixteenth century the Court of Wards and Liveries was set up for the express purpose of regulating and administering the royal profits under this head. [MARRIAGE, THE RIGHT OF; FEUDALISM.]

Warenne, JOHN DE, EARL OF SURREY (sometimes called Earl Warenne) (*d.* 1304), was an adherent of Henry III in the early part of the Barons' War, and fought on the royalist side at Lewes. After the defeat he fled to France and his lands were confiscated by de Montfort. Returning in May 1265, he joined the escaped Edward at Ludlow, and participated in the Evesham campaign. Subsequently, however, he quarrelled with the king, as a result of an assault delivered upon the Zouches during the trial of a case between them in Westminster Hall in 1270. He retired to his estates in Surrey, and fortified his castle of Reigate against Prince Edward, but was compelled to surrender. He did not, however, entirely forfeit Edward's favour. He bore a conspicuous part in the Welsh and Scottish wars, and was appointed warden of Scotland in 1296. In 1297 he was in command of the army which was defeated by Wallace at Stirling. Despite this disaster he again commanded expeditions in 1298, and fought at the battle of Falkirk. Notwithstanding his services to the Crown he

was a strong supporter of the privileges of his order. He led the resistance to the *quo warranto* inquiry of 1278–9, and his sympathies were with the baronage in the agitation for the confirmation of the charters in the Lincoln parliament of 1301.

Warenne, John de, Earl of Surrey and Sussex (*d.* 1347), succeeded his grandfather John (q.v.) in 1304. During the early years of Edward II's reign Warenne vacillated between the royal and the baronial parties. In 1317 he embarked on a fierce quarrel with Thomas of Lancaster, whose wife Alice he abducted, but a reconciliation was effected in 1319. He joined with Lancaster in securing the rule of the Despensers, but in 1322 he espoused the cause of the king, and with Arundel was the last of the earls to remain faithful to Edward after the landing of Mortimer and Isabella. He subsequently made his peace with the invaders, however, and was appointed one of the council of regency during Edward III's minority. He supported the cause of Baliol in the hope of securing a Scottish earldom and participated in the expedition of 1333, but his prospects of reward vanished with Baliol's final discomfiture. He acted on several occasions as a councillor of regency in the absence of Edward III abroad in 1338, 1340, and 1345. On his death in June 1347 the bulk of his estates reverted to the Crown.

Warenne, William de (*d.* 1088), a Norman baron, distantly related to the Conqueror, fought on the Norman side at the battle of Hastings, and in 1075 was appointed one of the chief justiciars of the kingdom in William's absence. He assisted William Rufus against Robert in 1088, and died, perhaps of a wound received at the siege of Pevensey, in June 1088. He seems to have received from Rufus, as a reward for his services, the grant of the earldom of Surrey.

Warham, William, Archbishop of Canterbury (1450?–1532), was highly distinguished among the many prelates who favoured the spread of the new learning in England. Among his protégés was Erasmus, who speaks of him in terms of great regard. Warham was made keeper of the great seal (1502), and lord chancellor (1504), an office in which he was continued by Henry VIII. In the following year he became successively Bishop of London and Archbishop of Canterbury. The chief event of his primacy was an inquiry into the condition of the monasteries with a view to their reform. In 1515 he resigned the chancellorship on account of some difference with Wolsey, then Archbishop of York. We subsequently find him commenting adversely on the cardinal's severe taxation. The growing opposition to Rome greatly alarmed him; and when the clergy took the grave step of acknowledging that they could not legislate without the consent of parliament he resigned office, and not long afterwards died.

War Office, The, was constituted a department of state during the military reforms of the nineteenth century. Until 1854 the administration of the army was in the hands of the secretary of state for war and colonies (sitting at the colonial office), the secretary at war (the parliamentary representative of the army), the commander-in-chief (responsible to the Crown), the master-general and board of ordnance, and the commissariat department. But in 1854 the business of war was separated from that of the colonies, and in 1855 the offices of secretary of state for war and secretary at war were amalgamated. The board of ordnance was abolished. In 1870 the control of the commander-in-chief was amalgamated with that of the secretary for war.

O. Wheeler, "The War Office, Past and Present," 1914.

Warrants, General. [General Warrants.]

Warrington, The Town of, near Liverpool, was an object of contention more than once by the rival parties in the Civil War. In the summer of 1643 it was besieged and taken by the Parliamentarians, and in 1648 the Scots were defeated there by General Lambert after a severe tussle. Again, in 1651, it was the scene of a partial success gained by Charles II over the forces of the Commonwealth. An attempt was made to check the Young Pretender's army there in 1745, but it was foiled by the activity of the rebels. A charter of incorporation was granted in 1847.

Warriston, Archibald Johnston, Lord (1611–63). [Johnston.]

Warwick was probably one of the capitals of the Mercian kings. Destroyed by the Danes, it was rebuilt by Ethelfleda, the "Lady of the Mercians" (q.v.), who built a fortress there in 913. It appears as a borough in Domesday. The castle was repaired and enlarged under William the Conqueror. It sent members to parliament from the reign of Edward I onwards, but was not regularly incorporated till the reign of Philip and Mary.

Warwick, Peerage of. The earldom of Warwick appears to have been first conferred on Roger de Bellomonte by William the Conqueror, c. 1090. In the thirteenth century the dignity passed by the successive marriages of Margaret, daughter and heiress of the 6th earl, to John Marshal and John de Plessis, Earls of Pembroke, and subsequently to her cousin, William Mauduit, from whom it descended in 1268 to William de Beauchamp. In 1449 Richard Neville, eldest son of Richard, Earl of Salisbury, married Anne, the heiress of the Beauchamp estates, and was created Earl of Warwick. In 1471, on the attainder of the earl after the battle of Barnet, the dignity was conferred on the Duke of Clarence, who had married his daughter Isabella. Clarence's son, Edward Plantagenet, bore the title, but it became extinct on his execution in 1499. In 1547 it was

revived for John Dudley, afterwards Duke of Northumberland, and was also borne in turn by his sons John and Ambrose Dudley. On the latter's death in 1589 it became extinct. It was revived in 1618, and conferred on Robert, Baron Rich, but became extinct in this family in 1759. It was revived the same year for Fulk Greville, Earl Brooke, whose descendants have since borne the titles of Brooke and Warwick.

Warwick, Earls of. [Beauchamp; Dudley; Neville.]

Warwick, Edward, Earl of (1475–99), was the son of George, Duke of Clarence, brother of Edward IV, by Isabel, daughter of Richard, Earl of Warwick. After the execution of his father in 1478 the young earl was kept in honourable confinement at the castle of Sheriff-Hutton, in Yorkshire, until Henry's accession to the throne in 1485, when the earl's Yorkist blood, and the strong claims it gave him to the crown of England, made it a very obvious necessity on the new king's part to have him placed in the more secure prison of the Tower of London. From there he never again emerged except on two occasions, viz., in 1487, when he was paraded through the principal streets of London to disprove the imposture of Lambert Simnel, and in 1499, when he was beheaded (November 28) on a charge of being concerned with Perkin Warbeck (q.v.), then also a prisoner in the Tower, in a conspiracy to get forcible possession of the Tower and effect the overthrow of Henry's government.

Washington, founded in 1790 as the Federal capital of the United States, was attacked by the British during the American War (1812–14). A body of troops under General Ross was landed on Chesapeake Bay, while a fleet under Admiral Cockburn assisted in the operations. The Americans were able to offer little assistance to the veterans of the Peninsula, who had been sent straight off from Bordeaux for this service. The town was occupied by the British (August) after the battle of Bladensburg (q.v.), and though there was little loss of life, the Capitol and nearly all the public buildings were destroyed; an act which caused great indignation both in America and Europe. [American War.]

Glenn Brown, "History of the United States Capital," 1900–3; C. B. Todd, "Story of Washington," 1889.

Washington, The Treaty of (May 8, 1871), was concluded between Great Britain and the United States. Its provisions were that a mixed court of arbitrators should meet to adjust the *Alabama* claims at Geneva, and that by this award the two nations should be bound, prescribing also the rules in accordance with which the arbitrators should decide on their verdict; that the inhabitants of the United States should have the liberty to take fish of every kind, except shell-fish, on the sea-coasts and shores and in the bays, harbours, and creeks of Quebec, Nova Scotia, and New Brunswick, and the colony of Prince Edward's Island, and of the various islands adjacent, with permission to land for the purpose of drying their nets or curing their fish; that this liberty should extend only to sea-fishing; that the subjects of Great Britain should have similar rights of fishing and landing on the eastern sea coasts and shores of the United States north of the 39th parallel; that the navigation of the River St. Lawrence, its tributaries and canals, should be open to the subjects of the United States; that in return Lake Michigan, and the canals between it and the Atlantic, should be open to British subjects; that the San Juan question should be decided by arbitration; that this treaty should last for ten years, and should not expire after that time until two years had elapsed from the date when notice of withdrawal was given by either party. In accordance with this treaty the Geneva Commission of Arbitrators (q.v.) met to decide the *Alabama* claims, and the San Juan question (q.v.) was arbitrated by the German Emperor William, 1872. [Geneva Award.]

R. B. Mowat, "Diplomatic Relations of Great Britain and the United States," 1925.

Washington, George (1732–99), distinguished himself at the age of nineteen, on the outbreak of hostilities between Great Britain and France, and was aide-de-camp to General Braddock in his unsuccessful expedition against Fort Duquesne, taking part also in its capture in 1758. Together with Patrick Henry, he represented Virginia at the general congress at Virginia in 1774, and expressed moderate views by no means favourable to secession. On the outbreak of the War of Independence he was chosen commander-in-chief. This is the place for the very briefest account only of his military operations. His first great success was in compelling the British to evacuate Boston in March 1776, but he was defeated at Long Island by General Howe, and compelled to retreat west of the Delaware. A succession of defeats, notably at Brandywine in September 1777, followed two slight successes at Trenton and Princetown, but they were more than compensated by the victory of Gates at Saratoga (October 1777). In June 1778 he fought an indecisive battle at Monmouth Court House. During the greater part of 1779 and 1780 he remained inactive, owing to the weakness of his army; but in 1781, having been appointed to the command of the army of the South, he was enabled to direct the important operations of Green and Morgan, which resulted in the collapse of the British attack, and the surrender of Lord Cornwallis. On the conclusion of peace (1783) Washington resigned his commission to congress, and retired to his farm. He was, however, elected President of the National Convention at Philadelphia which remodelled the constitution (1787). Two years later he was elected President of the United States, and again in 1792. Perhaps the most distinguishing feature in his tenure of office was the skill with which he kept America clear of the

complications created by the French Revolution. In 1794 hostilities seemed imminent with Great Britain, but Washington averted them by sending John Jay to London on a special mission, and two years later negotiated a commercial treaty. He declined to be nominated for the presidency a third time. Just before his death, when war with France seemed at hand, he was appointed commander-in-chief. [AMERICAN INDEPENDENCE, WAR OF.]

J. Sparks, "Life and Writings of Washington," 12 vols., 1837, etc., and "Diplomatic History of the American Revolution," 1829; G. Bancroft, "History of the United States," 1885; biographies by Washington Irving, 1855, J. A. Harrison, 1906, W. R. Thayer, 1922.

Waterloo, THE BATTLE OF (June 18, 1815), was one of the decisive battles in history, since it closed the great European war against France, and decided the fate of Napoleon and of Europe. In June 1815 Napoleon crossed the Belgian frontier. Wellington's army was drawn up so as to cover Brussels, in a long line from Charleroi to Antwerp. The Prussians, under Blücher, extended eastward from Charleroi to Liége. Napoleon attempted to push between the two armies, and to crush them in detail. On the 15th he attacked the Prussians at Charleroi, and drove them back. On the 16th his right attacked the Prussians at Ligny, and, after a hard battle, forced them to retreat. Ney, with the French left, at the same time attacked the British at Quatre Bras. After fighting all day they fell back. The British slowly retired towards Brussels on the 17th. Wellington, relying on assistance from Blücher, who was slowly retreating towards Wavre, determined to fight at Waterloo. The field of battle consisted of two low lines of hills, running parallel to each other, east and west, and separated by a valley about half a mile in breadth. Wellington took up a position on the northern ridge, about twelve miles south of Brussels, with the Forest of Soignies in his rear, the centre of the position being the hamlet of Mont St. Jean. His army was drawn up in two lines. On the extreme left of the front line were light cavalry; next to them were the fifth and fourth Hanoverian brigades. On the right of these was Bylandt's Dutch and Belgian infantry, with Pack and Kemp's brigades on their right. On their right, and garrisoning the farm-buildings of La Haye Sainte, stood the Third Division, under Alten, consisting of the King's German legion and a Hanoverian brigade. To their right again was Halkett's brigade, and the two brigades of the Guards, under Maitland and Byng, who held the farm of Hougoumont. The second line was composed entirely of cavalry, the greatest strength being concentrated behind the centre, resting on the Charleroi road, Lord Uxbridge being in command of the whole. The French on the opposite ridge were drawn up in two lines, with the entire Imperial Guard, cavalry, and infantry, in rear of the centre as a reserve. The battle began at half-past eleven by a fierce attack on Hougoumont under Jerome: but though the French won the gardens and orchards, they could not drive the Guards from the buildings. As this attack failed in its main object, Napoleon directed a grand attack on the left-centre of the allied position. As the columns approached, the Dutch and Belgian troops fled in panic; but Picton, with the 3,000 men who formed the brigades of Pack and Kemp, seized the moment when the French halted on the brow of the hill. His men fired a volley at thirty yards' distance, and then, charging, drove the columns back over the hill. Meanwhile Kellermann's cuirassiers, who had ridden up the Charleroi road in support of Ney's attack, had been charged by Lord Uxbridge, at the head of the Household Brigade, and had been driven back in headlong confusion. It was about half-past three when Napoleon found that his grand attack had failed, and that, far from making any way, he had very much weakened his right wing, while, at the same time, there were sure signs of the approach of the Prussians. He directed all his splendid cavalry to attack the centre and right, while fresh assaults were made upon Hougoumont and La Haye Sainte. But the cuirassiers could make no impression on the impenetrable squares of British infantry, and the artillery played upon them as they retired, until they were almost wholly destroyed. In the meantime the attacks on La Haye Sainte had been carried on with determined vigour; and between six and seven o'clock the French took the place. The Prussians were pressing on, and were already carrying on a fierce contest for the possession of Plancenoit, which lay in the rear of the French right, and which the Young Guard had been detached to hold. Napoleon ordered the Old Guard, who had as yet taken no part in the struggle, to advance. The two columns advanced between La Haye Sainte and Hougoumont. They were unexpectedly encountered at the top of the ascent by Maitland's Guards, who were lying down. When the French arrived at the top the Guards suddenly rose up, at a distance of fifty yards, and while the French attempted to deploy into line, showered volley after volley into their ranks, till they became disordered. Then the Guards charged, and drove the French column headlong down the hill, returning to their position, however, in time to take part in the destruction of the second column, which bore on, undismayed, slightly towards the left. The column broke and fled in disorder. Napoleon, meanwhile, was rallying the remains of the first column of the Old Guard round La Belle Alliance; but Wellington now took the offensive. Soon after eight o'clock he gave the word for a general advance along the whole line. The British troops rushed down from the ridge, and up the opposite slope. The Old Guard bravely rallied, and attempted to stem the current. But it was in vain. The British swept away all resistance in their impetuous rush; and the French army gave itself up to flight in hopeless confusion. Welling-

ton, riding back, met Blücher at La Belle Alliance and entrusted to him the pursuit with the Prussians, who were comparatively fresh. The allies, under Wellington, lost 15,000 men killed and wounded in the battle; the Prussians 7,000; but the French army was annihilated. It lost from 23,000 to 30,000, and the survivors were a mere scattered mob. Wellington's army had numbered about 68,000 at the beginning of the battle, Napoleon's about 72,000.

Sir E. Creasy, "Decisive Battles of the World," 1851; Chesney, "Waterloo Lectures"; Hon. J. W. Fortescue, "History of the British Army," vol. x., 1920; G. Hooper, "Waterloo," 1862 and 1907; W. O'C. Morris, "Campaign of 1815," 1900.

[W. R. S.]

Watling Street. [Roman Roads.]

Watson, Richard, Bishop of Llandaff (1737–1816), was educated at Trinity College, Cambridge, of which he was elected a fellow in 1760. He became professor of chemistry in 1764, and in 1771 regius professor of divinity. He wrote largely both on scientific subjects and on theology, and had also written some pamphlets to defend and explain Whig principles, when, in July 1782, he was made Bishop of Llandaff by Lord Shelburne. He sided with the Whigs in the House of Lords, and supported the claims of the Prince of Wales in the regency question. In 1792, in his charge to the clergy, he vehemently eulogized the French Revolution. Subsequently he changed his views on this subject, and wrote in 1798 an "Address to the People of Great Britain," which was an energetic appeal in favour of the war against France, and excited immense public attention. In 1803 he wrote another pamphlet on the same subject. His best-known work is perhaps his "Apology for the Bible" against the attacks of Thomas Paine.

Waverers, The, was the nickname applied to a number of politicians led by Lords Wharncliffe and Harrowby, during the struggle over the first Reform Bill (q.v.). The Waverers objected "to the proposed metropolitan boroughs, to the uniform £10 franchise, and to the idea of single-member representation." Discussion with them failed to pass the bill on its introduction by Lord John Russell on December 12, 1831, but the threat to create peers induced them to vote for the second reading on April 14, 1832, though on May 7 they voted for Lord Lyndhurst's amendment advising that the disfranchising clauses of the bill should be postponed.

J. R. M. Butler, "Passing of the Great Reform Bill," 1914.

Waynflete, William of (*d.* 1486), was made master of the hospital of St. Mary Magdalen at Winchester about 1426–9, and in 1442 became a fellow of Henry VI's new foundation of Eton and in 1443 its provost. In 1447 he was elected Bishop of Winchester, and in 1456 became chancellor. In 1460 he resigned the great seal, but though he had been an attached friend to Henry VI, he made his peace with Edward IV. During the brief Lancastrian restoration his old loyalties revived, and he himself liberated Henry VI from the Tower; but Edward's return in 1471 convinced him of the hopelessness of the Lancastrian cause, and he made full submission. In 1448 Waynflete secured a charter for the foundation of Magdalen College, Oxford, which is his greatest monument. He also founded a school in his native town (now Wainfleet), in Lincolnshire, and completed the building of Eton College.

Ways and Means, The Committee of, is a committee of the whole House of Commons appointed to determine how the money is to be raised which has been voted to the Crown after the resolutions framed by the committee of supply have been agreed to. Its principal duty is to receive the budget or financial statement of the chancellor of the exchequer. Resolutions for new ways of raising revenue are often submitted to it previous to being embodied in bills.

Webb, Sidney (*b.* 1859), with his wife, Beatrice Webb, played a prominent part in developing the British Labour Movement. He was one of the founders of the *New Statesman* in 1913, took a keen interest in developing the London School of Economics and Political Science, and held the post of president of the board of trade in the first Labour Government, in 1924.

Wedderburn, Alexander, 1st Baron Loughborough and Earl of Rosslyn (1733–1805), was the son of a Scottish advocate and judge. He was called to the Scottish bar, and in 1757 to the English bar. In 1762, through the interest of Lord Bute, he was returned to parliament for the Rothesay and Inverary Burghs. In 1769 he spoke in support of the legality of Wilkes's election. In 1771, however, he left his party, and became solicitor-general to Lord North. In his new office he had no great opportunity of displaying his powers till, in 1773, he defended Lord Clive against General Burgoyne's resolution. During the following years he defended the policy of the ministry on the American war. In 1778 he refused the office of chief baron, and continued in parliament to urge the prosecution of the war. Next year he became attorney-general, and delivered his last great speech in the Lower House in favour of a firm policy of repression towards Ireland. In 1780 he became chief justice of the Common Pleas, with the title of Lord Loughborough. When the coalition ministry was formed (1783) the great seal was put into commission, and he was appointed one of the commissioners, but in 1784 the chancellorship was given to Lord Thurlow. In his disgust, Loughborough became a complete Foxite, took all pains to cultivate favour with the Prince of Wales, and advocated his claims in the debates on the Regency Bill. In 1791 he made a

vigorous attack on Pitt's Russian policy, and became so strong a Whig that he advocated measures for Catholic relief. He now opened negotiations with Pitt, who, in return for his services in securing the adherence of the Duke of Portland to the Pitt ministry, obtained for him the great seal (January 1793). In 1794 he advised the state prosecutions for sedition, and, while he cooled towards the Prince of Wales, tried to win favour with George III. In 1800 he opposed all measures for Catholic emancipation connected with the Union, and became estranged from Pitt. The next year he betrayed the prime minister's private correspondence to the king, and thereby obtained the dismissal of Pitt. Addington, succeeding to the vacant place, got rid of Loughborough by the bribe of an elevation to an earldom, with the title of Earl of Rosslyn. Henceforth his parliamentary career was unimportant. At his death George III is reported to have said, "He has not left a greater knave behind him in my dominions."

Campbell, "Lives of the Chancellors"; Sir G. O. Trevelyan, "Early Life of C. J. Fox," 1880; "The Wedderburn Book," 1898.

Wedmore, Peace of. [Chippenham, The Peace of.]

Welles, Leo, 6th Baron Welles (*d.* 1461), was a distinguished commander in the French wars, and in 1438 was made lieutenant of Ireland, which office he held till 1443. He fought on the Lancastrian side in the Wars of the Roses, and fell in the battle of Towton.

Welles, Richard, 7th Baron Welles (*d.* 1470), son of the preceding, was allowed to receive his father's goods and estates by Edward IV, though he had been attainted; and in 1468 he was restored to all his honours. In 1470 his son Robert (q.v.) raised a rebellion in Lincolnshire, and Lord Welles, being unable to induce him to submit, was put to death by Edward, contrary to a promise he had made.

Welles, Sir Robert (*d.* 1470), was the son of Richard, Lord Welles. In 1470 he raised a rebellion in Lincolnshire probably in the Lancastrian interest. He was attacked by the king, and totally defeated in the battle of Losecoat Field, near Stamford. He was captured, and beheaded the day after the battle. Edward then announced that his dying confession had implicated Warwick and Clarence in his treason and turned his army against them. They were caught unprepared and were compelled to take flight to the continent. Their actual relation to the rising is difficult to determine, but it appears improbable that it was engineered in their interest.

Wellesley, Arthur, 1st Duke of Wellington (1769–1852), was the fourth son of Garrett, 1st Earl of Mornington. He was educated at Eton, and afterwards at the military college at Angers, where he studied under the celebrated Pignerol. He entered the army in March 1787. His career in the field began in Holland (1794), under the Duke of York. He shared the hardships of this campaign, occupying the post of honour, the rearguard. He received a colonelcy in 1796. His next service was in India, where he passed through the whole of the Mysore War (q.v.) and the siege of Seringapatam (q.v.), being attached to the Nizam's contingent of horse. In July 1799 he was nominated governor of Seringapatam and Mysore, and the command-in-chief of the army of occupation was entrusted to him. He exercised the great powers conferred upon him in such a way as to deserve and obtain the gratitude and respect of the natives, and to display his own extraordinary talents for organization and command. While thus employed he found it necessary to take the field against the marauder Doondiah Waugh, whom he routed and slew. In 1803 he was raised to the rank of major-general, and shortly afterwards the Mahratta War broke out. Wellesley was appointed to the command of the force destined to restore the Peshwa to his throne after the conclusion of the Treaty of Bassein (q.v.), as well as to act against the Mahratta chiefs. Operations in the Deccan were quickly opened, and concluded by the brilliant victories at Assye (September 23, 1803), and Argaum (November 29), which effectually subdued the opposition of Sindhia and the Raja of Berar. Shortly after the close of the Mahratta War Wellesley quitted India, and after an absence of five years landed once more in England. In 1807 he was appointed chief secretary to the lord-lieutenant of Ireland. In the following August he was nominated to a command in the expedition to Copenhagen, and rendered important services, for which he received the special thanks of parliament. On July 12 the same year he started, with a command of 10,000 men, for Portugal, the Portland ministry having sent these troops at the request of the Portuguese government, who feared the ambitious designs of Napoleon. He landed successfully at Mondego, marched on Lisbon, and defeated the French at Roliça (August 17). Sir Harry Burrard, who had been appointed over Wellesley's head, now arrived and took the command, and countermanded all Wellesley's dispositions for the attack on Junot at Torres Vedras. The French therefore assailed the British at Vimeiro (q.v.—August 21) and again Sir Harry Burrard prevented the British success being decisive by forbidding Wellesley to pursue and cut off the French retreat to Torres Vedras. The Convention of Cintra (q.v.) roused the general indignation in Great Britain against the expedition and its commanders, and especially, but most unwarrantably, against Wellesley. He returned to England and resumed his Irish duties and his seat in parliament. In 1809, when the French had entirely occupied the Peninsula, Wellesley was sent out again with 24,000 men. He landed at Lisbon (April 22), marched against Soult, who was strongly posted at Oporto,

and drove him into Galicia. The state of his commissariat rendered it impossible to pursue and march on Madrid as he had intended; while the obstinacy and imbecility of the Spanish generals rendered co-operation impossible. In spite, therefore, of the crushing victory of Talavera (q.v.—July 27), he was obliged to retreat. The next year was occupied with the inroad of Napoleon, the victory of Busaco, and the successful defence of the lines of Torres Vedras. At last, in 1812, after the capture of Ciudad Rodrigo (January 19), and Badajoz (April 6), Wellesley began his march across Spain by defeating the French at Salamanca (July 22); opened the road to Madrid; and marched thence to Burgos. He was, however, compelled to retire once more to the Portuguese frontier. In 1813 he marched straight to Vitoria (June 21), and from victory to victory till Soult was finally routed at Orthez (February 27, 1814) and the abdication of Napoleon ended the great Peninsular War (q.v.). At the close of the campaign he was for his services created Marquis of Douro and Duke of Wellington; the House of Commons voted him an annuity of £10,000, which was afterwards commuted for the sum of £400,000, and on July 1 the thanks of the House were conveyed to him by the Speaker. The highest honours were conferred on him by the allies, and he was made a field-marshal in each of the principal armies of Europe. In August he proceeded to Paris to represent the British government at the court of the Tuileries. He remained five months, and bore a principal share in the negotiations of this year. In January 1815 the duke was accredited to Vienna as one of the representatives of Britain at the congress of the European powers (q.v.), and united with Austria and France in resisting the demands of Russia and Prussia. In February Napoleon broke loose from Elba, and Wellington was appointed commander-in-chief against him. The Hundred Days ended at Waterloo (q.v.), and the allied armies marched on Paris, where Wellington had the greatest difficulty in restraining the Prussian desire for vengeance; and it was partly in consequence of his advice that the army of occupation, which was to have remained for five years, evacuated France at the end of three. The military career of the duke thus came to an end. In October 1818, while attending the Congress of Aix-la-Chapelle, he was offered and accepted the office of master-general of the ordnance, with a seat in the cabinet. He took no prominent part, however, in the administration of home affairs, though he shared the odium which accrued to the government from its coercive policy. He represented Great Britain at the Congress of Verona (q.v.) in 1822, and protested against the armed intervention of the French court in the affairs of Spain. In 1826 he was sent on a special mission to St. Petersburg for the purpose of promoting a peaceable settlement of the Eastern question. In the following year he refused to serve under Canning, and resigned the post of commander-in-chief which had naturally come to him on the death of the Duke of York. In 1828 he himself became prime minister of England. The Canningites were allowed to retain their seats for a short time, but very soon dissensions arose, and they were either driven out or resigned spontaneously (May–June, 1828). The great question of Roman Catholic emancipation had now for a quarter of a century occupied the attention of parliament, and had become not so much a question of abstract principle and policy as of national peace and security. The continued anarchy of Ireland, the interminable division of cabinets, the distraction of imperial councils, and the utter impossibility of maintaining such a state of things, at last satisfied the duke and Sir Robert Peel that the time had come when the clamorous demand of the Roman Catholics should be conceded. The premier had a clear perception of the difficulties to be encountered, and the sacrifices which must be made in thus surrendering the citadel of Protestant ascendancy; but having made up his mind that this measure was necessary, he carried it through resolutely and characteristically. His policy was announced in the speech from the throne (February 5, 1829), and so vigorously was the measure pressed that in spite of the most determined opposition the Relief Bill passed both Houses by a large majority, and in little more than a month became law (April). The ministry of the duke was greatly weakened by his victory over the principles and prejudices of his party. His opponents were not conciliated, while many of his old supporters had become furious in their indignation. His foreign policy concentrated on support for Turkey and fear of Russia in the East, non-intervention in the Portugal-Brazil dispute, and immediate recognition of Louis Philippe. The duke failed to read the signs of the times, and his obstinate opposition to parliamentary reform caused the downfall of his ministry, the accession of Earl Grey (1830), and the passing of the Reform Bill (q.v.). At the final crisis of the bill Wellington, at the request of the king, left the House of Lords, followed by about a hundred peers, to allow the bill to pass. All through this period the tide of popular feeling ran strongly against the duke, who found it necessary to protect his windows from the mob by casings of iron. When the excitement of the reform agitation had subsided, popular feeling towards him gradually changed; and during the rest of his life he retained a firm hold on the affections of the English people. In 1834 the king announced his intention to recall the duke to his councils, but the latter insisted that Sir Robert Peel was the proper person to be placed at the head of the government, and himself accepted the post of foreign secretary. In 1835 he retired with his leader, and never again took charge of any of the great civil departments of state. In 1841, on the return of his party to power, he accepted a seat in the cabinet, but without

office; though he took an active part in the business of the country. In 1842 he again became commander-in-chief, and was confirmed in the office for life by patent under the great seal. When the Irish famine brought the Anti-Corn-law agitation to a crisis he changed with Peel, and gave that minister the warmest and most consistent support in his new commercial policy. It was, in fact, mainly through the duke's influence that the opposition of the great territorial magnates was withdrawn. On the complete break-up of the Conservative party, in 1846, the duke formally intimated his final retirement from political life, and never again took any part in the debates in the House of Lords except on military matters. But he continued to take the warmest interest in the welfare of the army, the country, and the sovereign, and was regarded by Queen Victoria as a friendly and intimate adviser. With the nation the popularity of "the duke" during his later years was extraordinary and almost unique. Wherever he appeared he was received with enthusiasm and affection. On September 14, 1852, he died at Walmer Castle, where he resided as warden of the Cinque Ports.

Of Wellington's eminence as a general there is no question. In an age of great commanders he was one of the greatest; inferior to few of his contemporaries, save the great opponent whose designs he so often defeated. The integrity, honesty, and disinterested simplicity of his private character are equally little open to doubt. His position as a statesman admits of more dispute. That he did not altogether comprehend the spirit of the age in which he lived can scarcely be denied.

"Wellington's Dispatches," 3 Series, 1852, 1860–6, and 1867. Biographies by A. H. Brialmont, 1852; G. L. Gleig, 1857–61; Geo. Hooper, 1889 and 1924; J. W. Fortescue, 1925; Sir C. W. C. Oman, "Peninsular War," 1902–20; and biographies of contemporaries. [S. L.]

Wellesley, Richard Colley, Marquis Wellesley (1760–1842), was the eldest son of the 1st Earl of Mornington, and elder brother of the Duke of Wellington. He took his seat in the Irish House of Lords as soon as he was of age, and also entered the English House of Commons as member for Beer Alston in 1784, and afterwards for Windsor. He took the Tory side in the debates on the regency of 1788, and greatly distinguished himself. In 1797, having previously occupied a seat on the board of control, he received a British peerage (as Baron Mornington), and was nominated to succeed Lord Cornwallis as governor-general of India. In 1799 he became Marquis Wellesley in the Irish peerage. His governor-generalship in India was an eventful period. On first landing he found the British power exposed to great dangers, owing to the existence of a formidable body of disciplined troops in the service of the Nizam. By great firmness and skill Lord Mornington prevailed on the Nizam to disband his army, and to enter into a subsidiary alliance with Great Britain. He next determined to crush the power of Tippoo Sultan (q.v.), who was then deeply engaged in intrigues with France. Owing to the firmness and energy of the viceroy, the troops were speedily put into a state of efficiency. In 1799 war was declared on Tippoo, and three armies advanced on Seringapatam. The Bombay army won a victory at Sudaser, and that of Madras at Malavelly and Arikera. Seringapatam (q.v.) was invested and captured, and Tippoo slain in the assault. Mysore was partitioned, and the Mohammedan dynasty driven out. In 1801 Lord Wellesley organized the Red Sea expedition (q.v.), and dispatched a large force into Egypt to assist in the operations against the French. He then proceeded to intervene in the affairs of the Mahratta states. He forced the Treaty of Bassein (q.v.) upon the Peshwa Baji Rao (q.v.). Thereupon a combination of Sindhia, Holkar, and the Raja of Berar was formed against the British, and the result was the hardly-contested campaigns in which the British, under Colonel Wellesley and Lake, were completely successful. The siege of Aligarh, the battles of Delhi and Laswari, soon reduced Sindhia's French battalions in Hindustan; the battles of Assye and Argaum were followed by the treaties of Deogaom and Surgi Anjengaom, which embodied the submission of Sindhia and the Bhonsla.

Meanwhile Lord Wellesley had paid much attention to the commercial development of India. He gave great offence to the court of directors partly by the magnitude and expense of his military exploits, partly by allowing private British vessels to trade in India, contrary to the company's monopoly. In 1805 Wellesley was recalled. Attempts were unsuccessfully made in parliament to accuse him of high crimes and misdemeanours, and the court of proprietors passed a vote of censure on him by a large majority. But after thirty years the feeling changed, and the directors, taking advantage of the publication of his dispatches, voted him a grant of £20,000, and ordered his statue to be placed in the India House. His policy in India was to establish British influence; to oblige the native rulers to enter into permanent treaties with him; to place the political management of their provinces in the hands of a British resident; to pay for the support of an army largely officered by Europeans; while the native princes at the same time retained the domestic government in their own hands. "The administration of Lord Wellesley may be regarded as the third great epoch in the formation of the British Indian empire. . . . Lord Wellesley was the first to perceive that in India a political equilibrium was impossible; that peace was only to be insured by establishing the preponderance of British power; and that the task of breaking down the Mahratta confederacy was as practicable as, sooner or later, it must have been necessary, to be undertaken."

In 1809 Wellesley was appointed ambassador

in Spain. From 1809 to January 1812 he was secretary for foreign affairs in Spencer Perceval's cabinet, but resigned in consequence of a difference with his colleagues on the Roman Catholic claims in Ireland. In May 1812 he unsuccessfully attempted to form a coalition government. Under Lord Liverpool he was the champion of the rights of the Roman Catholics in Ireland. In 1815 he loudly censured some of the provisions of the peace with France. From 1821 to 1828 he was lord-lieutenant of Ireland, but when his brother, the Duke of Wellington, took office, and declared against the Catholic claims, the lord-lieutenant resigned. In 1831 he was appointed lord steward, under the Grey ministry, and in 1833 again became lord-lieutenant, but resigned in 1834.

"Dispatches of the Marquess Wellesley," ed. by R. Montgomery Martin, 1836–7; Pearce, "Life of Wellesley," 1847; biographies by G. B. Malleson, 1889, Torrens, 1880, W. H. Hutton, 1893; "Wellesley Papers," ed. Lord Rosebery, 1914.

[B. S.]

Wellington, Arthur Wellesley, 1st Duke of (1769–1852). [Wellesley.]

Welsh Judicature, Abolition of (1830). In 1820 a select committee was appointed to inquire into the Welsh judicature, which had existed for centuries, in spite of proposals to remove it. The Common Laws Commissioners of 1822 decided that its continuance was indefensible. Peel therefore introduced (1830) a bill for its abolition, and for adding an additional judge to each of the three superior courts at Westminster. The bill became law on July 23, 1830 (1 Will. IV, c. 70). The special sessions in Wales were abolished, and that country, with Cheshire, was erected into new circuits, served by the ordinary judges. [Councils, Civil.]

Wenlock, John, Baron Wenlock (*d.* 1471), was originally a supporter of the Lancastrian party, and fought in the first battle of St. Albans. Subsequently he went over to the Yorkists, and was attainted in 1459. He commanded the rear of the Yorkist army in the battle of Towton, and many honours and rewards were given him by Edward IV. He afterwards joined Warwick and the malcontents (1471), and fought on the Lancastrian side in the battle of Tewkesbury, where he was slain, it is said, by Somerset, who suspected him of treachery.

Wensleydale's Case, Lord (1856). Sir James Parke (1782–1868), judge of the Court of Exchequer, was raised to the peerage by the title of Baron Wensleydale in 1856; but the patent which conferred the title on him (January 16) contained the unusual recital that his barony was to be held "for the term of his natural life." This creation was an attempt to revive a right which had lain in abeyance since the reign of Richard II. There was a very strong feeling in the House of Lords against this, and Lord Lyndhurst acted as its exponent. Three great legal authorities, who seldom united on any point, were agreed in strenuous opposition to this change—Lords Lyndhurst, Brougham, and Campbell. The lord chancellor, on the other hand, supported it, and was probably responsible for it. After some discussion, and the proposal of a great number of resolutions, the government yielded, and conferred on Sir James Parke a patent of peerage drawn up in the ordinary form. He took his seat in the Lords on July 25.

Sir Erskine May, "Constitutional History," ed. Francis Holland, 1912.

Wentworth, Charles Watson-, 2nd Marquis of Rockingham (1730–82), succeeded his father in the marquisate in 1750, and was in the following year appointed lord-lieutenant of the North and West Ridings of Yorkshire. From his great wealth and influential position, rather than on account of any great ability, he was early recognized as one of the chiefs of the Whig party. When George III succeeded to the throne and displayed his intention of freeing himself from the Whig control, the Marquis of Rockingham, with the rest of his party, found himself in opposition alike to the ministry and the court, and was one of those dismissed from their lord-lieutenancies in 1763. On the death of the Duke of Devonshire in 1764 Rockingham was at once acknowledged as the leader of the Whig party; and in 1765 the king, unable any longer to endure the haughty independence of Grenville, threw himself into the arms of Rockingham. The king, however, never intended to entrust the government of the country for any length of time to a minister whose principles differed from his own on every point, and soon began to thwart the government in every measure by a secret and thoroughly organized opposition. In spite of this the marquis managed to carry some beneficial measures. He soothed the ill-feeling which had been aroused in the American colonies by the Stamp Act, by repealing the obnoxious measure; and at home he passed an act declaring general warrants illegal. But circumstances were too strong for him. He was always a bad speaker, and had thus failed to acquire much personal influence in parliament, or to offer any effectual opposition to the secret influence of the court party. In May 1766 he resigned, and for the next sixteen years remained out of office. He offered all the opposition in his power to the ruinous policy which Lord North pursued towards the colonies, and gave what aid he could to Wilkes in his struggle against the tyranny of the House of Commons on the question of the Middlesex election. By his consistent conduct and unfailing integrity he held his party together through a long period of opposition, until, on North's resignation, he for the second time became prime minister in March 1782. He formed a cabinet which had all the elements of

strength and apparently of permanence. Negotiations with the American colonies were opened on a broad and liberal basis, which soon resulted in a peace between the two countries. Burke introduced a large scheme of economical reform; but Rockingham's death in July prevented the execution of the liberal plans which had been the programme of the administration.

Albemarle, "Rockingham and His Contemporaries"; Rockingham's "Memoirs," 2 vols., 1852. [S. L.]

Wentworth, Peter (1530 ?–1596), was member of parliament for Tregony, in Cornwall, and a man of courage and independence. During the session of 1576 he made a speech reflecting on the undue influence of the queen in parliament, and defending the privileges of the House. For this he was sequestered, and a committee of all the privy councillors in the House was appointed to examine him. He was sent to the Tower, but released at the queen's request in a month, being reprimanded on his knees by the Speaker. In 1588 he was again committed to the Tower through the instrumentality of the Speaker, Serjeant Puckering (afterwards lord keeper), for some questions which he proposed to put in favour of freedom of speech. In 1593 he was again imprisoned for presenting a petition to the lord keeper, desiring "the Lords of the Upper House to join with those of the Lower in imploring her majesty to entail the succession of the crown, for which they had already prepared a bill."

Hallam, "Constitutional History."

Wentworth, Thomas, 1st Earl of Strafford (April 13, 1593—May 12, 1641), the son of Sir William Wentworth, was educated at St. John's College, Cambridge, and represented Yorkshire in parliament from 1614 to 1628, with the exception of the assembly of 1626, when he was incapacitated by being appointed sheriff. In parliament he maintained an independent position, inclining rather to the popular party than to the court. In 1621 he opposed the attempt of James to limit the rights of parliament, and proposed a protestation. In 1627 he opposed the forced loan levied by Charles, and was for a short time in confinement. In the parliament of 1628 he for a time exercised great influence in the Commons, and attempted to embody the liberties of the subject in a bill, and thereby to lay a secure foundation for the future, and reconcile king and Commons. But he did not share in the general passion for war with Spain in 1624, nor did he sympathize with the objections of the Puritans to the king's religious policy. What he desired was a government intelligent enough to perceive the real needs of the nation, and strong enough to carry out practical reforms, in spite of the opposition of local and class interests. It was in accordance with these ideas that Wentworth entered the king's service. He was created a peer in July 1628, and became in December of the same year president of the council of the North. He entered the privy council in November 1629, and became lord deputy of Ireland in January 1632. Measures for the better carrying out of the poor law, for the relief of commerce, and for the general improvement of the condition of the people were probably the results of his presence in the council. In the north his vigorous enforcements of the law without respect of persons was the chief characteristic of his administration. In Ireland his abilities had freer scope. He protected trade, founded the flax manufacture, organized a respectable army, and introduced many reforms into the Church and the administration. But his harshness to individuals and his intolerance of opposition gained him numerous enemies amongst the English colonists, whilst his disregard of the king's promises to the native Irish, and the threatened plantation of Connaught, created feelings of distrust and dread which bore fruit in the rebellion of 1641. In September 1639 he was summoned to England, and became at once the leading spirit in the committee of eight, to whom Scottish affairs were entrusted, and the king's chief adviser. In January 1640 he was created Earl of Strafford. By his advice the king summoned the Short Parliament, and dissolved it when it became unruly. In order to carry on the war with Scotland he suggested expedients of every kind—a loan from Spain, the debasement of the coinage, and the employment of the Irish army to subdue Scotland, or if necessary to keep down England. The king appointed him lieutenant-general of the English army (August 20, 1640), but his energy could not avert defeat, and when the council of peers advised the king to summon a parliament his fate was assured. In spite of illness Strafford hurried up to London to impeach the popular leaders for treasonable correspondence. Pym moved Strafford's impeachment on November 11, and he was arrested the same day. His trial began in Westminster Hall on March 22, 1641. The extreme party in the Commons, dissatisfied with the slow and doubtful course of impeachment, brought in a bill of attainder (April 10), which passed its third reading in the Commons on April 21, and in the Lords on May 8. The king's attempts to save Strafford, and above all the discovery of the first Army Plot, sealed his fate, and prevented the acceptance of a suggested compromise, which would have saved his life but incapacitated him from all office. The king postponed his answer as long as he could, and consulted the bishops and judges, but the danger of a popular rising induced him to yield; he gave his assent to the bill (May 10), and Strafford was executed on May 12. His attainder was reversed in 1662.

"Strafford Papers," 1739; Life of Strafford in Forster's "British Statesmen," vol. ii, 1836; biographies by Elizabeth Cooper, 1866, P. Wilson, 1906, H. D. Traill, 1889; Hugh O'Grady, "Strafford in Ireland," 1923. [C. H. F.]

Wer-gild, in Anglo-Saxon times, was the money value of each man's life, and the sum which, in case of his death by violence, had to be paid by the murderer, either to his kinsmen or gild-brethren, or, in the case of a serf, to his master. The amount of the *wer-gild* depended on the rank of the person slain, and was carefully graduated. This system of compensation had its roots in the old institution of the blood feud, in which the kindred of the murdered man took direct physical vengeance upon the murderer. [Bót.]

W. S. Holdsworth, "History of English Law," 1923; F. L. Attenborough, "Laws of the Earliest English Kings," etc.; H. J. Robertson, "Laws of the Kings of England from Edmund to Henry I," 1925.

Wesley, John (1703–91), was the second surviving son of Samuel Wesley, rector of Epworth. He was educated at Christ Church, and took orders in 1725. In 1726 he was elected to a fellowship at Lincoln. At the university he and his brother Charles in 1729 formed a society to promote religious study and conversation. They soon became known (from the regularity of their behaviour) as the "Methodists" (q.v.). In 1735 the two brothers went to Georgia to convert the Indians. Their mission was unfruitful, and they returned in 1738. On their return they proclaimed themselves advocates of the doctrine of justification by faith alone. In May 1738 the Wesleys began to form Methodist congregations in London. For the next few years Wesley, with his brother, George Whitefield (q.v.), and a few other coadjutors, was engaged in preaching in London and other parts of England to immense and growing congregations. In spite of much opposition, frequently manifested in the form of riot and violence, the movement rapidly gained ground. John Wesley lived till 1791, by which time the Methodists had established societies in every important town in England, and had a flourishing church in America.

Wesley's "Journals, 1735–90"; biographies by George Whitehead, 1791–3, R. Watson, 1831, Julia Wedgwood, 1870, L. Tyerman, 1870–1, J. H. Rigg, 1875, R. Green, 1905, J. H. Overton, 1891, J. S. Simon, 1925, etc.

Wessex, The Kingdom of. The question when and how the kingdom of Wessex—destined ultimately to expand into the kingdom of the English—came into being has been in recent years the subject of much controversy. The story given in the "Anglo-Saxon Chronicle" runs as follows. In 495 the "aldermen" Cerdic and Cynric came with five ships to Britain to a place called Cerdices-ora, and fought with the Welsh. In 501 they were followed by a certain Port, who landed at Portsmouth and slew a prince of the Britons; and in 514 by a third invading force led by Stuf and Wihtgar (q.v.). Five years later, we are told, Cerdic and Cynric obtained the kingship, "and from that time the royal line of the West Saxons has reigned." Subsequent engagements between them and the Britons are reported in 527 at Cerdicslea, and in 530 in the Isle of Wight. In 534 Cerdic is said to have died, leaving a well-established authority to his son and colleague Cynric. There is much in this confused and incoherent narrative that is open to doubt. Not only is there a marked tendency to the duplication of incidents, but the names given to the invaders bear a suspicious relation to the places in connexion with which they are mentioned. Port, it is to be suspected, is an eponymous hero created from the name of the Roman harbour Portus Magnus, where he is said to have landed, while Wihtgar seems no less evidently to derive his name from the Wihtgaras of the Isle of Wight. Even the name of Cerdic has a Celtic rather than a Teutonic flavour. The fatal objection to the history of the invasion as given in the "Chronicle" lies, however, in the fact, related by Bæda and confirmed by archæological evidence, that the regions where the West Saxons are said to have established themselves in the early sixth century had already been conquered and settled by the Jutes. It seems clear that the story of Cerdic and Cynric must, like that of Hengest and Horsa, be relegated to the realm of legend rather than of history. The modern view is that Wessex was originally settled by war bands operating not from the coast but from the Thames valley. In support of this theory may be urged the fact that when the first bishop's stool was established in West Saxon territory it was placed at Dorchester-on-Thames and not at Winchester—the more natural centre if expansion was proceeding in a south to north direction. Moreover, to place early Wessex in the middle Thames valley is to explain the name "Middlesex," which, on this hypothesis, applies to a settlement situated actually between the East and the West Saxons. The most convincing argument is, however, once more furnished by archæological research. Investigation of the burial grounds, which are our chief source of information for this period, proves not merely that the first settlers of Wight and southern Hampshire were Jutes and not Saxons, but that the earliest West Saxon settlements followed the line of the Thames and the tributaries of its right bank, such as the Kennet and the Wey. Of the manner in which these settlements were effected nothing definite is known. Ceawlin, who ruled from 560 to 591, is the first of the West Saxon kings of whose existence we can be certain. He is reckoned by Bæda as third in the succession of Bretwaldas. It was he who laid the foundations of the power of Wessex, and resumed that advance at the expense of the Britons, which had been suspended for almost a century as a result of the battle of Mount Badon (q.v.). Aided by his brother Cuthwulf, Ceawlin overthrew in 568 Ethelbert of Kent, and in 571 won a great victory at Bedford, probably over his Saxon neighbours, incorporating in his realm the land of the Chilternsaetas. Six years later he vanquished the Britons of

the south-west at Deorham in Gloucestershire. In 584, however, he suffered a check in the battle of Fethanleag, which has been identified by some authorities with Faddiley in Cheshire and by others with Frethern in Gloucestershire; but the site of which is still uncertain. Some years later disaster overtook Ceawlin. He was defeated in 591 at Wodnesbeorg (q.v.) by a rising of his subjects under his nephew Ceolric, and driven from his kingdom. After his overthrow the fortunes of Wessex suffered a temporary eclipse, and the kingdom was reduced to dependence first upon Kent and then upon Mercia. The years of vassalage were not, however, entirely barren, for in 634 Wessex was converted to Christianity by Birinus, and under Coenwalch (643–72) her frontiers were extended westwards as far as the River Parret. Finally, at the end of the seventh century a revival took place under the two able rulers Ceadwalla and Ine. By Ceadwalla (685–8) Sussex and Kent were subdued, while Ine (688–726) reduced Essex to obedience and advanced his western boundary from the Parret to the Exe. To meet the spiritual needs of the newly-settled district he established a second West Saxon see at Sherborne; and c. 693 he promulgated the code of laws which constitutes one of our most important sources for the social history of the early Anglo-Saxon period. But with his abdication in 726 Wessex once more fell behind in the race for the hegemony of the English kingdoms. Ethelbald of Mercia riveted his yoke so firmly upon her that even Cuthred's great victory at Burford in 752 failed to procure her more than a temporary release. The accession of Ecgbert to the West Saxon throne in 802 ushers in, however, a new era in the history of the southern kingdom. It was his destiny not merely to extend the frontiers of his realm and establish her independence, but to win for her that supremacy which had been enjoyed in turn by Northumbria and Mercia. Expelled from England by his rival Beorhtric in 796, he had passed several years in exile in Frankland, where, perhaps, he learnt from Charlemagne the lessons in kingcraft which he was later able to put to good advantage in his native land. After ruling for nearly twenty years as the vassal of Mercia he overthrew Beornwulf in the battle of Ellandune (825) and reduced his kingdom to obedience. In the course of the next four years every other state in England was annexed to, or made dependent on, the West Saxons. Kent, Sussex, Surrey, Essex, and East Anglia submitted in 825, and their example was followed by Northumbria in 829. Finally, in 838, a combined force of Danes and Cornishmen was defeated at Hengest Down, and the last stage in the subjugation of the West Welsh was completed. Yet great as was Ecgbert's achievement, the supremacy he established was no different in kind from that of his Mercian and Northumbrian predecessors in the *imperium*. It required the operation of an external factor—the Danish incursions of the ninth century—to convert the West Saxon overlordship into the kingship of all England. Under Alfred Wessex was virtually stripped of her external supremacy, but her immediate territory was actually enlarged by the incorporation of south-western Mercia. Under Alfred's son and grandsons the "reconquest of the Danelaw" was accomplished, and in the process Wessex far outgrew her name and lost herself in the kingdom of the English people.

KINGS OF WESSEX

Cerdic	519–534
Cynric	534–560
Ceawlin	560–591
Ceolric	591–597
Ceolwulf	597–611
Cynegils	611–643
Cenwealh	643–672
Sexburh (Queen)	672–674 ?
Æscwine	674–676 ?
Centwine	676–685 ?
Ceadwalla	685–688
Ine	688–726
Ethelhard	726–740
Cuthred	740–756
Sigebert	756–757
Cynewulf	757–786
Beorhtric	786–802
Ecgbert	802–839
Ethelwulf	839–858
Ethelbald	858–860
Ethelbert	860–866
Ethelred	866–871
Alfred	871–900
Edward the Elder	900–924

Sir C. Oman, "England Before the Norman Conquest"; T. Hodgkin, "Political History of England," vol. i; R. W. Chambers, "England Before the Norman Conquest," 1925; Thurlow Leeds, "Archæology of the Anglo-Saxon Settlements"; A. F. Major, "Early Wars of Wessex," 1913; "Victoria County History."

[J. R.] [H. M. C.]

West Africa, British Dominions in, consist of the colony and protectorate of Sierra Leone, the Gambia, the colony and protectorate of Nigeria, the mandated territory of the Cameroons, and the Gold Coast Colony. The general history is that of a gradual development from sporadic slaving and trading voyages, coastal trading stations, internal trade and consequent troubles with the natives, to full colonial administration in areas defined by international agreements.

The Colony and Protectorate of Sierra Leone. The colony consists of the peninsula of Sierra Leone, Tasso, York, and Banana Islands, and the township of Bouthe. The rest is the protectorate. Named by Pedro da Cintra (1461) it was the scene of Hawkins's first slave raid in 1562. In 1592 Gregory received a royal licence to trade with Guinea, but no territory was acquired until land was sold to Captain John Taylor in 1787 for the "Black poor," freed negro slaves from London, and used as a repatriation area by the Sierra Leone Company (1791). Nova Scotian freedmen (1792) and Maroons (1800) were also sent there and revolted against the land settlement. In 1808 it was made a Crown colony, and disbanded soldiers from the West Indian regiments landed in 1819. From 1821 to 1828 Gambia and the Gold Coast were under the administra-

tion of the governor and his two councillors (appointed from 1792). Again from 1843 to 1850 the Gold Coast and from 1866 to 1888 the Gambia were united to Sierra Leone. In 1896 a protectorate was declared over the hinterland after a boundary agreement with France (1895). The boundary with Liberia was delimited in 1914. The constitution has seen many changes. A nominated executive council of four, with additional nominees to form a legislative council, was established in 1863. In 1866 it became the centre of the British settlements in West Africa, from which Lagos and the Gold Coast were separated in 1874 when the West African settlements of Sierra Leone, and Gambia were given each a legislative council of the officials and two nominated members. Gambia was separated in 1888. The constitution of 1913 and 1922 provided for an executive council of five officials which, together with four nominated unofficial members, composed the legislative council, while from 1913 the administration of the protectorate was separated from the colony but had the same governor. In 1924 an elective element was introduced into the colony legislative council with representation for the protectorate, and the government now is vested in a governor, an executive council of five officials, and a legislative council of the governor and council, together with six other officials to represent the Central, Northern, and Southern Provinces with ten other non-official members.

The Gambia was reached by the Portuguese in 1446. In 1588 British west-country merchants received a ten-years' trading monopoly, while in 1619 Rich's company received its charter and built Fort James. The 1631 company of Young and Digby supplied the West Indies with slaves, and from 1662 to 1672 the Company of Royal Adventurers traded from the coast. The Royal African Company (1672–1752) was given a monopoly of trade from Sallee to the Cape and disputed possession with the French. In 1752 its powers were transferred to the Company of Merchants and an exchange of claims removed French competition in 1783. The slave trade was declared illegal in 1807, negro settlements set up in 1816 and Bathurst ceded. From 1823 to 1830 the Board of Merchants ruled the country, and a lieutenant-governor from 1830 to 1843, when the Gambia was made a separate colony. In 1866 it was joined to the Gold Coast and Lagos under the governor of Sierra Leone and only separated in 1889. A boundary agreement was reached with France in 1889–91 and a protectorate established in 1894 over Kombo. The colony is now ruled by a governor, an executive council of one official and three other members, and a legislative council of governor, two members ex-officio, three other officers, and three unofficials.

The Gold Coast Colony, together with Ashanti, the Protected Northern Territories, and the British mandated Territory of Togoland, has a connexion with English seamen dating from 1364. The Portuguese, however, settled there in 1471 and claimed it on the grounds of a papal bull of 1430. British navigators touched but did not settle there (1553–8), and the Dutch in 1595 and again in 1637 and 1642 when they obliterated the Portuguese forts. Then follows a succession of five British trading companies, 1618, 1631, 1662, 1672, and 1752, the last disappearing in 1821. Meanwhile Swedish (1645–1657) and Brandenburg (q.v.) (1682–1720) settlements appeared, only to be absorbed by the later Danish traders. The Treaty of Breda (1667) had left all to the Dutch. In 1821 it became a Crown colony dependent upon Sierra Leone, but in 1827 the forts were transferred to a committee of London merchants with a local council of administration and a court of justice of five resident merchants. Governor Maclean (1827–43) greatly spread British influence. In 1843 a lieutenant-governor responsible to the governor of Sierra Leone was appointed on the assumption of government by Great Britain and an attempt made to suppress the slave trade. In 1850 the Danes were bought out and the Gold Coast made a separate colony with a governor, executive and legislative councils. Wars with the Ashanti began in 1863 and the colony made again dependent upon Sierra Leone (1866). The next year a division of the coast was made with the Dutch, but in 1871 sole sovereignty was vested in Great Britain by the Anglo-Dutch Convention. On the conclusion of peace with Ashanti (1874) the Gold Coast and Lagos were united again as the Gold Coast Colony with Lagos as the administrative centre, and with legislative and executive councils both nominated. Lagos was separated in 1886. The Conference of Berlin resulted in the delimitation of a neutral zone (1887), and the boundary was adjusted with France (1889–98). In 1897 the Northern Territories were created out of Ashanti, whose turbulent warriors were finally crushed in 1900. [Ashanti, Wars with.] In 1901 the Gold Coast Protectorate was amalgamated to the colony, Ashanti and the Northern Territories being ruled by commissioners. Togoland was captured from Germany in 1914 and the administration reorganized in 1916, to consist of an executive council of governor and six officials, and a legislative council of six officers and some unofficial nominated members. Municipal corporations were established in 1924 and the legislative council enlarged (1926) to consist of governor and sixteen officials together with fourteen unofficial members of whom six were to be unofficial provincial members (four elected natives and one nominated), one a mercantile representative, and three nominated members together with a nominated missionary.

Ashanti is a tribal confederation annexed to the Gold Coast Colony in 1901. Its king had invaded the British protectorate in 1873 and been defeated by Sir Garnet Wolseley, who imposed upon him the Peace of Formara by

which he abandoned his claim to the protectorate and the practice of human sacrifice and was to pay an indemnity. An expedition (1894–6) against Prempeh led to the establishment of a resident at Kumasi. A further attack in 1900 led to its annexation. In 1926 Prempeh, returned from his exile, was elected head chief.

The Northern Territories were constituted in 1897 north of Ashanti; the boundaries defined with the French in 1898 and the neutral zone of 1887 partitioned with Germany in 1899. From 1902 it has been administered from the Gold Coast, and in 1922 was divided into Northern and Southern Provinces.

British Sphere of Togoland, formerly a German protectorate, was captured in 1914 and provisionally divided, Great Britain getting the western part and France the eastern. In 1919 France was given all the coast and a League of Nations mandate issued in 1921, since when the northern section has been administered by Britain as part of the Northern Territories and the southern as part of the Eastern Province of Gold Coast Colony.

The Colony and Protectorate of Nigeria. First explored in 1805 by Mungo Park, Lagos was the first British possession in the Niger basin, although trading depots had existed on the Oil Rivers. Lagos colony was formed in 1862, became part of the West African Settlements in 1866 with a separate legislative council, was united to the Gold Coast Colony in 1874, and separated in 1886 as the Colony and Protectorate of Lagos. In 1899 it was extended to the boundaries of Northern Nigeria and the Niger Coast Protectorate. Meanwhile various other settlements had sprung up. The United African Company of 1879 had given way to the National African Company (1881). The Berlin Conference (1884–5) made Great Britain guardian of international treaty rights on the Niger, and boundary agreements over Nigeria and Cameroons were made the following year. By the foundation of the Royal Niger Company (1886) a British protectorate had been proclaimed over the river territories. The French boundary to the north (French Sudan) was settled in 1890, and in 1898 the Cameroons boundary extended. In 1897 the Fulah power was crushed and slavery abolished after Lugard's treaty (1894) had secured additions to the west and established a frontier force to face the French, with whom a boundary convention was held in 1898. In 1900 the Niger Company surrendered its rights to the Crown and most of its territories were formed into the Protectorate of Northern Nigeria, where indirect native rule has, with the exception of the Mahdi rising (1906), kept the country quiet. Simultaneously the Oil Rivers Protectorate had been founded in 1885, being ruled by a commissioner from 1891. In 1893 it was extended and called the Niger Coast Protectorate, to which the southern part of the Niger Company's territories were transferred in 1900, together forming the Protectorate of Southern Nigeria, the administration being simultaneously transferred from the foreign to the colonial office.

In 1906 the colony of Lagos and its protected territories was amalgamated with the Protectorate of Southern Nigeria and called the Colony and Protectorate of Southern Nigeria, with three administrative provinces. In 1914 Northern and Southern Nigeria were united to form the Colony and Protectorate of Nigeria, and an advisory council appointed. This was abolished in 1923. During the Great War the German Cameroons were conquered, and in 1923 the legislative council, for which provision had been made in 1914, was enlarged to include elected representatives for the colony and the southern provinces of the protectorate. It is administered from Lagos by a governor, and consists of the colony together with the northern and southern provinces. The legislative council consists of the governor, the executive councillors, the senior residents, and six other officers, together with four elected members and fourteen nominated unofficial members, seven to represent localities and such organizations as the Chamber of Commerce and seven the interests of the Africans. The executive council consists of twelve officials. These two councils govern and represent the colony and the southern provinces, and have control over the Northern Protectorate.

The Cameroons were conquered by the British and French (1914–16), and a provisional agreement in 1916 delimited their spheres. Boundary adjustments were made in 1920. The British sphere is administered from Nigeria.

"The West African Pocket Book" (Colonial Office), 1905; "West African Directory and Year Book," 1921; E. C. Martin, "British West African Settlements, 1750–1821," 1927; F. J. D. Lugard, "The Dual Mandate in British Tropical Africa," 1923; H. O. Newland, "West Africa," 1922; H. H. Johnston, "The Opening up of Africa," 1911, "The History of the Colonisation of Africa by Alien Races," 1913, "British Central Africa," 1907; Lord Olivier, "The Anatomy of African Misery," 1927; C. P. Lucas (ed.), "Historical Geography of the British Colonies," vol. iii, "West Africa" (revised by A. B. Keith); W. L. George, "British West Africa"; Peace Handbooks, vol. xv (Foreign Office, ed. W. G. Prothero): British West Africa (No. 90); Gambia (No. 91); Sierra Leone (No. 92); Gold Coast (No. 93); Nigeria (No. 94); C. P. Lucas, "Partition and Colonisation of Africa," 1922; C. W. J. Orr, "Making of Northern Nigeria," 1911; C. H. Robinson, "Nigeria," 1900; W. W. Claridge, "A History of the Gold Coast and Ashanti," 1915. [H. R.]

West Indies, British Possessions in, form the six administrative groups of the Bahamas, Jamaica and its dependencies, the Leeward Island Federation of five presidencies, Barbados, the Windward Island group of three colonies and their dependency, not yet federated, and Trinidad with Tobago. Their history is individual though sharing some features. Most exhibit great vicissitudes of ownership but follow a certain uniformity. Generally ownership was vague and possession rendered precarious by pirates in the seventeenth century; the eighteenth saw Anglo-French rivalry and the determination of ownership by treaty, while the

nineteenth saw consolidation, emancipation, and constitutional progress, along Crown colony lines and unification of administrations, perhaps to be completed by a federation scheme. An economic depression followed emancipation, with a revival in the American Civil War. In 1898 Canada gave the West Indies a preferential tariff of 25 per cent., which was raised to 30 per cent. in 1900. In 1912 Great Britain withdrew from the international convention for the suppression of sugar bounties, but preference was delayed until 1918. The Ottawa Conference of 1912 and 1920 extended Canada's tariff preference. The Labour supply problem, accentuated by emigration to Cuba and Lord Hardinge's abolition of the indentured system for Indian coolies in 1916, is acute.

A movement towards federation is taking place. Encouraged by Imperial conferences, a conference on law met in 1916 which resulted in the establishment of a West Indian Court of Appeal for colonies to the windward of the Caribbees. The Associated West Indian Chamber of Commerce met in 1917 and 1920, and in 1921–2 a colonial office mission of the Hon. Edward Wood, Hon. W. Ormsby Gore, and Mr. R. A. Wiseman visited the West Indies to study the constitutional problem. A conference met in London in 1926 of representatives from all the British West Indian colonies, British Guiana, and British Honduras to discuss the establishment of a permanent conference or council.

Sir C. P. Lucas, "Historical Geography of the British Colonies," vol. ii, "The West Indies," 1905; F. W. Pitman, "The Development of the British West Indies, 1700–1763" (Y.U.P.), 1917; J. W. Root, "The British West Indies and the Sugar Industry," 1899; W. G. A. O. Gore, "The West Indies To-day," 1922; Hon. E. Wood's Report (Parliamentary Paper no. cmd. 1679), 1922; Hume Wrong, "The Government of the West Indies," 1923; Bryan Edwards, "The History of the British Colonies in the West Indies," 2 vols., 1793–4, and 5 vols., 1818–19; J. A. Williamson, "The Caribbee Islands under the Proprietary Patents," 1920; T. Southey, "Chronological History of the West Indies," 3 vols., 1827; T. Coke, "History of the West Indies," 3 vols., 1808–10; R. M. Martin, "History of the British Colonies," vol. ii, "The West Indies," 1834; A. P. Newton, "The Colonizing Activities of the Early English Puritans," 1912.

[H. R.]

Westbury, Richard Bethell, 1st Lord (1800–73). [Bethell.]

Western Australia, one of the original states of the Commonwealth of Australia (q.v.).

Western Samoa. [New Zealand, Dominion of.]

Westminster Abbey was founded as a Benedictine house by Edward the Confessor (c. 1042) on the site of an earlier church which possibly dated back to the seventh century. His foundation, of which no relic now exists above ground, was consecrated on December 28, 1065. The present church was in great part the work of Henry III, and was begun in 1245 from the eastern end. The reconstruction of the nave in the same style was undertaken by Cardinal Simon Langham at the end of the fourteenth century. In 1503 was begun the erection of Henry VII's new Lady Chapel—"one of the most glorious creations of expiring Gothic." The western towers are an addition of the eighteenth century. Many of the monastic buildings, including the abbot's house, the refectory, dormitory, and infirmary of the monks, and the cellarer's buildings, are still extant. The Chapter House, completed about 1253, was for long the meeting-place of the Commons during the sessions of parliament. It was Edward VI who transferred them to the chapel of St. Stephen in Westminster Palace. The abbey was dissolved by Henry VIII in January 1540, and, after a brief restoration under Mary, was reconstituted as a collegiate church with a dean and prebendaries at the beginning of the reign of Elizabeth. It retained most of the peculiar privileges it had enjoyed as a religious house, but its sanctuary rights were abolished in 1602. The connexion between the abbey and the Crown has been close all through its history. William the Conqueror established the precedent for the coronation there of the English sovereigns, and throughout the Middle Ages the abbey church was the usual place of interment for the kings and queens of England. The conception of Westminster as the "national Valhalla" is of recent growth, and from an æsthetic standpoint its consequences have been too often deplorable.

Royal Commission on Historical Monuments: Westminster Abbey, 1926; H. F. Westlake, "Westminster Abbey," 1923, and "The Story of Westminster Abbey," 1924; W. R. Lethaby, "Westminster Abbey Revisited," 1925; other works on the Abbey by Dean Stanley, 1868; J. A. Robinson, 1909.

Westminster Assembly, The, was convoked by order of the Long Parliament in June 1643, to consider the condition of the Church, as "many things in its liturgy, discipline, and government required further and more perfect reformation." It met on July 1, and, after a sermon from Dr. Twiss, the prolocutor, began its sessions in Henry VII's chapel, whence it afterwards removed (September) to the Jerusalem Chamber. The assembly consisted of both lay and clerical members, and was never very numerous—about 60 attending its ordinary sittings. The great majority of the assembly were inclined to Presbyterianism, and many of them profoundly convinced of its divine right. This party was further strengthened when political necessities involved a close alliance with the Scots, and compelled the assembly to accept the Covenant and to add to its numbers Henderson, Baillie, and other commissioners of the general assembly of the Scottish Church. Their predominance was further assured when the moderate Episcopalians, the advocates of "Ussher's model," including the archbishop himself, either refused to sit or withdrew from the assembly. But a small though extremely energetic and intelligent opposition, consisting partly of "Erastians," like the lawyers Selden, St. John, and White-

locke; and the divines, Coleman and, to some extent, Lightfoot; and partly of Independents, like the "dissenting brethren," Vane, Nye, Goodwin, Bridge, Burroughs, and Simpson, Burgess, Calamy, Marshall, and Ash, were, with the Scots, the most famous of the Presbyterian party. After 1645 Charles Herle was its prolocutor. The debates of the assembly extended over nearly all possible subjects of theology. From July 1643 to the summer of 1647 it pursued its way uninterrupted. It spent much time on the revision of the articles, which involved endless theological discussion. It superseded the Prayer Book by the "Directory of Public Worship" (November 1644). It did its best to establish a rigid Presbyterial organization, slightly modified by a few insignificant concessions to the Independents, and, pending its establishment, it took upon itself the function of ordaining ministers. It drew up the celebrated "Westminster Confession of Faith" (April 1645—April 1647), with the Longer and Shorter Catechisms, which have since remained the authoritative expositions of British Presbyterianism. Possessing no direct power, it was necessarily somewhat dependent on the Parliament to which it owed its existence; though this did not prevent the active section exalting the spiritual power so highly as to call down upon the assembly the threat of an action for *præmunire*. After the summer of 1647 the retirement of the Scots marked the ending of the main business of the assembly. The formal sessions ceased on February 22, 1649; but up to March 25, 1652, a small number of its divines continued to meet for the purpose of examining candidates for ordination, until Cromwell's dissolution of the Rump led to their silent disappearance without formal dismissal. Despite their narrowness and bigotry, the members of the Westminster Assembly had shown much learning and zeal, and some moderation, in a critical and arduous duty.

W. Hetherington, "History of the Westminster Assembly," 1843; W. A. Shaw, "History of the English Church during the Civil Wars and under the Commonwealth," 1900, and "The Westminster Assembly," in "Cambridge Modern History," vol. 4, 1902; The "Confession," ed. B. B. Warfield, 1901–2; A. F. Mitchell, "The Westminster Assembly," 1883.

[T. F. T.]

Westminster Conference, The, or Theological Controversy, held in Westminster Abbey in March 1559, was the name given to a discussion nominally intended to settle certain questions of doctrine and ritual; but it had been determined beforehand by the Protestant party that the discussion should be in their favour, and that no decision should be arrived at. The subjects of controversy were: (1) The use of prayer in a tongue (Latin) unknown to the people. (2) The right of local churches to change their ceremonies if the edification of the people required it. (3) The propitiatory sacrifice for the quick and dead said to be offered in the Mass. The champions of Catholicism were Bishops White, Baynes, Scot, and Watson, Archdeacon Langdale, Oglethorpe, Cole, Chedsey, the chaplain of Bishop Bonner, and Harpsfield. The Protestants were Scory, Grindal, Coxe, Whitehead, Aylmer, Horne, Guest, and Jewel.

Westminster Hall was built by William Rufus in 1097–9. It was used for sittings of the courts of law in 1224. Richard II had the hall rebuilt in 1397. The law courts, which had been attached to the outside walls of the hall, were taken down in 1884 after the completion of the Royal Palace of Justice in the Strand.

Westminster, The Provisions of (1259), were drawn up in accordance with the plan prescribed by the Provisions of Oxford (q.v.). They were republished by Henry III in 1262, and again in 1264 during his captivity. They were subsequently embodied in the Statute of Marlborough (1267). They provided for the orderly inheritance of property, forbade the disparaging marriage of wards, and the granting of lands, etc., to aliens; the offices of state and the fortresses were to be put into the hands of Englishmen only; ecclesiastics should not acquire any land without the sanction of the immediate lord, and benefit of clergy was limited.

Stubbs, "Select Charters," ed. H. W. C. Davis, 1913.

Westminster, The First Statute of (1275), was one of the earliest of Edward I's great legal measures, and was one of reform and consolidation. It contains fifty-one clauses, and covers the whole ground of legislation, so that it is almost a code in itself. Its language now recalls that of Canute or Alfred, now anticipates that of our own day: on the one hand common right is to be done to all, as well poor as rich, without respect of persons; on the other, elections are to be free, and no man is by force, malice, or menace to disturb them. The spirit of the Great Charter is not less discernible; excessive amercements, abuses of wardship, irregular demands for feudal aids, are forbidden in the same words, or by amending enactments. The inquiry system of Henry II, the law of wreck, and the institution of coroner's measures of Richard and his ministers, come under review, as well as the Provisions of Oxford (q.v.) and the Statute of Marlborough.

Westminster, The Second Statute of (1285), like the preceding, is rather a code than a simple statute. It contains the famous article *De Donis Conditionalibus* (q.v.), which exercised a most important influence on the history of English land laws by enabling the creation of the estate tail. In addition it alters and improves the laws relating to manorial jurisdictions, trial of criminals, the rights of common, dower, and advowsons.

Stubbs, "Select Charters," ed. H. W. C. Davis, 1913; W. S. Holdsworth, "History of English Law," 1922.

Westminster, The Third Statute of (1290). ["Quia Emptores."]

Westmorland, Earls of. [Neville.]

Weston, Richard, 1st Earl of Portland (1577–1635), became collector of the customs in the port of London (1616), and one of the commissioners charged with the reform of the navy (1618). In September 1621 he was appointed chancellor of the exchequer. In 1624 he strongly opposed war with Spain, but contrived to preserve Buckingham's favour, and was created Baron Weston on April 13, 1628. In the House of Lords he strove to amend the Petition of Right by inserting a clause saving the king's "sovereign right," and two months later he was made lord treasurer (July 1628). After Buckingham's death he succeeded to his influence, and became the king's chief adviser. As such he advised the dissolution of the third parliament, and was threatened with impeachment by Eliot. In foreign affairs he aimed at an understanding with Spain, and he opposed intervention in the Thirty Years' War. His influence in the council was assailed by Laud, by the queen, by the Earl of Holland, and many others, yet he retained the king's confidence till his death. He was created Earl of Portland in 1633.

Wetherell, Sir Charles (1770–1846), was the son of Nathan Wetherell, Dean of Hereford. He was educated at Magdalen College, Oxford, and was called to the bar (1794). His friendship with Lord Eldon, who received the great seal in 1801, stood him in good stead. His practice increased continually, and in 1816 he was made king's counsel. In 1817 he undertook the defence of James Watson after the Spa Fields Riots (q.v.), but this proceeding did not further his chances of promotion. In 1813 he was elected to parliament for Shaftesbury, but never acquired any great influence with the House. From 1820 to 1826 he represented the city of Oxford. From 1826 to 1830 he sat for Plympton; and in 1830 he was elected for Boroughbridge, which was disfranchised by the Reform Bill. He then retired from parliament. In 1824 he was appointed solicitor-general by the Earl of Liverpool; and in 1826 he succeeded to the attorney-generalship, an office which he did not, however, hold longer than till April 30 the following year. In 1828 he again became attorney-general under Wellington, but resigned when the government accepted the Catholic Relief Bill (April 1829). He opposed Lord Grey's Reform Bill with the greatest ability and perseverance, and in consequence became extremely unpopular in the country. In 1831, therefore, when he proceeded to Bristol to hold the October sessions as recorder of the town, his carriage was surrounded by an infuriated mob, and he and the other corporate authorities were pelted with stones. Sir Charles retained his office, however, till his death, which was due to an accident when out driving.

Wexford was frequently the scene of conflict in Irish wars and rebellions. It was taken by Maurice Fitzgerald and Robert Fitzstephen in 1169. In 1462 it was seized by Sir John Butler, and recovered by the Earl of Ormonde. In the autumn of 1641 it was captured by the Irish rebels. Cromwell appeared before Wexford after the capture of Drogheda in 1649, refused to grant the terms proposed by the governor, and demanded an unconditional surrender, giving only an hour for reflection. The gates were not opened at the end of the hour granted, and the town was at once stormed. Some 3,000 or 4,000 people were massacred (October 9, 1649). It was in Wexford that the rebellion of 1798 assumed its most dangerous form. It broke out on May 26, and the troops were defeated in rapid succession at Oulast, Enniscorthy, and at the Three Rocks. In consequence of this last defeat, General Fawcett, who had been advancing to support Maxwell, who commanded in Wexford, retreated, and on the 31st Maxwell himself had to follow his example, his men refusing to fight. The Protestant inhabitants and fugitives had fled to the ships in the harbour, but were brought back and thrown into prison. After the rebel defeat at New Ross the Protestants were given a choice between conversion to Catholicism and death. On June 20 ninety-seven Protestants were murdered after a mock trial. The nominal leader of the rebels was Bagenal Harvey (q.v.), but the real leader was Father Murphy (q.v.). Lake's victory at Vinegar Hill (q.v.—June 21, 1798), crushed the Wexford rebellion, and the insurgents evacuated the town the same day.

Whalley, Edward (*d.* 1675 ?), was a member of an ancient Nottinghamshire family, and a first cousin of Oliver Cromwell. He joined the Parliamentary army, and distinguished himself by his bravery at Naseby, for which he was made a colonel of horse. During Charles I's imprisonment at Hampton Court he was placed in Whalley's charge. In 1655 he was made one of the major-generals, and subsequently one of the "lords" of Cromwell's Upper House. He took a prominent part in the trial of the king, and was one of those who signed the death warrant. When the Restoration became inevitable he fled to America, where he led a life of danger, having continually to hide in the woods and among Puritan friends, who protected him from the warrant which had been issued against him.

Whalley, Richard (1499 ?–1583), one of the most unscrupulous adherents of Protector Somerset, was receiver-general in Yorkshire, where he managed to appropriate a good deal of the public money. In 1551 he was accused of having formed a plot for the restoration of the Protector, and was sent to the Tower until released on the accession of Mary.

Wharton, Philip, Duke of Wharton (1698–1731), son of Thomas, Marquis of

Wharton, early displayed extraordinary talents, combined with an utterly dissolute and unprincipled character. In 1716 he went abroad and had interviews with the Pretender and queen-dowager, and offered them his services. He sat in the Irish parliament as a Whig, but on coming to England he passed into opposition. His talents were employed in publishing an opposition paper, known as the *True Briton* (June 3, 1723—February 17, 1724). In 1720 his violent attack on Lord Stanhope and the ministry, when the South Sea Company was under discussion, so enraged that statesman as to cause a rush of blood to his head, which proved fatal. Wharton made a fine speech in 1723 in defence of Atterbury (q.v.). Shortly afterwards his debts compelled him to leave England. He went to Spain, where he openly attached himself to the Pretender's cause, and was created by him Duke of Northumberland (1726). He became a pretended convert to Roman Catholicism. At this time the schemes of Ripperda, the Spanish minister, had resulted in a close alliance between Spain and Austria, while by a secret treaty these powers pledged themselves to assist the restoration of the Stuarts. But the imprudence of Wharton and Ripperda ruined the plan. Wharton had so far cast aside his nationality as to become a volunteer in the siege of Gibraltar. In 1728 he tried to become reconciled with the British court, but they, through Horace Walpole, refused to remit the indictment for high treason which had been preferred against him. His character has been drawn in Pope's lines :

> "Wharton, the scorn and wonder of our days,
> Whose ruling passion was the lust of praise.
> * * * * * *
> A fool, with more of wit than half mankind ;
> Too rash for thought—for action too refin'd ;
> A tyrant to the wife his heart approves ;
> A rebel to the very king he loves."

"Memoirs of Wharton," 1731 ; J. R. Robinson, "Philip, Duke of Wharton," 1896 ; Lewis Melville, "Life and Writings of Philip, Duke of Wharton," 1913 ; E. B. Chancellor, "Lives of the Rakes," vol. iii, 1924.

Wharton, Thomas, 1st Marquis of Wharton (1648–1715), was the son of Philip, 4th Lord Wharton, who had fought on the side of the Parliament in the Civil War. He was educated in the strictest Calvinism, but nevertheless became one of the most dissolute of the Cavaliers at the Restoration. He was, however, throughout his life a firm adherent of the Whig party. In 1679 he was elected for Buckinghamshire, where his political influence was very great. It is said that in this and other counties he sent thirty members to parliament. He was one of the boldest opponents of James II. When James reprimanded the Commons on the subject of the Test Act, Wharton proposed that a time should be appointed for taking the king's answer into consideration. By his song "Lillibullero" (q.v.), a satire on Tyrconnel's administration, Wharton afterwards boasted that he had sung a king out of three kingdoms. On the arrival of William in England Wharton joined him at Exeter. When the throne was declared vacant Wharton was the first to propose that it should be occupied by William and Mary. In 1695 he conducted an attack on the Tory ministry. A committee was appointed to examine the books of the City of London and the East India Company. He was placed in the chair ; and as the result of the inquiry moved the impeachment of the Duke of Leeds. In 1696 he supported the bill for Fenwick's attainder, which caused the Whigs to triumph completely. He was made chief justice in eyre, retaining his place of comptroller of the household. In 1697 he hoped to become secretary of state, but William refused to grant the request, for fear of alienating the Tories. Next year a Tory reaction set in, and Wharton's candidates were defeated throughout England. In 1700 he proposed amendments in the bill for the resumption of Irish land grants. A struggle took place between the Lords and Commons ; but the former yielded, and Wharton retired from London. In 1701 he regained all his influence in Buckinghamshire. On the accession of Anne he was removed from his employments. In 1705 he proposed a Regency Bill in the case of the queen's demise. In 1708, after the junto had joined Godolphin's ministry, he was made lord-lieutenant of Ireland. There he showed great hostility to the Catholics, but was disposed to conciliate the Dissenters. He was superseded by Ormonde in 1710. His administration was bitterly attacked by Swift, whose "Short Character of the Earl of Wharton" is a satire of the most savage character. During the last session of Anne's parliament he displayed great zeal for the Protestant succession. He opposed Bolingbroke's Schism Act ; he proposed that the Duke of Lorraine should be compelled to expel the Pretender from his dominions ; he advocated the issuing of a proclamation offering a reward for the apprehension of the Pretender, whether dead or alive. On the accession of George I he was made lord privy seal, and created a marquis. In the next year he died. Wharton's private character was irredeemably bad. He was notorious as the greatest profligate in England, and his effrontery and mendacity had no bounds. He was the most thorough-going and unscrupulous of all the Whig party men of the age.

Swift's "Works," vol. v ; "Memoirs of Wharton," 1715.

Whig. This famous party name was first used to denote the stern Covenanters of south-western Scotland, who struggled against the royalist and episcopal restoration of 1660, and frequently rose in fruitless revolt against the government of Charles II. About 1679, during the height of the Popish Plot agitation, the name was applied to the champions of the Exclusion Bill (q.v.), at first in derision, but before long as their accepted name. The Whig

party had, however, existed in fact long before it existed in name. It sprang from the old country party, which had begun the contest with Charles I, and had, with varying fortunes, continued to struggle against his son. In this sense the germ of the Whig party is almost as old as the end of the reign of Elizabeth. Proscribed after the failure of the Exclusion Bill, the Whig party found their principles accepted by nearly the whole nation in 1688. The accession of the house of Hanover completed a triumph which lasted until the accession of George III. During this long period of power the Whigs became conservative. Those who had been zealous for the old liberties of the nation, for Magna Carta, the Habeas Corpus Act, and the "Social Contract," now regarded the Revolution, the Toleration Act, and the Bill of Rights as including all the most important of their principles. All now needed was to preserve the admirable constitution which the Revolution had brought, and to govern the country in its spirit. The opposition to the Crown had always been led by the aristocracy. The triumph of the opposition made the English government a "Venetian oligarchy," while reducing the sovereign to the position of the doge. Of this party in its earliest stage Locke was the great teacher; Somers and Walpole, perhaps, the greatest practical statesmen. But the long tenure of power demoralized the party, so that from being stationary it became almost reactionary, while most corrupt in its administration. Attacked both from the popular and royalist sides by Chatham and George III, the lack of agreement between the two elements of opposition, and the narrowly personal character of George III's policy, postponed for a time its final defeat. At last Chatham's son repudiated the name of Whig, and, in alliance with the Crown, dealt a death-blow to the Whig aristocracy. The writings of Burke enshrine in its most perfect form the Whig theory of government. But with the French Revolution new political factors came into play, which revolutionized again the Whig party. The meaning of the term changed. "Revolution Whigs," like Burke, became practically Tories. The more active section of the party became Liberal, if not Radical. Fox was the founder of the New Whigs, whose first principle was admiration of the French Revolution, and who were the progenitors of the modern Liberal party. Their principles triumphed in the Reform Bill of 1832; but once in power the aristocratic and conservative element which still remained in the Whig party began to show itself again to the disgust of the more advanced section of the reformers. Gradually the word Whig became so discredited that Whig progressists preferred to borrow from continental politics the term Liberal as a better designation of their party. The development of new party principles by the changes involved in the Reform Act completed the change. Ultimately the term Whig became almost a term of reproach in the great party which has inherited its traditions; in so far as it still finds a place in current political parlance it is popularly used in a disparaging sense to denote a timid and rather old-fashioned type of aristocratic politician. [T. F. T.]

Whiggamores' Raid, The (1648), is the name given to the proceedings of a body of Covenanters who assembled at Mauchline in Ayrshire, under Lord Eglinton, and marched to Edinburgh, just before the outbreak of the Bishops' War.

Whitbread, Samuel (1758–1815), was the son of a London brewer. He was educated at Eton, and St. John's College, Oxford. In 1790 he was returned to parliament for Bedford, and first signalized himself by a powerful speech in opposition to the proposal of the ministry for a Russian armament. In 1793 he opposed the project of a war with France. Throughout the long sway of Pitt, Whitbread was one of the foremost men among the opposition. When in 1805 the opposition decided to bring Lord Melville to account Whitbread was selected to move the resolutions. Consistent in his view of the war policy throughout, he never ceased to inveigh against the rupture of the Peace of Amiens, and broke with a large section of his own party, who were at last convinced of the insincerity of Napoleon's professions. In 1809 he took a prominent and fearless part in the inquiry into the Duke of York's conduct. On Napoleon's escape from Elba, Whitbread again raised his voice against any attempt to impose a ruler on France and to interfere with the choice of the nation. Unfortunately he only lived just long enough to see the end of a war which he so violently detested. He incurred much odium in his attempts to put down the jobbery which had prevented Drury Lane Theatre from occupying the national position which it ought to have held. The strain thus entailed on him, combined with his parliamentary labours, were too much for him; his mind gave way, and on July 6, 1815, he died by his own hand.

Romilly, "Life."

Whitby, The Synod of (664), is of great importance in the history of the English Church. It was assembled at the instance of Oswy of Northumbria, then the most powerful king in Britain, to settle the points at issue between the Roman Church (supreme in Wessex, Essex, and East Anglia), and the Celtic Church (supreme in Northumbria and Mercia), as to the date of Easter and other minor details of ritual. The influence of Wilfrid of Ripon sufficed to secure a decision in favour of Rome, and Bishop Colman with his Scottish clerks retired to Iona. Thus ended the danger that Teutonic Britain might be permanently divided into two Churches, the one in communion with Rome, the other with the Celtic peoples of the West.

White, John (1510 ?–1560), Bishop of Lincoln and afterwards of Winchester, was a strong opponent of the Reformation, and was imprisoned in the Tower by Edward VI. Under Mary he obtained high favour at court, and was one of the commissioners appointed to try Cranmer for heresy (1555). On the accession of Elizabeth he was again sent to the Tower for preaching a violent sermon against the queen.

White Bands, The Parliament of (1321), was the name given to the parliament which banished the Despensers, from the white favours which were worn by the adherents of the barons.

Whiteboys, The. The increased demand for salt beef and salt butter in the middle of the eighteenth century gave a great impetus to the change from tillage to pasture in Ireland. Tithes aggravated the sufferings of the tenants which necessarily followed this change. The Whiteboy movement was the result; it was formidable chiefly in Tipperary and Limerick. In the spring of 1760 troops had to be sent out, together with a special commission to try the numerous offenders, but few were convicted. The leader of the Whiteboys called himself Captain Danger, and from 1762 to 1765 his commands were better obeyed and enforced than the law. At last the gentry formed bodies of volunteers, and this move, together with the execution of a certain Father Nicholas Sheehy in 1766, repressed the outrages for a time. In 1786, however, the Whiteboys reappeared in Munster; they mustered in opposition to the payment of tithes, and forced the people to swear to obey the captain's orders. They disarmed all Protestants, and committed terrible outrages, especially on curates and clergymen of the Established Church. In 1786 they were bold enough to attack a detachment of the 20th Regiment; they were driven off with some difficulty, as they had managed to obtain the arms of the volunteers. In the next year a stringent Crimes Bill was passed. General Luttrell was now sent with troops, and he and Lord Tyrone stopped the movement for the moment. But soon afterwards the high sheriff had to fly for his life from the Whiteboys, and now at last the gentry, roused, and headed by Lord Kenmare, a Catholic, hunted them down without mercy, while shiploads were sent off to Botany Bay. After the rebellion of 1798 nothing was heard of them for some time, but in 1821 they again appeared in Munster as "Whitefeet," and under other names. The Insurrection Act checked them, but in 1833 they were more active than ever.

W. E. H. Lecky, "Ireland in the Eighteenth Century," ed. 1900.

Whitefield, or Whitfield, George (1714–70), was born at Gloucester and educated at Oxford, where he joined the Methodists. He was ordained at the early age of 21, and after holding various curacies in England went to America to join the Wesleys, reaching Savannah in 1738. He returned to England and met with extraordinary success as a preacher. In 1739 he went again to America, and came back to England in 1741. The rest of his life he spent in travelling and preaching.

Biographies by Robert Philip, 1832; J. P. Gladstone, 1871; L. Tyerman, 1876–7.

Whitelocke, Bulstrode (1605–75), son of Judge Sir James Whitelocke, became a student at the Middle Temple, and was elected to parliament for Marlow in November 1640. At the trial of the Earl of Strafford, Whitelocke had the charge of the last seven articles of the impeachment. At the outbreak of the war he raised troops, and occupied Oxford for the Parliament (August 1642), but was forced to abandon it immediately. He acted as one of the commissioners for the Parliament during the negotiations at Oxford and Uxbridge, and was also a member of the Westminster Assembly (q.v.). In May 1647 he voted against the disbanding of the army, and in March 1648 was appointed one of the commissioners of the great seal. He became ambassador to Sweden (November 1653). After concluding a treaty of amity with Queen Christina, he returned to England, and resumed his duties as commissioner of the great seal. From this office he was dismissed (June 1655) for opposing Cromwell's ordinance for the reform of Chancery. He was nominated as a member of Cromwell's House of Lords, but refused to accept the title of viscount which the Protector wished to confer on him. Richard Cromwell appointed him keeper of the great seal, but he nevertheless became a member of the council of state of the restored Rump. He remained in retirement from the close of 1659 to the final dissolution of the Long Parliament. The House of Commons by 175 to 134 votes decided that Whitelocke should have the benefit of the Act of Indemnity, and he escaped all punishment.

"Whitelocke's Memorials," 1682 (Oxford edn., 4 vols., 1853); "Journal of the Embassy to Sweden," edited by H. Reeve, 1855; "Memoirs of Bulstrode Whitelocke," by R. H. Whitelocke, 1860; Wood, "Athenæ Oxonienses." [C. H. F.]

Whitgift, John (1530 ?–1604), Archbishop of Canterbury, was born at Great Grimsby, educated at Cambridge, and became master of Trinity in 1567. Having early become a zealous advocate of the reformed doctrines, he would have been compelled to quit England during the Marian persecution had he not been protected by his friend Dr. Andrew Perne. After the accession of Elizabeth, Whitgift soon acquired great reputation as a preacher, and in 1573 was made dean of Lincoln, subsequently obtaining the see of Worcester in 1577. In 1583 he accepted the primacy of England in succession to Edmund Grindal (q.v.), and at once set himself to remedy the abuses caused by his predecessor's leniency. He issued articles for the regulation of the Church of extreme severity, and took active measures against the Puritans whom he had formerly attacked in his answer to Cartwright's "Admonition" (q.v.). On the death

of Sir Thomas Bromley in 1587 the post of lord high chancellor was offered to the archbishop, but refused by him to his great honour. In 1595 he drew up the famous Lambeth Articles (q.v.), and on the death of the queen endeavoured to win the favour of her successor, an attempt in which he succeeded admirably, owing to his politic flattery of James I. Though nominally president of the Hampton Court Conference (q.v.) in 1604, he delegated most of his duties to Bishop Bancroft, owing to his old age, and died shortly afterwards of a paralytic stroke. Mosheim says of him: "He was disinterested, consistent, single-minded, liberal, and discerning above most men. His great natural blemish was hastiness of temper. This, however, he corrected by a spirit so thoroughly considerate and forgiving that his friends rather apprehended from him undue lenity. When principle was at stake he would make no compromise. In secular politics he did not interfere, usually retiring from the council board when it was unoccupied by ecclesiastical affairs."

Strype, "Life of Whitgift," 1718; H. J. Clayton, "Archbishop Whitgift," 1911.

Whithern (or CANDIDA CASA) was the capital of the district subsequently known as Galloway, and is said to have been the see of St. Ninian, who in 397 built a church there, which he dedicated to St. Martin of Tours. About 730 the Northumbrians founded a bishopric here under Pecthelm, but the line of Anglic bishops came to an end with Beadulf in 803.

Whittington, RICHARD (*d.* 1423), hero of the popular nursery tale of Dick Whittington and his cat, was a figure of some importance in the history of London during the late fourteenth and early fifteenth centuries. He is a good type of the mediæval city magnate. By trade a mercer, he three times held office as mayor of London (1397–8, 1406–7, and 1419–20); and enjoyed in turn the confidence of Richard II, Henry IV, and Henry V, to all of whom he lent large sums of money. The legend associated with his name does not appear to have originated earlier than the seventeenth century, and bears no relation to the facts of his career.

M. J. Thompson, "Life and Times of Richard Whittington," 1897.

Widdrington, SIR THOMAS (*d.* 1664), was a member of an ancient Northumberland family, and was elected member for Berwick in 1640. He took a prominent part on the Presbyterian side against the bishops, but finding subsequently that the Independents were the rising party, he joined them, and in 1648 was made one of the commissioners of the great seal. He refused to take any part in the king's trial, but in 1651 was made one of the council of state. He was in favour of making the young Duke of Gloucester king under restrictions, but this advice was not relished either by the Cromwellian or Republican factions. Cromwell reappointed him to his commissionership (1654), but on his refusing to assent to the proposed reforms in Chancery he was removed from office in 1655. He was chosen Speaker of the parliament of 1656, in which capacity he presented the Humble Petition and Advice (q.v.) to Cromwell, and strongly advocated his assuming the royal title. In 1658 he was made chief baron of the Exchequer, and in 1660 commissioner of the great seal, which office he held till the Restoration. He owed his rise in great measure to his having married a sister of Lord Fairfax.

Wight, THE ISLE OF (called by the Romans VECTIS, and in "Domesday Book" WICT and WIHT), was conquered by Claudius in A.D. 43. Its earliest English settlers were Jutes, but no written evidences of their activities remain. In 661 it was conquered by Wulfhere of Wessex and bestowed upon his vassal the King of Sussex. It suffered severely from Danish attacks. Earl Godwin, after his banishment by Edward the Confessor, made a descent on the island in 1052. After the Conquest William allotted the island to William Fitz-Osbern, who was created lord of the Isle of Wight. Fitz-Osbern built the greater part of Carisbrooke Castle. The island was temporarily held by the French just after the accession of Richard II, and was frequently plundered by them down to the time of Richard III. In the reign of Henry VI it was allotted to the Earl of Warwick, and on the accession of Edward IV it passed to Earl Rivers, whose successors, the Woodvilles, were captains of the Isle of Wight for several generations. The first governor of the island was the Earl of Pembroke, appointed by the Long Parliament. He was succeeded by Colonel Hammond, to whom Charles I repaired after his escape from Hampton Court. During the imprisonment of the king at Carisbrooke, and subsequently at Hurst Castle, the complicated negotiations and intrigues between the king and parliament were carried on chiefly at Newport. The title of captain was revived in 1889 in favour of Prince Henry of Battenberg.

"Victoria County History: Hampshire."

Wiglaf, KING OF MERCIA (827–839), succeeded Ludecan. In 829 he was driven out of his kingdom by Ecgbert of Wessex, who himself assumed the rule of Mercia; but next year he was allowed to return, and ruled as the vassal of Wessex for the rest of his reign.

Wigmore, ROGER MORTIMER, 8TH BARON OF (1287 ?–1330). [MORTIMER.]

Wihtgar (*d.* 543 ?), according to the traditional account of the Anglo-Saxon invasions of Britain, was one of the founders of the kingdom of Wessex. Together with his brother Stuf he landed in Britain in 514, and in 534 the brothers received the Isle of Wight as a tributary kingdom from Cerdic and his son Cynric. The authenticity of the story is, however, more than doubtful. Wihtgar appears to have been a purely legendary person—the eponymous hero of the men of Wight—the Wihtgaras. [WESSEX.]

Wihtred, King of Kent (694–725), was the brother of Edric. After the death of the latter in 686 Kent suffered severely from the ravages of Ceadwalla of Wessex, and after his abdication lapsed into anarchy. Not until 694 did Wihtred, brother of the last native king, succeed in establishing himself in sole authority. His reign was successful, and he is spoken of as "an admirable ruler, an invincible warrior, and a pious Christian."

Wilberforce, William (1759–1833), a member of an old Yorkshire family, was educated at St. John's College, Cambridge, where he formed a close friendship with Pitt. On leaving Cambridge he was returned to parliament for Hull, his native town (1780). He at once opposed North, especially in regard to the American War. But on Pitt becoming prime minister he exerted all his powers in support of the struggling government; and at the general election in 1784 he was identified with the Tories, and chosen to represent his native county against all the influence of the Whig families. In parliament he strongly supported Pitt's measures for parliamentary reform. In 1787 he first mentioned in parliament the subject of the slave trade, with which his name is most familiarly associated, and in the next year proposed a resolution pledging the House to take the subject into consideration (May 9). After a long series of preliminary struggles Wilberforce, in 1791, proposed to prevent the further importation of African negroes into the colonies. The bill was rejected by a majority of seventy-five votes (April 18). The next year he proposed a measure for gradually educating the negroes, so that they might at length be fit to be emancipated. This was passed; and from that time forward Wilberforce persevered in order to obtain the total abolition of the trade. His efforts were at length crowned with success. What his friend Pitt had found impossible to achieve, the Whig administration of 1807 accomplished with little difficulty (May 25) with only sixteen dissentient voices, a triumphant result, which was no doubt in some measure due to the opportune appearance of a book by Wilberforce on the subject. Already in 1797 he had acquired considerable celebrity as an author by a book discussing the contrast between the practice and profession of English Christianity, especially among the upper classes. After the abolition of the English slave trade, he was not satisfied at the result of his exertions, but still strove for its universal extinction by all countries. But his efforts were not entirely confined in this particular channel. He took an active part in miscellaneous questions, and gained a very conspicuous place in parliament, both by his own genius and singularly captivating oratory and by his entire independence of party. An instance of this may be seen in his conduct with regard to Lord Melville, whose refusal to render an account of public moneys he criticized sharply, in spite of his friendship for Melville's patron, Pitt. In 1812 he retired, on account of ill-health, from the representation of Yorkshire, which had at six successive elections triumphantly returned him, and in 1825 he retired altogether from parliament. He lived on in broken health for eight years more, and died in 1833. "Few persons," said Lord Brougham, "have ever either reached a higher and more enviable place in the esteem of their fellow-creatures, or have better deserved the place than Wilberforce, whose genius was elevated by his virtues, and exalted by his piety."

"Life of Wilberforce," by his sons Robert and Samuel, 1838 and 1868; his "Correspondence," 1840; and biographies by J. C. Colquhoun, 1866; J. Stoughton, 1880; R. Coupland, 1923.

"Wild Geese," The, was the name given to young Irishmen who were recruited (chiefly from Kerry) for the Irish Brigade in the French service. In 1721 as many as 20,000 are said to have left the country. In 1730 and 1741 certain French officers were allowed by the government to recruit in Ireland. The Wild Geese were most numerous, however, during the War of the Austrian Succession (1739–48).

Wilde, Thomas, Lord Truro (1782–1855), was the son of an attorney. He was educated at St. Paul's School, called to the bar at the Inner Temple (1817), and rose steadily in his profession. In 1820 he was engaged as one of the counsel for Queen Caroline on her trial. He entered the House of Commons as Whig member for Newark (1831); lost his seat in 1832; but was returned in 1835, 1837, and 1839. In 1839 he became solicitor-general, and in 1841 he was advanced to the attorney-generalship, but retired the same year with his party. In 1846 he was again attorney-general, and in 1850 was made lord chancellor by Lord John Russell, and created a peer. In 1852 he retired with his party. As lord chancellor, he appointed a commission to inquire into the jurisdiction, pleading, and practice of the Court of Chancery. Their report recommended the abolition of the masters' offices, a measure which Lord Truro succeeded in passing, though he had quitted office at the time. Several other important reforms in the procedure of the Chancery court and offices were effected by him.

Wilfrid (or Wilfrith), St. (634–709), began his ecclesiastical career as a novice at Lindisfarne. In 653 he went to Rome in the company of Benedict Biscop. On his return he became tutor to the son of Oswy, King of Northumbria, from whom he received the abbacy of Ripon. At the Synod of Whitby (q.v.) (664) he upheld the Roman cause, of which his sojourn on the continent had made him a firm adherent; and it was largely through his influence that Oswy's decision was given in favour of Rome. After the departure of the Scottish clergy he was appointed to the see of York, and crossed over to Gaul to obtain consecration from Agilbert, Bishop of Paris. During his prolonged absence Oswy appointed

Chad bishop in his place, and Wilfrid, on his return, found himself obliged to retire to Ripon. In 669, however, Chad resigned York to him, and Wilfrid held it until 678; but in that year he again quarrelled with the Northumbrian king. Under the scheme of Theodore of Tarsus (q.v.) for reorganizing the English diocesan system, Wilfrid's great see of York, which comprised the whole of the Northumbrian kingdom, was, without his consent, split into three. Wilfrid, finding his protests unavailing, departed to lay his case before the pope, Bosa being instituted Bishop of York in his place. After spending some time among the heathen of Friesland he reached Rome in 679. He obtained a papal decree ordering his restoration; but it was disregarded by King Egfrid, who threw the returned exile into prison. Released after some nine months, Wilfrid sought refuge among the heathen South Saxons, whom between 681 and 686 he converted to Christianity. At length, after Egfrid's death, Wilfrid was reconciled to Archbishop Theodore and restored to the diminished see of York; but his stormy career was not yet over. In 691 he quarrelled with Aldfrid, Egfrid's pacific successor, who wished to found a fourth Northumbrian diocese at Ripon. Exiled from the northern kingdom, he accepted from Ethelred of Mercia the see of Leicester, which he held for no less than eleven years. In 703–4 he once more appealed to Rome, and again secured a decision in his favour. Aldfrid refused to accept the papal decree and it was not until after his death in 705 that a compromise was at length effected. Wilfrid was not restored to York, but he received instead the diocese of Hexham, and Ripon was given back to him. He died at Oundle four years later. His indefatigible zeal, his support of monasticism, and his missionary activity earned him the title of saint; but to an impartial observer it appears that his troubles were largely of his own making. He was proud and unconciliatory in disposition, and his resistance to king and archbishop seems to have been dictated rather by self-interest than by any considerations of wider policy.

Wilkes, John (1727–97), the son of Israel Wilkes, a rich distiller, was born on October 17, 1727. Early in life he was persuaded to marry a rich heiress, whom he treated with much cruelty and neglect. In the gayest and most vicious society of a gay and vicious age he soon became conspicuous by the brilliance of his wit and his reckless debauchery. In 1757, after being previously rejected at Berwick, he bought himself a seat in parliament for Aylesbury. On June 5, 1762, with Churchill's help, he started a periodical, known as the *North Briton*. In it he cleverly managed to suit the popular sentiments of the time, and especially pandered to the general indignation against Bute, and the animosity felt towards the Scottish nation. On April 23, 1763, appeared "Number 45," which attacked the king's speech at the close of the late session. Grenville signalized his entrance into office by arresting Wilkes under a general warrant. After being examined before Lords Halifax and Egremont, the secretaries of state, he was sent to the Tower, from which he was soon released in virtue of his prerogative as a member of parliament. He then retired to Paris. On the meeting of parliament in November a resolution was passed, declaring No. 45 to be "a false, scandalous, and malicious libel" (November 15); and it was also resolved that privilege of parliament did not extend to the case of writing and publishing seditious libels. Being prevented from obeying an order of the House to attend in his place, he was expelled in his absence. The Lords went further; and, on the information of Lord Sandwich, who had himself been a partner in nearly all Wilkes's vices, ordered prosecution to be instituted against him on account of a work entitled "An Essay on Woman," of which thirteen copies only had been printed, and those for private circulation. Wilkes knew that the court of King's Bench, under the presidency of Lord Mansfield, would decide against him, and preferred to be condemned in his absence. The sentence passed on him was outlawry, and for four years he remained abroad. In February 1768 he ventured again to appear in London, and in the conspicuous position of candidate for the City. He was defeated, but at once announced himself as a candidate for Middlesex. He was welcomed with acclamations by the electors, and elected by an overwhelming majority (March 28). The outlawry was at length reversed; but on the original charge Wilkes was ordered to pay a fine of £1,000, and sentenced to imprisonment for twenty-two calendar months. In November 1768 Wilkes addressed a petition to the House, in which he claimed his privilege against further imprisonment. This was disallowed. In the February following his expulsion was voted, and a new writ was issued for Middlesex. He was again elected. The Commons replied by a decision that Wilkes having been expelled was incapable of being returned to the same parliament, and that his election was null and void; but the electors of Middlesex again returned him by a majority of 800 over the court candidate, Colonel Luttrell. The House now decided that Luttrell ought to have been elected. A petition against Luttrell's election was lodged; but the House was not to be convinced by the arguments of Grenville, Wedderburn, and Burke, and confirmed his election. In January 1770 Dowdeswell twice attacked the resolution of the Commons in a substantive motion, and the protest was annually renewed by Sir George Savile, only to meet with a contemptuous rejection. At length, in 1774, the parliament was dissolved; and Wilkes was returned again for Middlesex (October 29), while he held the office of lord mayor. The contest was not reopened,

Wilkes was allowed to take his seat, and he now bent all his efforts to have the resolution which had declared his incapacity expunged from the journals of the House "as subversive of the rights of the whole body of electors." Year after year he proposed his motion, but it was not till May 3, 1782, when the Rockingham government was in power, that all the declarations, orders, and resolutions on the Middlesex election were expunged from the journals. Thus at length, by his firm conduct, Wilkes had obtained from parliament a clear recognition of the right of every constituency to return the member of its choice. But in the meantime he had been waging another contest with the same body. The right of reporting the debates of the House had been always denied by parliament, and had been watched with cautious jealousy, and the printers who issued reports of debates were prosecuted. Wilkes took up their cause, and was backed by all the strength of the City authorities, and the contest finally took the form of a struggle between parliament and the City, in the course of which Lord Mayor Crosby and Alderman Oliver, both members of the House, were in March 1771 committed to the Tower. The House, however, shrank from a new contest with Wilkes, who was the chief offender. The imprisoned members were released on the prorogation of parliament, and the contest thus ended in the defeat of parliament. As a parliamentary speaker Wilkes was an utter failure, and never carried any weight in the House. The electors of Middlesex still stood by him as long as he chose to ask for their support. His cheerful disposition was not affected by the change in his position, and he was never happier than in the society of his dearly-loved daughter. At length, "reconciled to every reputable opponent, from the king downwards," he died at the close of 1799.

Almon, "Memoirs of Wilkes"; "Grenville Papers"; Trevelyan, "Early Life of C. J. Fox," 1880; biography by H. W. Bleackley, 1917.

William I, King of the English (December 25, 1066—September 9, 1087). This, the most masterly spirit of the most masterly race of his time, was a grandson alike of Richard the Good, Duke of Normandy, and of Fulk, the tanner of Falaise, and was born at Falaise in 1027 or 1028. The tanner's daughter, Harlotta, or Herleva, is said to have caught the eye of the duke's son as she was washing linen; an irregular union followed, which lasted through the remainder of Robert's life and brief tenure of the duchy (1028–35). Of this union William, famous as the Bastard, and a daughter, Adelaide, afterwards Countess of Ponthieu, were the issue. After her lover's death Herleva wedded a noble Norman, Herlwin of Conteville, and bore him two children, Odo and Robert, who were both to share in the greatness of their half-brother. Odo became Bishop of Bayeux and Earl of Kent; Robert, Earl of Mortain and of Cornwall. William was barely eight years old when his life entered the domain of history. In 1035 his father died at Nicæa, as he was returning from Jerusalem. Before leaving Normandy Duke Robert had persuaded his chief nobles to swear allegiance to the lad as heir to the duchy, and they now nominally kept their word. William became Duke of Normandy, but his first twelve years of rule were such as few princes have been called on to face, as only a rarely-gifted boy could live through. The Norman nobles threw off all governance; despising the child-duke and his guardians, they did what was right in their own eyes; they waged private war, and plotted against and killed one another as if no central authority existed. The other members of the ducal family, resenting the preference of a bastard to one of themselves, made their young kinsman the constant mark of murderous designs, and William had more than one miraculous deliverance out of their hands. His friends were few and weak; even the French king, Henry, who owed his crown to William's father, turned against him, and robbed him of an important frontier fortress, Tillières. His boyhood was one of unceasing mortifications, anxieties, treacheries, perils, and alarms, but redeemed by one reassuring experience, the touching fidelity of his guardians and humble friends. Two of these were poisoned, and one laid down his life to save his young master's. This was Osbern, who held the door of William's sleeping-room in the castle of Vaudreuil against a sudden inburst of armed men seeking his life, and, before falling dead, had won him the time needed for his escape. Then his maternal uncle, Walter, took up the task of self-devotion, patiently keeping watch over his steps, and sheltering him from harm, till his character had begun to show its natural strength, and Ralph of Wacey, an honourable kinsman, had accepted the post of guardian. The ground was now somewhat firmer under William's feet; at fifteen he was able to give his earliest proof of a capacity for bridling anarchy by wresting Falaise Castle from a rebellious vassal. His independent career began in 1047 in a very striking manner. The lawless spirits of the Cotentin, where the Danish blood and temper still abounded, had risen in rebellion, surprised the castle of Valognes where William was lying, and forced him to flee for his life through the darkness of the night. Not long afterwards he met them with the most loyal of his vassals and his reconciled lord, the French king, at Val-ès-dunes, near Caen, and beat them utterly, crushing the revolt at a single blow. Then, as generally through his life, he treated his vanquished rebels with singular clemency. Thus firmly fixed in his ducal seat, he proceeded to achievements that gained him a European fame before he ever drew sword in England. He established law and order throughout his duchy, adding such correctives to the prevalent feudalism as might make a strong central government possible. His measures met with a stubborn resistance, and over and over again he reduced to submission the ungovernable among his

subjects. With the hereditary foe of his house, Geoffrey Martel of Anjou, he resolutely grappled, and in 1049 recovered Alençon, and snatched Domfront from him, departing at the former place from his accustomed lenity by striking off the hands and feet of thirty-two of its defenders, who had beaten hides over their walls in scornful reference to his origin. He took the first step towards his conquest of England by visiting King Edward, his childless kinsman, in 1051, and receiving from him the assurances, necessarily vague, that he afterwards gave out to have been a promise of the succession to the kingdom. In 1053, apparently, he took to wife, despite Pope Leo's inhibition, his cousin, Matilda of Flanders, Count Baldwin's daughter, whom he had loved for four years. The papal ban under which he then fell was not removed till 1060 ; and religious and charitable foundations were erected by him and his wife as the prescribed atonement for their defiance of the Church. His growing greatness then gave offence to his suzerain, King Henry, who twice led an army into Normandy to clip the wings of his power. On the first occasion (1054) one of his two invading columns was surprised and routed by Robert of Eu at Mortemer, whereupon the other made all haste to get home again. On the second (1058), just when his force had been halved by the rising tide of the Dive, near Varaville, William came down upon the hinder half thus isolated, and cut it in pieces, scaring Henry not only into a swift retreat, but also into the making of a peace that restored Tillières, and proved lasting. By this time the duchy had increased considerably at the expense of its neighbours, especially of Anjou, and in the wisdom of its rule and general prosperity outdistanced most other states. In 1063 William made his great continental acquisition in the conquest of Maine, upon which a compact with its last count, Herbert Wakedog, gave him a claim, but which the resistance of a part of the people obliged him to reduce by force of arms. Next year he made war on Conan of Brittany with complete success. This was perhaps the expedition on which Harold of England, an impressed guest, was his companion, and after which Harold took the oath that Norman writers declare to have pledged him to uphold the duke's claim to the English throne : for the greatest crisis of William's life, and one of the greatest in European history, was approaching.

Early in 1066 it came. Edward of England died on January 5, and the vacant throne was at once filled by Harold. William felt himself overreached, and lost no time in making himself even with his ready rival, and vindicating his position as a candidate for the English crown. He proceeded to seek material and moral support from every quarter that could supply either, won over the pope, won over his unwilling subjects, drew to his banner swarms of volunteers from surrounding lands, and thus gathered round his cause not merely a noble host of fighting men, but the general sympathy of Europe. On September 28 he landed at Pevensey, marched to Hastings, and on October 14 decided Harold's fate, his own, and England's, at the terrible fight of Senlac. It was his battle in every sense ; above all earthly forces, it was his own skill, ready resource, and prowess that gave him the victory. His subsequent movements made him master of the south-eastern counties ; at Berkhampstead he was offered, and accepted, the kingdom, and on Christmas Day he was crowned at Westminster. Thus he became a conqueror. But the task of completing and securing his conquest still lay before him, and it cost him four years of rarely-exampled vigilance, toil, and endurance. After a long visit to Normandy in 1067 he was recalled thence to deal with risings of his new subjects. He won Exeter, and subdued the western counties ; marched to Warwick, and brought the Earls Edwin and Morkere, who had rebelled against him, to their knees, entered York, and subdued the northern counties. Next year (1069) he had to confront a general outburst of the west, midlands, and north, and a great Danish invasion, but by wise management and indomitable valour he overcame both insurgents and invaders. He found arguments that persuaded the Danes to withdraw, scattered the rebels, or drove them before him, stormed York, while the men of the west sank under the blows of his captains. As a warning to all rebels he utterly laid waste and practically depopulated all northern England. A winter march upon Chester, across a country impassable to an army less resolutely led, virtually completed the work of conquest (1070). There remained a last centre of resistance in the Isle of Ely, which was not finally subdued until a year later.

But other work remained. The Church was more firmly linked to the centre of western Christendom ; its administration was separated from the general, of which it had hitherto been a part ; the ranks of the clergy were strengthened by the preferment to high place among them of foreign genius and learning, such as was Lanfranc of Pavia and Bec, and an impulse was given to the building of churches after a grander type. Rules of law, not inequitably fitted to the wants of a mixed population, were framed and established ; a strict execution of justice was everywhere enforced, and trading in slaves was forbidden. Edgar the Atheling was conciliated, and became one of William's most favoured courtiers. Conqueror as he was, William strove hard to prevent the Norman yoke being excessively galling to the conquered. But he had still much fighting to do, both abroad and in Britain. Abroad he had, in 1073, to recover rebellious Maine, with a force that was in a large measure English, to suppress a rising of his son Robert against him, to counteract the enmity of Philip of France and Fulk of Anjou. At home he saw reason to invade Scotland in 1072 ; and, marching as far as Abernethy, made a peace there with King Malcolm. In 1075, during one of his absences,

the Earls of Hereford and Norfolk, whose feudal instincts he had curbed, rebelled, but were defeated by Lanfranc. For his part in this affair Waltheof died on the scaffold. William's greatest deed was his last, the compilation of Domesday Book, accomplished in 1086. Sorrows came upon him in later life; his son Richard was killed in the New Forest; in 1083 his wife, Matilda, died; his half-brother, Odo, entered into intrigues that forced William to throw him into prison. On September 9, 1087, his own busy and brilliant career came to a close. Philip of France had once more picked a quarrel with him; this exploded in war, in the course of which Mantes was burnt, and William received a mortal injury by a fall from his horse. Borne to the priory of St. Gervais, near Rouen, he there died. He was buried in his own foundation of St. Stephen's in Caen. William was a man of extraordinary power and of many virtues, intellectual and moral, a certain greatness of soul being the chief. To Englishmen his value has been principally this—he was the founder of strong government in England. We must bear in mind that his best-known title is now misleading; "conqueror" in his days meant merely "acquirer," a gainer of possessions in any other way than by regular process, such as inheritance. Strictly speaking, William III was also a conqueror.

E. A. Freeman, "Norman Conquest," 1868–72; F. M. Stenton, "William the Conqueror and the Rule of the Normans," 1908; general works on the period are: G. B. Adams, "Political History of England," vol. ii; H. W. C. Davis, "England Under the Normans and Angevins"; Sir Jas. Ramsay, "The Foundations of England," vol. ii. [J. R.]

William II, King (*b.* 1060 ?, *s.* September 26, 1087, *d.* August 2, 1100). William the Red (Rufus) was the third son of the Conqueror and Matilda of Flanders. He was the Conqueror's favourite son; for he had never swerved from his filial obligations, and had shown his father a seemingly sincere affection. He was, moreover, a young man of good parts and steadfastness—knowing well, and always acting upon, the distinction between substance and shadow. Nor did his vices develop early. It is nothing surprising, then, to be told that when the elder William lay upon his dying bed, he expressed a wish that this most dutiful of sons should have England after his death; he is said to have even given Rufus a letter to Lanfranc, recommending his cause to the influential primate's support. With this, William at once hastened to England. There was much in the situation to discourage him. Most of the barons would have preferred his eldest brother, Robert, and Lanfranc himself was undecided at first. The primate's indecision, however, soon gave way; he may have concluded that the strong-tempered William, despite his faults, would probably be a more effective king than the easy-natured Robert, when feudal anarchy was the most menacing evil; at any rate he secured the crown for William. But he made conditions. These were, that William should swear to maintain justice and mercy throughout the kingdom, to defend, against all, the peace, freedom, and security of all churches, and to comply with his instructions and counsels in and through all things. William took the prescribed oaths with the utmost readiness; and seventeen days after the father's death, and possibly after observing some form of election, Lanfranc crowned the son. A few months later a powerful section of the nobles, discontented at the separation of the kingdom from the duchy (of whom Odo, now released and restored to his earldom of Kent, Roger, Earl of Shrewsbury, William of St. Carilef, Bishop of Durham, were the chief), took up arms with the design of reuniting the two countries by making Robert king; and a force sent by Robert crossed to Pevensey to their aid. By Lanfranc's advice William threw himself on the support of the native English, solemnly promising them better laws, lighter taxation, and other good things; and the English, urged on by expectation and St. Wulfstan, crowded to his standard. Their success was complete. The invaders were driven back from Pevensey over the sea; Rochester was taken after a dogged siege; and when Odo perfidiously renewed the strife, William once more called the natives to his help, commanding all those who did not wish to be branded as *nithing* to join him. They joined him in flocks; and Odo was chased with ignominy from the land. But William soon forgot his promises, and the death of Lanfranc, in 1089, left him uncontrolled. His subsequent career was marked by selfishness and wanton tyranny, moderated only by occasional fits of sickness. The Church in particular felt his grasping hand. The revenues of vacant sees and abbeys were seized, and, further to enrich the Crown, the vacancies were deliberately prolonged. It was his policy to deal with clerical exactly as with lay fees, to get the entire Church organization into his power, and make it a perpetual feeder of his own revenues. In Anselm, however, whom he had nominated to the see of Canterbury in 1093, after four years' vacancy, when he was prostrate at Gloucester by a dangerous illness, he found an uncompromising adversary. The meek primate stoutly withstood all William's efforts to enslave the Church and degrade the clergy; he carefully avoided every trap that William laid in his path to surprise him into an admission of an authority over the Church, or doing anything that had the appearance of simony; a prolonged quarrel ensued; the Council of Rockingham (q.v.) failed to reconcile the two; and Anselm went into exile for a time. Then William had his unrestrained will. His confidential adviser and instrument was the notorious Ranulf Flambard (q.v.), the justiciar, who earned much infamy in his service by the zeal and callousness with which he executed his purposes. The Danegeld was revived; in 1094 the *fyrd* of the kingdom was marched down to Hastings to be dispatched for service in Normandy, only

to be dismissed on payment to the Crown of the ten shillings with which each man had been furnished for his expenses; not a pretence that ingenuity could suggest for extorting money was overlooked; the forest law was mercilessly enforced. The nobility of the Conquest also suffered grievously; gaps were made in their ranks, and forfeitures were frequent. No class escaped oppression. In 1091 he carried the war against Robert into Normandy, then combined with him to despoil Henry, and succeeded. He took Cumberland from the King of Scots in 1092, settled a southern colony there, and refounded Carlisle. In 1096 he took advantage of Robert's eagerness to get away on the first Crusade to make a keen bargain with him for the administration of Normandy and Maine. He afterwards suppressed with astonishing promptitude a rebellion in Maine. On August 2, 1100, he was accidentally killed in the New Forest by an arrow that was originally dispatched by his own or some unknown hand. William Rufus was one of the most graceless of all our early kings, was irreligious, greedy, and utterly devoid of principle. He was, however, a man of excellent mental gifts; and was a sayer of sharp sayings, chiefly cynical.

E. A. Freeman, "Reign of William Rufus," 2 vols., 1882. General works on the period are: G. B. Adams, "Political History of England," vol. ii; H. W. C. Davis, "England Under the Normans and Angevins"; Sir Jas. Ramsay, "The Foundations of England," vol. ii. [J. R.]

William III, King of England and Prince of Orange (*b.* November 4, 1650, *s.* February 13, 1689, *d.* March 8, 1702), was the son of William II, Prince of Orange, and Mary, daughter of King Charles I of England. He was born a few days after his father's death, and his youth was passed under the jealous guardianship of the aristocratic party in the Netherlands, headed by John de Witt. His exclusion from the Stadtholderate was suggested by Cromwell, and agreed to by the States (1654). William received but little education, but early showed great interest in political and military questions, and in the doctrines of Calvinism. From a child he was weak and sickly. His chief and almost only amusement was the chase. At the age of fifteen he was deprived of his personal attendants by the jealous government. He took a part in the councils of state at eighteen. The French invasion changed this state of affairs. The de Witts were murdered by the populace; and William, who neglected to punish the murderers, became the head of the government. In 1672 he took command of the army, recovered Naerden, and took Bonn. Louis XIV thereupon confiscated his principalities and gave them to the Count of Auvergne. During the next four years he fought the French without much success. He was defeated by Condé at Senef (1674), and failed in his attempts to take Oudenarde and Maestricht (1676); he was driven back at Cassel, and compelled to raise the siege of Charleroi. Nevertheless the Dutch had already elected him stadtholder, captain-general and admiral-general, and extended the offices to his descendants (February 1674). Charles II of England determined thereupon to marry him to his niece Mary, daughter of James, Duke of York. After some deliberation on the part of William, the marriage took place (November 1677), and a scheme was formed for an alliance with England which the States-General declined to ratify. Aided by the English he attacked Marshal Luxemburg near Mons with some success, but the news of the conclusion of the Treaty of Nimeguen caused him to suspend operations (1678). We next find him planning a great European combination against Louis XIV. A scheme was on foot for making him the future Protector of England (1681). He attempted to mediate between Charles II and his parliament, and proposed a congress for the settlement of all questions at issue in Europe (1683). On the accession of James II the Prince of Orange drew nearer to him, although steadily opposing his Romanizing schemes. He opposed Monmouth's rash attempt on the Crown, advising him to go and fight the Turks; and although the blunders of the States-General permitted his departure for England, William sent back the English regiments which were in the Dutch service. His attention was now entirely absorbed by his design of uniting the nations of Europe in resistance to Louis XIV, and he rejected all ideas of an invasion of England to which he was urged by Mordaunt. He saw that his claims would clash with those of his wife. Still the romanizing schemes of James II gradually made him the head of the English opposition. He wrote to the king strongly recommending the withdrawal of the Declaration of Indulgence. In 1686 he sent his envoy Dykvelt to England to confer with the leading statesmen. He was now completely estranged from James II, who was much annoyed by the publication at this time of William's views concerning the Indulgence. On the birth of the young Prince of Wales William sent his congratulations to James. In May 1688 Edward Russell (q.v.) went over to Holland to sound the prince, but received a guarded reply. In August he received an invitation to England, signed by seven leading men, which he accepted. Great difficulties lay before him. He was afraid of the veto of the States-General, and of the alienation of the Catholic powers. James's treatment of the clergy, and importation of Irish troops to England, removed his difficulties there. Having completed his preparations, William issued a declaration, in which he stated his intention of going to England with an armed force as husband of the heiress of England. After being driven back by the winds, he landed at Torbay (November 5). At Exeter he was joined by many influential personages, and James was deserted by the army at Salisbury. William advanced towards London, and negotiations were opened between him and the king. James,

however, resolved to fly, but was stopped by some fishermen and returned to London. William's position was now extremely difficult, but he was greatly relieved by the final escape of James to France. The convention which met on January 22, 1689, declared the throne vacant, and after passing the Declaration of Right (q.v.), caused William and Mary to be proclaimed King and Queen of England (February 13, 1689).

The reign may be said to be roughly divided into two parts by the Treaty of Ryswick (1697), during the first of which William was engaged in active resistance of Louis XIV, while the second was modified by the Spanish Succession question. William's first ministry was of a mixed character. War was declared against France in May. In Ireland the native race showed every inclination to hold out for King James, who betook himself thither. Londonderry was besieged, but relieved by Kirke, and the battle of Newtown Butler (q.v.) gave William the advantage for the time being. Meanwhile in Scotland the crown was offered to William (April 11). Dundee, however, raised the Highlanders in favour of James, and won a battle, but lost his life at Killiecrankie (q.v.). Mackay, by his victories at St. Johnstone's and Dunkeld, concluded the war. At home, party quarrels reached a great height, but parliament passed the Bill of Rights. Next year William determined to go to Ireland and relieve Schomberg. He won the battle of the Boyne (July 1), but was compelled to raise the siege of Limerick and return home. The English fleet had been disgracefully beaten at Beachy Head. In 1691 Ginkel (q.v.) concluded the Irish war by taking Athlone, winning the battle of Aghrim (q.v.), and besieging Limerick. The Pacification of Limerick settled the Irish question for a time. At home Preston's plot was discovered and thwarted. Abroad, though unsuccessful in the field, William greatly strengthened his great coalition by the congress at The Hague. Early in 1692 Marlborough's intrigues with the Jacobites in France were discovered, and he was dismissed from his office, and in consequence the Princess Anne quarrelled with the queen. The massacre of Glencoe (February 13) (q.v.) must ever remain a stain on the memory of William III. The projected invasion of England was thwarted by Russell's great victory off La Hogue (May 19). William was defeated by Marshal Luxemburg at Steinkirk in August. In parliament Montagu's financial ability re-established the Land Tax, and started a loan which proved the origin of the national debt. Military and naval affairs were unfortunate in their results in 1693. The loss of the Smyrna fleet was followed by the defeat at Landen in July. William, disgusted with party quarrels, determined to form a united Whig ministry. The year 1694 is important from a financial point of view. The Bank of England was established, and the East India Company's charter renewed. The disclosure of the venality in connexion with the East India Company compelled the Tories, Sir John Trevor and Carmarthen, to retire from office. The naval events of the year are unimportant, although Marlborough's treachery had resulted in the destruction of the expedition against Brest. The Triennial Act, which had previously been vetoed by William, passed in December. In the same month Queen Mary died of small-pox, and William was almost heart-broken at her loss. In the next year William was successful in his operations against Namur, which surrendered in August. The year 1796 opened successfully with the re-establishment of the currency. The Tory Land Bank, however, proved a failure, and the money required by the king was furnished by the Bank of England. The discovery of Berwick's plot, and the infamous Assassination Plot (q.v.), created great enthusiasm, and an association was formed for the protection of the king. The chief business of the session was the trial and attainder of Sir John Fenwick (q.v.), who was executed in the following January. The ministry was now completely Whig. The war with France was concluded by the Treaty of Ryswick (q.v.—September 1697).

William was deeply mortified by the successful introduction of the bill for the reduction of the standing army. The Irish parliament of this year passed several statutes of a highly penal nature. In 1698 Montagu formed a General East India Company as a rival to that already existing, but the scheme was eventually a failure. An attempt to settle the Spanish Succession question resolved itself into the First Partition Treaty (q.v.—October 11). The Tory party, now very strong, succeeded in carrying a bill which necessitated the dismissal of the Dutch guards. The king, deeply mortified, formed the intention of abandoning England, and was only dissuaded by the prayers of Somers. The majority in the Commons severely attacked the measures of the late ministry, their favourite objects being Montagu and Russell. They also "tacked" to the Land Tax Bill a clause empowering commissioners to inquire into the disposal of forfeited lands in Ireland. William in anger prorogued parliament (May 4, 1698). Discontent in Scotland reached a high pitch when news arrived of the utter failure of the great Darien scheme. The Resumption Bill was passed in April 1700, greatly to the annoyance of William and at the risk of a permanent breach between the two Houses. Meanwhile the diplomacy of William had brought about the Second Partition Treaty (q.v.). It was not well received in England. William now dismissed his old ministry, and relied on an entirely Tory administration, which passed the Act of Succession necessitated by the death of the young Duke of Gloucester, the heir to the throne. The Commons hurried on impeachments against the late ministry on account of their share in the Partition Treaties, which, however, proved abortive. The Kentish Petition (q.v.) and the Legion Memorial (q.v.) proved at the same time

that popular feeling was on the king's side. He ventured, therefore, to prorogue parliament (June 1701). He went to Holland, and there consolidated the grand alliance between England, Holland, and the emperor, directed against the evident intention of Louis XIV to seize the Spanish throne for his grandson. Soon afterwards James II died and the French king acknowledged the Pretender as King of England (September 6). This thoroughly roused English patriotism, and loyal addresses poured in on all sides. William, who had returned in ill-health in November, accordingly seized the opportunity to summon a new parliament. It was of a far more Whig temper than its predecessor. The "pretended Prince of Wales" was attainted of high treason, and an abjuration oath made necessary for every employment in Church and State. But William's days were numbered. On February 20 he fell from his horse and broke his collar-bone. He gave his assent to the Succession Act, and surrounded by his old friends breathed his last on March 8 (1702). "Wherein," says Ranke, "lay his greatness? It lay in the position he took up and steadily maintained; in the world-wide historic results, some of which he himself achieved in his lifetime, while of others he only laid the foundations, or advanced them a stage. . . . The most important question of the day, and that of the highest importance for the future of mankind in Europe, was the rise of the French monarchy to universal preponderance, which threatened the independence of every country and every race. The living impulse, then, which determined King William's career sprang out of his opposition to this already domineering and overgrasping power. If this was to be carried through, no political or theological party attitude was to be thought of. To have brought a coalition of heterogeneous elements into existence, and to have successfully opposed it to the overwhelming might of France—this is the historic achievement of William III. No one was ever cleverer at building up confederations and holding them together, or in commanding armies of the most various composition without arousing national antipathies; no one knew better how in contests at home to await the right moment, to give way, and yet to hold fast."

Clarendon, "Correspondence," 1689–1690; Burnet, "History of His Own Time," ed. O. Airy, 1897–1900; Macaulay's "History of England," of which William III is the hero; Pontalis, "John de Witt," 1885; biographies by H. D. Traill, 1888; W. H. Torriano, 1887, etc.; G. H. Guttridge, "Colonial Policy of William III," 1922; Sir J. R. Seeley, "Growth of British Policy," 1910; J. Appleyard, "William of Orange and the English Revolution," 1908; study of William as a general in J. W. Fortescue, "History of the British Army," vol. i, 1889; biography of Louis XIV by A. Hassall, 1895 and 1902.

William IV, King (*b.* August 21, 1765, *s.* June 26, 1830, *d.* June 20, 1837), was the third son of George III and Queen Charlotte. At the age of thirteen he was entered as a midshipman on board the *Prince George*, a 98-gun ship. In 1779 he saw active service under Rodney, and served his time as a midshipman in cruising vessels in the West Indies, and off the coast of Nova Scotia and Canada. He served under Lord Keith on the North American station, under Lord Hood off the Delaware River, and under Nelson upon the Leeward Island station. Between the latter commander and himself a strong and lasting friendship grew up. In 1785 he received his lieutenant's commission. In 1786 he was appointed captain of the *Pegasus*. In 1787 he sailed for the West Indies as commander of the *Andromeda* frigate. In 1790 he was made rear-admiral of the blue by order in council. On May 20, 1789, he was created Duke of Clarence and St. Andrews and Earl of Munster, and on June 8 following took his seat in the House of Lords. In 1811 he was made admiral of the fleet, and in 1814 hoisted his flag to convoy Louis XVIII of France to his kingdom. During the earlier part of the same year he was present as an amateur before Antwerp, and distinguished himself by his coolness and courage. A marriage was negotiated for him with the Princess Adelaide Louisa, daughter of the Duke of Saxe-Coburg Meiningen. They were married at Kew, 1818, and shortly afterwards proceeded to reside in Hanover, parliament having granted on the occasion an accession of only £6,000 to the duke's income. The duchess had two daughters, who both died almost immediately. At the prosecution of Queen Caroline (1820) the Duke of Clarence supported the bill of pains and penalties. On the death of his brother, the Duke of York (1827), he became heir presumptive to the crown, and received an accession to his income, which raised it to £40,000 a year. On April 17, 1827, he was appointed lord high admiral. His conduct in the office was eccentric, and after much friction with the lords of the admiralty he quarrelled with Sir George Cockburn and had to resign the office (August 11, 1828). At the death of George IV the Duke of Clarence, from a position of comparative obscurity, succeeded to the throne (June 26, 1830). In the presence of the privy council assembled on that day, according to custom, the new king, with marked emphasis, expressed to the Duke of Wellington his entire approval of the way in which his grace had carried on the government hitherto. Nevertheless, he was at first favourable to reform, but the disturbances at home and the fall of Charles X of France frightened him, and in the crisis of May 1832, when the Lords were preparing to reject the bill a third time, he would not consent to create new peers, and allowed the Grey ministry to resign. But the failure of Wellington to form a ministry convinced him that the feeling of the nation was emphatically in favour of the bill. He used his personal intercession with the peers to induce them to pass the bill, and was even prepared to "swamp" the House of Lords with new peers if the advice was rejected. The bill, however, was carried, and followed by the other reforming statutes

which have made William IV's short reign an eventful period in modern English history. The king liked neither the Whig ministers nor their policy, and in 1834 (November 15) he exercised his prerogative, and suddenly dismissed Lord Melbourne and his colleagues. But the Peel ministry was hopelessly weak, and in 1835 (April) the king found it expedient to recall Lord Melbourne to his councils. William IV, though not greatly distinguished for talent and character, was a kindly and good-natured man, with the courage and firmness of his race, if also with its hereditary obstinacy. "He would have passed," says Walpole, "in private life for a good-natured sailor."

S. Walpole, "History of England from 1815," 1879; C. G. Greville, "Memoirs"; Wellington, "Civil Dispatches," vols. iv-viii, 1867–80; biographies of William IV by P. Fitzgerald, 1884; W. Harding, 1837; J. F. Molloy, 1903.

William Clito (*d.* 1128) was the eldest son of Robert of Normandy. After the battle of Tenchebrai he was placed under the care of Helie de St. Saen, who guarded him most loyally against Henry's attempts to seize him. His claims were supported by the French king and Fulk V of Anjou, the latter of whom affianced his daughter Sibyl to him. The victory of Henry at Brenneville destroyed his hopes, and he had to content himself with claiming the county of Flanders, to which he had succeeded by the failure of the male line. He had almost succeeded in making himself master of the county when he was pierced by a lance while besieging the town of Alost, and died in 1128.

H. W. C. Davis, "England Under the Normans and Angevins."

William the Lion, King of Scotland (1165–1214), son of Prince Henry and Ada de Warenne, succeeded his brother, Malcolm IV, as King of Scotland (1165). Having failed to obtain from Henry II the restoration of Northumberland from the English king, he listened eagerly to the proposals of Prince Henry of England, and in 1173 hurried to the north of England, whence, however, he was driven back by Richard de Lucy and Humphrey de Bohun. The following year he again invaded England, took several castles, and laid waste the country. But he was ambushed while superintending the siege of Alnwick Castle (July 13), and carried with every symptom of indignity before Henry at Northampton. The English king sent his royal prisoner to Falaise in Normandy, where, in December 1174, a treaty was concluded in which William specifically acknowledged the supremacy of England over Scotland. Early the next year the Scottish king did homage to Henry at York for Scotland and Galloway. This subjection lasted until Richard restored Scottish independence for the sum of 10,000 marks in 1189. On William's release under the Treaty of Falaise he found himself compelled to quell an insurrection in Galloway, and to subdue Ross a few years later (1179). In 1181 a fresh insurrection, due partly to dissatisfaction at the Treaty of Falaise, broke out in the north in favour of Donald Bane MacWilliam, and lasted six years, during which time William was also once more at variance with the people of Galloway. In 1188 an abortive conference was held at Brigham between the King of Scotland and the Bishop of Durham as the representative of Henry II. In 1196 William took Caithness from the Norwegian Earl Harold, but restored it to him on payment of a sum of money (1202). The suppression of another insurrection under Godfrey MacWilliam, in Ross (1211), was the closing act of William's domestic troubles. In the early part of his reign he had quarrelled (on grounds similar to those which embroiled John with Innocent III) with Pope Alexander III, who placed his kingdom under an interdict, which was, however, removed by Lucius III in 1182. In 1203 an interview with the English king at Lincoln regarding the earldom of Northumberland (November 1200) having proved unsatisfactory, he supported the papal attack on John and expressed his satisfaction at the interdict laid on England. From this time for nine years England and Scotland were frequently on the point of coming to blows owing to John's persistence in attempting to build a castle at Tweedmouth to overlook Berwick. In 1212, however, a close alliance was made between the two kings at Durham, on condition of John's assistance in the suppression of the rebellion in Ross. In December 1214 William died at Stirling, leaving behind him a reputation for energy of character and impetuosity. It was his constant but unsuccessful endeavour to carry out the policy of his grandfather David. He left Scotland in a far more advanced state of feudalism than his predecessor had done. William married Ermengarde de Bellomonte.

P. Hume Brown, "History of Scotland," 1911; C. S. Terry, "History of Scotland," 1920; A. C. Laurie, "Annals of the Reigns of Malcolm and William, Kings of Scotland," 1910.

Williams, John, Archbishop of York (1582–1650), was a member of an old Welsh family, and, after a brilliant university career, received many valuable preferments in the Church, being at length made dean of Westminster in 1620. He was also one of the royal chaplains, and high in favour both with James I and Buckingham. In 1621 he was made lord chancellor, in which office his great ability and industry supplied the place of early legal training, and in the same year was appointed Bishop of Lincoln. But Buckingham's favour did not last long, and by his influence Charles I removed Williams from his office in 1625. Laud also was a great antagonist of his, and through his influence Williams was condemned in 1637 to pay a heavy fine, to imprisonment, and to suspension from his ecclesiastical functions on the charge of having revealed the king's secrets and tampered with witnesses (July 11). In 1640 he was released, and soon regained the king's favour by supporting the cause of the preroga-

tive and episcopacy, and in 1641 was advanced to the archbishopric of York. Soon after this he was insulted by the mob, and on protesting with the other bishops against their being thus excluded from parliament, he was sent to the Tower. After the outbreak of the Civil War he zealously assisted the king, both with money and advice, and is said to have mourned sincerely for his death. His character is very unfavourably painted by Clarendon, who declared him to have been "of a proud, restless, and overweening spirit, a very imperious and fiery temper, and a very corrupt nature." On the other hand, Foss, summing up his character, comes to the conclusion that he was, "though too much of a temporizer, honest and sincere, and generally wise in the advice which he offered, and to the monarchs whom he served he was faithful and true."

J. Hacket, "Life of Williams," 1693; B. H. Beedham, "Notices of Archbishop Williams," 1869.

Williams, Sir Roger (1540 ?–1595), one of the bravest soldiers of Elizabeth's reign, served in the Netherlands under Sir John Norris and the Earl of Leicester, the latter of whom treated him exceedingly badly through jealousy of one who had so distinguished himself. Williams was present at Zutphen (q.v.). In 1587 the Prince of Parma in vain endeavoured to induce him to quit his allegiance and enter the Spanish service.

J. D. Wilson, "Martin Marprelate and Shakespeare's Fluellen," 1912.

Willoughby, Francis, 5th Lord Willoughby of Parham (1613 ?–1666), was for some time connected with the Parliamentary party. After the execution of Charles I he joined the Royalists, and in 1650 went out to Barbados, where in the following year he defeated an expedition under Admiral Sir George Ayscue, which had been sent out by Cromwell to punish the Royalist proclivities of the Barbadians. He was soon afterwards compelled to return to England, where, after the Restoration, he obtained substantial marks of favour from Charles II. In 1663 he returned to Barbados as governor, and in the following year took St. Lucia. Two years later he perished in an expedition to recapture St. Kitt's.

Willoughby, Sir Robert, 1st Baron Willoughby de Broke (*d.* 1502), was a zealous adherent of the house of Lancaster. He supported the rebellion of Buckingham in 1483, and later fled to join Henry, Earl of Richmond, in Brittany. He accompanied Henry to England in 1485 and fought at Bosworth. As a mark of Henry's gratitude for his past services, Sir Robert Willoughby was raised to the peerage under the title of Lord Willoughby de Broke, and thenceforward was entrusted with many important missions of a military and diplomatic character. In 1489 he was given the command of the English force sent to the aid of the Duke of Brittany, and in 1497 relieved Exeter when besieged by the Cornish rebels.

Willoughby, Robert, Baron Willoughby de Eresby (1385 ?–1452), was a distinguished military commander of the fifteenth century. In 1415 he was present with Henry V at the siege of Harfleur and the battle of Agincourt. In 1418 he was at the siege of Rouen, and in 1424 at Verneuil. The following year, in company with Sir John Fastolfe, he defeated the French and relieved Alençon. In 1428 he accompanied Cardinal Beaufort in his expedition to Bohemia. Returning, he again took part in the French war, assisted at the capture of St. Denis and Pontoise in 1435, and was charged with the defence of Paris in that year. He was obliged to surrender the capital in April 1436. One of his last exploits was the defeat of the French at Amiens, in 1441. He died July 25, 1452.

Wills, The Statute of (1540), was explained and re-enacted in 1543. Its object was to remove the restrictions imposed, under the Plantagenets, on the testamentary power over freehold land. It provided, therefore, that anyone being seized in fee simple, and being a person capable of making a will, might devise to any other person, except to bodies corporate, two-thirds of his lands and tenements held in chivalry, and the whole of those held in socage. On the abolition of chivalry after the Restoration this practically included all landed property except copyhold tenements.

32 Henry VIII, cap. 1, and 34 & 35 Henry VIII, cap. 5.

Wilmington, Spencer Compton, Earl of (1673 ?–1743). [Compton.]

Wilson, Sir Archdale (1803–74), entered the Bengal army 1819; served at the siege of Bhartpur (1825–6); commanded the artillery as lieutenant-colonel in the Jalandar Doab in 1848–9, and rose through various grades to brigadier-commander of the Bengal artillery at Meerut (1856). Here the Indian Mutiny (q.v.) first broke out, and here Wilson gained the first victory over the insurgents. On June 7 he joined Sir Henry Barnard at Alipur, and on the latter's death succeeded to the command of the army besieging Delhi. On September 20 Delhi surrendered to him. Wilson subsequently commanded the artillery at the siege of Lucknow. For these services he was thanked by both Houses, made in succession a companion, knight-commander, and grand cross of the Bath, granted a pension of £1,000 a year by the East India Company, and created a baronet.

Wiltshire, Earls of. [Boleyn; Butler; Scrope.]

Wimbledon, Edward Cecil, Viscount (1572–1638). [Cecil.]

Winchelsey, Robert, Archbishop of Canterbury 1294–1313, was born at Winchelsea in Kent, and after a most distinguished academic career, during which he was successively rector of the University of Paris and chancellor of Oxford, he was elected to the archbishopric.

In 1296 Boniface VIII issued the famous Bull *Clericis Laicos* (q.v.), forbidding the payment of taxes to the king by the clergy without the leave of the pope; Winchelsey gladly availed himself of the excuse to decline to allow any further grant of Church revenue to the king. The contest with Edward I was a protracted one; the clergy refusing to pay were outlawed (January 1297), and the possessions of the see of Canterbury seized. But a compromise had at length to be made, and Winchelsey announced his willingness to allow individual clerks to make voluntary contributions for the defence of the kingdom. A formal reconciliation was effected between king and archbishop in July; the latter acknowledging that the papal prohibition did not apply to money required for purposes of national defence, and offering to do his best to obtain a grant from the clergy if the king would confirm the charters. In November convocation accordingly granted a tenth, the charters having in the meantime been confirmed by the regency in Edward's absence in Flanders. In 1300 the charters were again confirmed, certain important articles being added to them. In 1301 Winchelsey once more quarrelled with the king. In 1305, with the election of Edward's vassal, Bertrand de Goth, to the Papacy as Clement V, the archbishop's defeat was ensured. He demanded the removal from the treasury of Walter Langton, Bishop of Chichester, and created constant friction by his rigid insistence upon his metropolitan rights. Next year Winchelsey was suspended and cited before the Curia. He left England in May, and did not return again till after the death of Edward I. During Edward II's reign we find him opposing Gaveston (q.v.), and, as an Ordainer (q.v.), doing what he could to restrain the excesses of the young king. Winchelsey was eminent as a scholar and a divine, and famous for his charity and piety; but in public affairs he attempted to play the part of a Stephen Langton, for which he was unsuited, and for which there was no necessity. His policy was also complicated by the foolish arrogance of Boniface, and by the determination of Edward. By his want of tact and inordinate love of power the archbishop alienated both the king and the pope.

Winchester (the GWENT of the Celts, and VENTA BELGARUM of the Romans) was probably an important town before the Roman invasion. It was conquered by the Saxons in the early sixth century, and became the capital of the West Saxon kingdom in the seventh century. In 676 it was made the seat of a bishopric. In 860 it was taken by the Danes. During the later West Saxon and Danish period it was very frequently the centre of government for England, and the place where the witenagemot was held. In 1141 it was burnt during the war between Stephen and the Empress Maud. In June 1216 it was taken by Louis the Dauphin. In 1265 it was sacked by Simon de Montfort. In 1285 the important Statute of Winchester was passed here by Edward I. The cathedral was, according to tradition, founded by Kynegils in the first half of the seventh century, was rebuilt in the eleventh century, and reconstructed by Bishops Wykeham, Beaufort, and Waynflete (q.v.) in the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries. The college was founded by William of Wykeham (q.v.) in 1387. In March 1644 Waller inflicted a defeat on the Royalists at Clinton Down near Winchester. On October 6 of the following year the town was captured by Cromwell, and the castle was demolished; on the site of this fortress a palace was begun in 1683, but was left unfinished.

"Victoria County History: Hampshire," vol. v; G. W. Kitchin, "Winchester," 1887; "Black Book of Winchester," ed. W. H. B. Bird, 1926.

Winchester, SIR WILLIAM PAULET, 1ST MARQUIS OF (1485 ?–1572). [PAULET.]

Winchester, THE STATUTE OF (1285), was one of the enactments by which Edward I developed and improved upon the legislation of Henry II. This statute was intended to place the military system on a better footing, and reorganized the watch and ward. It revived and developed the military and police action of the hundred, the hue and cry, the watch and ward, the *fyrd* or militia of the counties. The Assize of Arms (q.v.), with its provisions that every man should keep armour and weapons proper to his condition, was re-enacted and brought up to date. The statute, in fact, attempted to restore the ancient and popular military system of the English, which had outlived the Conquest.

Stubbs, "Select Charters," ed. H. W. C. Davis, 1913.

Windebank, SIR FRANCIS (1582–1646), son of Sir Thomas Windebank, was educated at St. John's College, Oxford, where he took the degree of B.A. in 1601. He became clerk of the council, and was, by the influence of his old friend Laud, appointed secretary of state (June 1632). He was the king's agent in the secret negotiations with Spain in 1634, the intermediary between Charles and the papal agent, Panzani, and one of the committee of eight entrusted with Scottish affairs (1639). In May 1640 he applied to the pope's agent, Rossetti, for money and arms to be employed against the Scots. On the assembly of the Long Parliament he was attached for non-execution of the penal laws against the Catholics, and fled to France (December 10, 1640), where he died.

Windham, WILLIAM (1750–1810), was educated at Eton and Oxford. His first appearance in politics was at a meeting of the county gentlemen of Norfolk on January 28, 1778, where he spoke with much vigour against a proposal to subscribe to aid the government in carrying on the war against the American Colonies. In 1782 he unsuccessfully contested Norwich, and very soon made himself conspicuous, until in the following year he was appointed chief secretary to the lord-lieutenant

of Ireland, which position he resigned within four months on finding that it required the employment of acts which he felt to be dishonourable. He entered parliament as member for Norwich in 1784; became very intimate with Burke and Dr. Johnson, and although at first, like all the Whigs, he hailed with joy the outbreak of the French Revolution, yet in 1793, horrified by the later outrages of the movement, he took Burke's view, and was a warm advocate of the policy which Burke wished to see adopted towards the Revolutionary government. In the following year he went on a mission to the Duke of York, who was in command of an expedition in Flanders, and was in the same year appointed secretary at war, with a seat in the cabinet. He followed Pitt out of office in 1801, and did not again take office until, after Pitt's death, he became secretary at war and of the colonies in the administration of "All the Talents" (q.v.). On their dismissal Windham too returned to opposition, and remained in that position until in January 1810 he died of a tumour produced by his extraordinary endeavours to rescue a great library from flames. Of his position as a speaker and a statesman, Sir Erskine May says, "Superior to Sheridan in education and attainments, and little inferior in wit, he never achieved successes so dazzling; yet he maintained a higher place among the debaters of his age. Though his pretensions to the higher qualities of a statesman were inconsiderable, and his want of discretion and temper too often impaired his unquestionable merits in debate, his numerous talents and virtues graced a long and distinguished public life."

Windham's "Speeches," 1806, and "Diary," 1866; Pellew, "Life of Sidmouth"; Sir Erskine May, "Constitutional History," ed. F. Holland, 1912.

Window Tax, The, was first imposed in 1695 by the Act 6 & 7 Wm. III, c. 18, to make up the deficiency arising from clipped coin in the recoining of silver. It was frequently reimposed, notwithstanding its injurious effect in offering an obstacle to good ventilation. When it was extended in 1766 to houses having seven windows and over, the number of such houses decreased by nearly two-thirds. In 1798 it was extended to houses with six windows. It was reduced in 1823, and repealed and the house tax substituted for it in July 1851.

Windsor Castle appears to have been first regularly used as a royal residence by the Norman kings, although there was certainly a fortress there previous to the Conquest. To the Conqueror's building Henry III made several additions; but it was in the reign of Edward III, under the designing hand of William of Wykeham, that the castle as we now know it began to rise. St. George's Chapel was rebuilt by Edward IV, its architects being Richard Beauchamp, Bishop of Salisbury, and, after his death in 1481, Sir Reginald Bray, architect of Henry VII's Chapel at Westminster. Elizabeth formed the terraces, and erected or altered the gate known by her name. Charles II erected the Star building, which was afterwards Gothicized by James Wyatt. Traces of Sir Christopher Wren are to be found in the edifice, but his plan of rebuilding the south side of the Upper Ward was not carried out. St. George's Chapel, which was much injured by the Puritans in 1648, was restored in 1787–90, and further renovations are at present in progress.

"Victoria County History: Berkshire."

Windward Islands, The, a group of islands forming a British colony in the West Indies, a confederation of the three colonies of St. Lucia, St. Vincent, and Grenada (q.v.), with their dependency the Grenadines. Each island retains its own institutions and they have neither legislature, revenue, nor tariffs in common, though a common court of appeal exists for them and Barbados, and a common executive. In 1920–1 they petitioned the king for representative government in place of Crown-colony government. The colonial office mission of 1921–2 recommended this to the Imperial government.

Wingfield, Sir Anthony (1485 ?–1552), vice-chamberlain to Henry VIII (1547), was named in the king's will one of the council who were to govern during the minority of Edward VI. He bore a leading part in the measures taken against Protector Somerset.

Winter, Admiral Sir William (*d.* 1589), was sent to the Firth of Forth by Elizabeth in 1559 to do any damage he could to the French. The queen, as was her wont, commissioned him to act on his own responsibility, being thus enabled to disavow his actions in case of failure. On his arrival in the Firth he managed to provoke the French to attack him, and retaliated by seizing Burntisland, which had been occupied by the enemy, and destroying some of their vessels. Had his successes at sea been backed up by energetic action on the part of the land forces, Leith would have fallen at once. In 1569 Winter commanded an expedition to La Rochelle (q.v.), which brought supplies to Condé, and in 1580 did good service on the Irish coast, being present at Smerwick. He is credited with having originated the plan of sending fire-ships amongst the Spanish vessels, which proved so destructive to the Armada. The mixture of caution and dashing courage which he displayed, together with his steadfast loyalty, made him one of the most valued servants of Elizabeth, and he well deserved Cecil's praise—"of Mr. Winter all men speak so well, I need not mention him."

Sir J. Corbett, "Drake and the Tudor Navy," 1898.

Winwaed, The Battle of the (655), between Penda of Mercia and Oswy of Northumbria, resulted in the defeat and death of the former. The River Winwaed is usually identified with the Aire, and the site of the battle is said to have been Winwedfield, near Leeds. This identification is not, however, completely

established. Some historians prefer to locate the site in Bernicia rather than Deira.

Wishart, George (1513 ?–1546) was one of the Protestant preachers who incurred the wrath of Cardinal Beaton. He was tried at St. Andrews and burnt (1546). He is said to have entered thoroughly into the plot for assassinating the cardinal.

Rogers, "Memoir of Geo. Wishart," 1876; W. Cramond, "The Truth about Geo. Wishart," 1898.

Wishart, Robert, Bishop of Glasgow, was one of the Scottish commissioners (1289) who tried to arrange for the marriage of the Maid of Norway and Prince Edward. He joined Wallace's party in 1297, but in a few months later negotiated the treaty by which many of the Scottish nobles made submission to Edward. In 1303 he was exiled for two years, but the next year recovered Edward's favour. He counselled the English king to hold a general assembly of the Scottish nation at Perth in 1304, and to appoint commissioners to regulate the government of Scotland. He was continually taking oaths of fealty to one side or another, and breaking them. Having sided with Robert Bruce in 1306, he was taken prisoner in the same year at Cupar in Fife, and imprisoned at Nottingham.

Witenagemot, The, means the meeting or council of the wise men (*Witan*), and in Anglo-Saxon times was the highest council in the land. The theory that the witenagemot was an assembly to which every freeman had a right to come (as he undoubtedly had to the shire-moot) is untenable. We have no evidence of any such right beyond the fact that at certain national crises, as at the exile of Godwin in 1051, or on sudden Danish invasions, and even at the election of a new king, a tumultuous concourse of spectators attended the meetings of the witan, and shouted applause or disapprobation of the proposals made. Such claims that the witenagemot has to the position of a national council rest upon the fact that it contained the official leaders of the nation, both in Church and State. But it was primarily a royal and aristocratic council. It consisted of the king, sometimes accompanied by his wife and sons; the bishops of the kingdom, the ealdormen of the shires or provinces, and a number of the king's friends and dependents. These last generally describe themselves as *ministri*, or king's thegns, and numbered amongst themselves no doubt the chief officers of the household, and the most eminent of the persons who stood in the relation of *gesîth* or *comes* to the king, and were bound to him by the oath of fealty. Occasionally a *præfectus* or *gerefa* appears in the early charters; he is probably the *heah-gerefa* or high-steward of the household. Under the later kings a considerable number of abbots attest the charters. Thus the witan was a small body of men of high position, all closely connected with the administration. The tendency was towards the increase of the king's thegns, who at the end of the West Saxon period outnumbered all the other members of the council. Probably the witenagemot met at regular intervals and at fixed places, but in the absence of exact dates it is impossible to speak with certainty about this. With regard to the functions of the witan Kemble laid down twelve canons on the subject as follows:—(1) They possessed a consultative voice, and a right to consider every public act which could be authorized by the king. (2) They deliberated upon the making of new laws which were to be added to the existing folk-right, and which were then promulgated by their own and the king's authority. (3) They had the power of making alliances and treaties of peace, and of settling their terms. (4) They had the power of electing the king. (5) They had the power to depose the king if his government was not conducted for the benefit of his people. (6) They had the power with the king of appointing prelates to vacant sees. (7) The king and the witan had also power to regulate ecclesiastical matters, appoint fasts and festivals, and decide upon the levy and expenditure of ecclesiastical revenues. (8) The king and the witan had power to levy taxes for the public service. (9) The king and his witan had power to raise land and sea forces when occasion demanded. (10) The witan possessed the power of recommending, assenting to, and guaranteeing grants of land. (11) The witan possessed the power of adjudging the lands of offenders and intestates to be forfeit to the king. (12) The witan acted as a supreme court of justice both in civil and criminal causes. Thus according to Kemble the witenagemot was a supreme council for deliberation, administration, and assent, as well as for judicial and taxative purposes. Its real power, however, naturally varied inversely with that of the king. Under a strong king many of these claims were futile; all land seems, by the eleventh century, to have been regarded as at the king's disposal really if not in name; the sheriffs, ealdorman, and bishops were named by the king; if he were a pious one, the bishops were chosen by him with respect to the consent of the diocesan clergy; if he were a peremptory one, they were appointed by his determined will. But the powers of legislation and taxation (in so far as such terms are applicable in the pre-Norman period, when legislation was merely the codification of custom, and the only form of "national" taxation was the Danegeld) were never lost, nor did the king execute judgment without a court which was in name and in reality perhaps a portion of the witenagemot. It may be added that the power of election tended to become purely formal, and that the power of deposition was very seldom exercised. After the union of the kingdoms the crown remained in the West Saxon family, and ordinarily went by hereditary descent, though in all cases a formal election was made, and though in several cases an uncle of full age was

preferred to the infant son of the deceased sovereign. The elevation of Canute to the throne is an exception, but his title rested rather on conquest than on election, so that the election of Harold II remains the sole instance of the witan freely electing a king outside the royal house. Of deposition there is likewise but a solitary instance after Ecgbert, that of Ethelred II in 1013. [S. L.]

Wodehouse, John, 1st Earl of Kimberley (1826–1902), was the eldest son of Henry, 3rd Baron Wodehouse. In 1852 he took office as under-secretary for foreign affairs till 1856, when he was appointed ambassador at St. Petersburg. In 1858 he returned, and resumed his post in Lord Palmerston's second administration (1859). In 1863 he was sent on a special mission to Denmark to endeavour to settle the Schleswig-Holstein difficulty (q.v.), and next year succeeded the Earl of Carlisle as lord-lieutenant of Ireland, resigning the post when Lord John Russell's administration retired in 1866. He held the office of privy seal from 1868 to 1870, when he accepted the colonial office. In 1874 he retired with his colleagues. In 1880 he became colonial secretary, and in 1882 secretary for India. From 1892 to 1894 he was secretary for India and lord president of the council, and in 1894–5 foreign secretary. On the resignation of Lord Rosebery in 1896 he became leader of the Liberal peers.

Wodnesbeorg was the scene of two important battles in Anglo-Saxon history—one in 591, in which Ceawlin of Wessex was defeated by his nephew Ceolric, the other in 715, when Ine repulsed the Mercians. Wodnesbeorg has usually been identified with Wanborough, on the Wiltshire downs near Swindon, but the authorities are not entirely unanimous on the point.

Wolfe, Arthur, 1st Viscount Kilwarden (1739–1803), was made solicitor-general for Ireland in 1787, and attorney-general in 1789. In 1798 he became lord chief justice of the King's Bench, and was elevated to the peerage. In 1803, while driving into Dublin when Emmet's short-lived insurrection was raging, he was piked by the rebels. As a judge he was well known for his inclinations to mercy; and, being Curran's friend, was able to save that statesman from many annoyances in 1798.

Wolfe, General James (1727–59), entered the army at the age of fourteen, and was present at the battles of Dettingen (1742), Fontenoy (1745), and Lauffeldt (1747). He first attracted Pitt's notice in 1757, when a combined military and naval expedition was dispatched against Rochefort under Admiral Hawke and General Mordaunt. Wolfe went with it as quarter-master-general. In 1758 he served under General Amherst at the siege of Louisburg on Cape Breton Island. Louisburg gave in on July 26. In 1759 Pitt entrusted him with the attack on Quebec, appointing him major-general. He sailed on February 17 from Spithead, arrived at Halifax, Nova Scotia, on April 30, and opened the siege of Quebec on July 12. Wolfe captured the town, but died at the moment of victory (September 13). [Quebec, The Capture of.]

Biographies by R. Wright, 1864, and A. G. Bradley, 1895; F. Parkman, "Montcalm and Wolfe," 1884; W. C. H. Wood, "The Winning of Canada," 1920.

Wolseley, Field-Marshal Garnet Joseph, 1st Viscount Wolseley (1833–1913), served in the Burmese and Crimean Wars (1852–3 and 1854–6), in the Indian Mutiny and the Second Chinese War. In 1869 he was appointed to the command of the Red River Expedition (q.v.), and in 1873, as major-general, commanded the troops in the Ashanti War. Upon his return he was thanked by parliament, and a grant was conferred upon him. In 1875 he was sent to administer Natal, and in 1876 became a member of the council of India. In 1878 he was appointed high commissioner in Cyprus, and in 1879 returned to Natal as governor and reduced Secocoeni to submission. In 1882 he commanded the Egyptian expedition, won the victory of Tel-el-Kebir, and was rewarded with a barony. In September 1884, he led the expedition to Khartoum for the relief of General Gordon, and was made a viscount. In 1890 he became commander-in-chief of the army in Ireland, field-marshal in 1894, and in 1895 commander-in-chief of the British army, for a term of five years. He died on March 15, 1913, and was buried in St. Paul's Cathedral.

Biographies by E. Major, 1913, and Sir F. Maurice, 1924; "Letters of Lord and Lady Wolseley," ed. Sir G. Arthur, 1922.

Wolsey, Thomas, Cardinal and Archbishop of York (1471–1530), was the son of a wealthy Ipswich butcher. Educated at Magdalen College, he obtained his degree when barely fifteen; and, as a consequence, became familiarly known among the university associates as the "Boy Bachelor." In virtue of this early proficiency Wolsey soon succeeded to a Magdalen fellowship, and was shortly afterwards appointed master of the school attached to his college. Among his pupils at this school were the sons of the Marquis of Dorset, who presented Wolsey, in October 1500, to the living of Lymington, in Somersetshire. Here Wolsey is said to have on one occasion played so unbecoming a part in his parish revelries as to bring upon himself the degradation of the stocks, and to have been compelled to abandon his living. By this time, however, he had made many influential friends, and through the interest of some of these he obtained the post of secretary and domestic chaplain to Henry Deane, Archbishop of Canterbury, which he continued to hold till the death of the primate in 1503, when he secured an appointment in the chaplaincy at Calais. The strong common sense Wolsey displayed in the discharge of his duties

caused him to be appointed one of the chaplains to the king. Wolsey soon secured the notice and friendship of Bishop Fox, the lord privy seal, and of Sir Thomas Lovel, the treasurer of the royal household. He was thus speedily selected for the transaction of Henry's more confidential business; and so highly appreciated were his diplomatic services at the courts of Germany and Scotland that the king, some two months before his death, conferred upon him the deanery of Lincoln (1509). While, however, Wolsey's tact and energy were a strong recommendation of him to a keen judge of men like Henry VII, his wit, gay humour, and varied personal accomplishments made him the indispensable companion of that monarch's successor; and his upward progress under Henry VIII was rapid and brilliant. Soon occupying the position of almoner to the king, and of a royal councillor, Wolsey received in quick succession the living of Torrington, in Devon, the registrarship of the order of the Garter, a Windsor canonry, and the important deanery of York. Accompanying Henry to France in 1513, he was appointed by him to the see of Tournay, which the fortune of war had temporarily placed in English hands; and as compensation for the purely nominal character of this last preferment Wolsey was promoted in February 1514 to the bishopric of Lincoln, whence he was translated, before the expiration of the year, to the archbishopric of York. In the following year (1515) his English dignities were crowned by the reception of a cardinal's hat from Pope Leo X, with the title of St. Cecilia, an honour which was quickly succeeded by a commission from the pontiff as *legatus a latere*. About this time, too, his revenues from various sources were still further increased by the gift from the king of the administration of the see of Bath and Wells, and the temporalities of the wealthy abbey of St. Albans; and by the enjoyment, one after the other, of the bishoprics of Durham and Winchester. Wolsey's position at Henry's court was now not only one of enormous emolument, but one that carried with it a degree of power and influence more extensive than had ever previously been wielded by a minister of the Crown. For several years, indeed, he directed the foreign policy of his country, lending English support to France and Germany alternately, according as it seemed to suit the varying necessities of his own personal interests, while his supremacy in all that related to the domestic government of the kingdom was only nominally subordinate to that of Henry himself. Difficult and dangerous, however, as was the commanding position to which he had attained with such unexampled rapidity, Wolsey succeeded in holding his place in the king's favour for some considerable time, and his good fortune in this respect was due not only to the watchful tact with which on all occasions he conducted himself in his dealings with Henry, but also partly to the fact that the primary object of his ambition, viz., the reformation and aggrandizement of the English Church, was one for which, in the early period of his reign at least, the king had felt a considerable degree of sympathy. While he impressed the popular mind with the pre-eminent state and magnificence of a Church dignitary, by the everyday pomp of his household arrangements, and by his gorgeous preparations for the reception of his cardinal's hat, he endeavoured to awaken a more permanent respect for the clergy as a body by instituting a series of greatly-needed ecclesiastical reforms. Conspicuous among his measures for purging the Church of some of the more crying abuses into which she had fallen latterly were the suppression of several of the smaller monasteries, and the devotion of the funds thus obtained to the establishment of Cardinal's College (now Christ Church) at Oxford, and of a new grammar school at Ipswich, designed to serve as a sort of preparatory institution for the university. In his endeavours to raise the social status of the Church, and to make her ordained servants an example to the country of sound learning and morality of life, Wolsey was compelled to make the utmost use of the power at his command. It was his zeal in this matter that led him to hazard a breach of the Statute of Præmunire by accepting the appointment of papal legate from Leo X, for experience speedily taught him that the authority of an ordinary English prelate was quite insufficient to act with any effect against the monasteries and other strongholds of ecclesiastical corruption.

Rapid beyond all comparison as had been Wolsey's rise to the position of the most influential subject in Europe, his fall was fully as sudden and conspicuous. By the indecision he exhibited in the matter of Henry's divorce he not only lost the king's confidence, but excited against himself the disappointed fury of Anne Boleyn. His enemies, who were many and powerful, were not slow to take advantage of his misfortunes and to revive popular indignation against him on account of his oppressive taxation and his arbitrary system of government. Prosecuted in 1529 under the Statute of Præmunire (q.v.), he had to resign the great seal and retire to his see of Winchester. This evidence, however, of his lost influence was not sufficient to satisfy the jealous vengeance of his political rivals; and, though he received several kind messages from the king, his troubles were speedily augmented by his impeachment in the House of Lords. The faithful devotion of Wolsey's servant, Thomas Cromwell, and some lingering remnant of regard in Henry's heart for the once powerful cardinal, caused the bill to be thrown out of the House of Commons; but the Statute of Præmunire was allowed to have its full course, and all Wolsey's property was declared forfeited to the Crown. The fallen minister was allowed subsequently to withdraw to his diocese of York; but was again arrested in 1530 on a charge of high treason. On the way to London to meet his trial he died at Leicester Abbey on November

29, 1530. [Henry VIII; Cromwell, Thomas; Cranmer; Anne Boleyn.]

The "State Papers" of Henry VIII, with J. S. Brewer's Introductions; Lives of Wolsey by Geo. Cavendish and M. Creighton, 1888; A. F. Pollard, "Henry VIII," 1902; E. Law, "England's First Great War Minister," 1916.

Wolverhampton, Henry Fowler, Viscount (1830–1911). [Fowler.]

Wood, Sir Andrew, of Largs, was the first great naval officer Scotland possessed. On the murder of James III he declared for his son against the council. He was taken into high favour by James IV, with whom the creation of a navy came to be a special object. In 1490 he captured five English vessels with only two of his own; and subsequently took the three ships which had been sent under the command of Stephen Ball to avenge the insult.

Wood, Sir Charles, 1st Viscount Halifax (1800–85), was educated at Oriel College, Oxford, and succeeded to the baronetcy in 1846. In the same year he had been returned to the House of Commons as member for Great Grimsby, and afterwards sat for Wareham, Halifax, and Ripon. In 1832 he was appointed secretary to the treasury; in 1835 secretary to the admiralty. In 1846 he took office under Lord Russell as chancellor of the exchequer, until 1852. He entered the Aberdeen cabinet in 1852 as president of the board of control; became first lord of the admiralty in Palmerston's first administration, from 1855 to 1858; and in Palmerston's second administration secretary of state for India, and president of the Indian council from 1859 to 1866. In 1866 he was created Viscount Halifax, and took office under Gladstone in 1870 as lord privy seal.

Wood, William Page, Baron Hatherley (1801–81), second son of Sir Matthew Wood, was called to the bar at Lincoln's Inn, 1827. He was elected for the city of Oxford in 1847, in the Liberal interest, and continued to represent that constituency till 1852. In 1849 he was appointed vice-chancellor of the duchy of Lancaster, in 1851 he became solicitor-general, and in 1852 vice-chancellor. In 1868 he was appointed a judge of the Court of Appeal in Chancery and sworn of the privy council, and in 1868 lord chancellor. He resigned in 1872.

Biography by W. R. W. Stephens, 1883.

Woodfall, Henry Sampson (1739–1805), a printer, was tried in 1770 for publishing Junius's "Letter to the King." The right of the jury to judge of the criminality of the libel having been denied by Lord Mansfield, they found the prisoner guilty of "printing and publishing only." Lord Mansfield was severely taken to task in the House of Lords for his arbitrary conduct, but the question was not settled until twenty years after, by Fox's Libel Act.

"State Trials," vol. xx.

Wood's Halfpence (1722–5). There was no mint in Ireland in 1722, and there being a want of small coin, and a great deal of base money dating from the times of Elizabeth and James I, a patent for coining copper money was granted to the royal mistress, the Duchess of Kendal, and by her sold to William Wood, a Wolverhampton ironmonger, for £10,000. He was to be allowed to coin £100,800 worth of halfpence and farthings, a pound of copper to be coined into thirty pence, for Ireland; and was to pay £200 annually to the controller of the coinage, and £100 annually to the treasury. In England twenty-three pence only were coined from one pound, but as the cost of transport and an import duty had to be considered, the difference was not really unreasonable. The gains Wood would make were calculated at £4,000, and no doubt the amount of copper to be put in circulation was excessive, since about £15,000 worth would have been enough. The excitement in Ireland, however, was out of all proportion to the real importance of the matter, the Irish House of Commons absurdly enough pretending that Ireland would lose £150 on every 100 lb. of copper coined; it was also intimated that the coin as actually issued was debased. Sir Isaac Newton, however, examined it and found it fully as good as was required. In 1723 the sum to be coined was reduced, but in 1724 Swift's "Drapier's Letters" appeared, and all Ireland, including even the chancellor and archbishop of Dublin, was unanimous in refusing the new halfpence. Carteret came over and attempted to prosecute the "Drapier," but the grand jury not only ignored the indictment, but presented all persons who had accepted the new coin. At last in 1725 Walpole gave in to the clamour raised in Ireland, the patent was revoked, and the Irish parliament passed a vote of thanks to the king. Wood got £3,000 for eight years as compensation from the Irish pension list, but under a false name.

Swift, "Drapier's Letters."

Woodville, Anthony, 2nd Earl Rivers (*d.* 1483), was the son of Richard, 1st Earl Rivers, and brother-in-law of Edward IV. He married the daughter and heiress of Lord Scales, and in 1462 was summoned to parliament as Baron Scales. He took part in the siege of Alnwick, and in 1470 accompanied Edward in his flight to the Netherlands, returning with him in the next year. In 1469, by the death of his father, he became Earl Rivers. He received many honours from Edward, and, among other offices, held that of governor to the young Prince Edward. On the death of Edward IV he was in possession of the person of the young king, but the jealousy of the old nobility favoured Gloucester's designs, and Rivers was seized at Northampton and carried to Pontefract, where he was beheaded. He was the noblest and most accomplished of the victims of Richard III; the patron of Caxton, a translator from the French, and the author of various original poems, of which that written on the eve of his execution is the only one extant.

Woodville, Edward, Lord, was a brother of Edward IV's wife, and consequently uncle to the queen of Henry VII. He obtained a temporary notoriety in the reign of this latter monarch by his expedition at the head of 400 men to aid the Duke of Brittany in 1488, notwithstanding the king's positive orders against the dispatch from England of any expedition with such an object. Besides exciting considerable indignation in France, this proceeding on the part of Lord Woodville had the effect of forcing Henry to adopt a definite position with regard to the dispute between France and Brittany. The news of the French victory at St. Aubin (July 28, 1488), and the death of Lord Woodville, with the almost total destruction of the small English force which he commanded, raised public feeling in England to an extent which Henry could no longer afford to ignore; and, although there continued to be a secret arrangement with Charles VIII on the subject, a supply of troops was at once sent to the aid of Brittany. At the time of the ill-starred expedition which ended in defeat and slaughter at St. Aubin, Woodville was governor of the Isle of Wight.

Woodville, Elizabeth. [Elizabeth Woodville.]

Woodville, Richard, 1st Earl Rivers (*d.* 1469), fought in the French wars in Henry VI's reign, and married Jacquetta of Luxemburg (q.v.), widow of the Duke of Bedford. For this clandestine marriage his wife was fined a thousand pounds, but Woodville was soon afterwards restored to favour, and in 1448 made Baron Rivers. In the Wars of the Roses he fought on the Lancastrian side, but in 1464 his daughter Elizabeth, who was the widow of Sir John Grey, was secretly married to the young king, Edward IV. By his son-in-law Rivers was raised to high honours, made constable of England, and in 1466 created Earl Rivers, and his sons received equal advantages from their connexion with the sovereign. The Woodvilles were hated by the old nobility on account of their rapid rise, while the people complained of their avarice. In 1469 a rebellion broke out, headed by Sir John Conyers (q.v.), the insurgents complaining of the influence of the queen's friends. Having defeated the royal troops at Edgcott (q.v.), the rebels seized Earl Rivers and his son John, and put them to death at Kenilworth.

Worcester, The Battle of (September 3, 1651), was fought between the Scots and the Parliamentarians during the unsuccessful expedition of Charles II to England previous to the Restoration. After the battle of Dunbar and the capture of Edinburgh by Cromwell, Charles made a sudden movement southwards in January, hoping to cut off a portion of the English army, which lay south of the Forth. Cromwell thereupon moved northwards towards Perth, and deliberately left open the way to England. The king promptly hastened across the frontier, and advanced rapidly to Worcester, which he entered on August 22. There he lay inactive, and allowed Cromwell to overtake him. The Parliamentary army attacked in two divisions, connected by a bridge of boats; Fleetwood on the west bank of the Severn, Cromwell marching on the east bank upon the town itself. Charles first attacked Cromwell, but without success, and he was driven back into the town, where the two divisions of the enemy met and drove the Royalists through the streets. They made no attempt to rally, and the war soon came to an end.

Biographies of Cromwell.

Worcester, The City and Borough of, has, perhaps, had a more disturbed history than any other town in England. From 894, when it was almost entirely destroyed by the Danes, its annals present a long series of sieges, burnings, and captures. Rebuilt by Ethelred, it was retaken by Hardicanute in 1041. In 1074 it was occupied by the barons of Hereford, and a conspiracy against William I crushed. The cathedral, founded by Bishop Oswald in 983 on the ruins of a previous building, was destroyed by fire. It was rebuilt by Bishop Wulstan in 1084, but again suffered twice from fire, and was repaired and reconsecrated in 1280. During the troubles of Stephen's reign Worcester was plundered by the Empress Matilda (1139), and besieged by the king (1149), and again by his son, Eustace. Hugh of Mortimer held the castle against Henry II in 1157. A council was held there in 1240. In Henry III's reign it became a stronghold of the baronial party, falling to Simon de Montfort in 1263, and the king being taken there after the battle of Lewes. Worcester was plundered in 1401 by Owen Glendower, who held it until driven off by Henry IV. In 1642 it was taken by Prince Rupert, but was recovered by the Parliamentarians under Colonel Fiennes in the same year. Lastly, Charles II was defeated there in September 1651.

V. Green, "Antiquities of Worcester," 1796; "Victoria County History: Worcestershire."

Worcester, Earls of. [Percy; Tiptoft.]

Worms, The Treaty of (September 13, 1743), was signed by Great Britain, Austria, and Sardinia. After the battle of Dettingen in the War of the Austrian Succession, negotiations for peace were set on foot, but were abruptly broken off owing to the desire of Britain to continue the war with France. The treaty was negotiated by Carteret without reference to the ministers at home, and they accordingly refused to ratify a separate and secret convention by which Maria Theresa was to be supplied with a subsidy of £300,000 a year as long as "the necessity of her affairs shall require." The treaty agreed to assume the Pragmatic Sanction and the European balance of power; the King of Sardinia was to have a yearly subsidy of £200,000 from Britain, the cession of the Vigevenese from Austria, and the command of the

allies in Italy, on condition that he should bring to the field an army of 45,000 and renounce his pretensions to the Milanese. This alliance was met by the League of Frankfurt, of which the most important members were France and Prussia. It resulted also in a declaration of war on France by Sardinia, and in the Second Family Compact (October) between France and Spain (q.v.).

Wotton, Dr. Nicholas (1497 ?–1567), was employed by Thomas Cromwell (1537) to arrange the marriage of Henry VIII and Anne of Cleves. Made dean of Canterbury and York by Henry, who had a high opinion of his abilities, he was named one of the council of executors appointed by the king's will, and subsequently became a trusted servant of Mary, for whom he discovered the plot of Sir Henry Dudley (1556). In the same year he laid bare a conspiracy to seize Calais, and averted the danger for the moment. In 1558 he was one of the English representatives in the discussion of a proposed peace with France, which took place at Cercamp, and in the following year was present at the negotiations at Cateau-Cambrésis, while in 1565 he was sent to Bruges to discuss the subject of the suppression of English pirates who were alleged to be doing great damage to the Spanish shipping. Dr. Wotton was offered the primacy in 1559 before the appointment of Archbishop Parker, but refused it, knowing that he was no theologian, and that " more than administrative ability and knowledge of the world was at this time required in the primate."

Wrangel Island (or Long's Island), an Arctic island off the north-east coast of Siberia, was discovered in 1849 by James Long, and occupied by shipwrecked members of Stefansson's Arctic expedition of 1914. The British flag was raised by Stefansson in 1921 on behalf of Canada, but in 1916 Russia had asserted her rights over the island, and in 1924 formally took possession of it.

Wray, Sir Christopher (1524–92), one of the favourite judges of Queen Elizabeth, was an active member of parliament during the reign of Mary and until 1571, when he was chosen Speaker. In 1572 he was made a justice, and two years later chief justice of the Queen's Bench, in which capacity he presided at the trial of Secretary Davison. Sir Edward Coke called him " a most reverend judge, of profound and judicial knowledge, accompanied with a ready and singular capacity, grave and sensible elocution, and continual and admirable patience."

Wren, Sir Christopher (1632–1723), was born at East Knoyle, Wiltshire, and educated at Westminster and Wadham College, Oxford. He was one of the founders of the Royal Society in 1660, and was its president from 1680 to 1682. But his fame rests chiefly on his architectural achievements. He took up architecture professionally in 1661, and had already designed the chapel of Pembroke College, Cambridge, and the Sheldonian Theatre at Oxford, when his great opportunity came with the Fire of London. The office of " surveyor-general and principal architect for rebuilding the whole city " was specially created for him by Charles II. He submitted his first design for the new St. Paul's in 1673, and the cathedral was reported finished in 1716. Meanwhile he rebuilt the Temple (1670–2) and erected 52 churches in London, of which the finest are St. Mary-le-Bow (1671–7) and St. Stephen's, Walbrook (1672–9). He also undertook restoration work in many parts of the country, notably at Salisbury, Lincoln, Chichester, and Westminster Abbey. In 1698 he was appointed surveyor to Westminster Abbey. He retired in 1718, on being superseded in his post of surveyor-general.

" Memoirs of the Wrens," 1750 ; biographies by J. Elmes, 1823, L. Phillimore, 1881, and Sir L. Weaver, 1923.

Wright, Sir Nathan (1654–1721), was called to the bar in 1677. He assisted at the trial of the Seven Bishops (q.v.). In 1697 he was created king's serjeant. On the dismissal of Somers (1700) he was appointed lord keeper of the privy seal. In 1702 he addressed the commission which had been appointed to frame the union with Scotland. He rendered himself objectionable by his partisanship of the Church. He was restricted to silence in the Upper House, where he performed the duties of a Speaker, for want of a peerage. We find him accused of leaving out, in his list of the justices of the peace, all who were not of Tory politics. He was removed in 1705. It had been said of him that " his legal acquirements were below the requisite standard, and his character for meanness and avarice ill-qualified him to preside over the most august assembly in the kingdom." [Cowper, William ; Somers, John.]

Burnet, " History of His Own Time," ed. O. Airy, 2 vols., 1897–1900.

Wright, William (*fl.* 1530), a doctor of law, flourished in the reign of Henry VIII, and is famous as being Henry's first envoy to Rome respecting his projected divorce from Katharine of Aragon. Wright's mission was entirely without any tangible results, and the facts that (1) Clement VII was at that time a prisoner in the hands of the Emperor Charles V, and (2) Henry's ideas on the subject of the divorce had not reached the decided stage they attained a little later, naturally prevented Wright from doing much more than preparing the papal mind for a favourable reception of the king's wishes.

Wriothesley, Henry, 3rd Earl of Southampton (1573–1624), a favourite of Queen Elizabeth and a bosom friend of Essex, was the grandson of Lord Chancellor Wriothesley. In 1597 he took part in the disastrous expedition to the Azores, and two years later followed Essex to Ireland, where he was appointed general of the horse, to the anger of Elizabeth, whose

goodwill he had forfeited on his marriage. The queen had the appointment cancelled in July. In 1601 his impetuosity and generous support of his friend led him to take an active part in Essex's rebellion, and he was put on trial for high treason (February 1601). He was condemned, but, owing to the intercession of Sir Robert Cecil, was not executed; he was, however, confined to the Tower until the death of the queen. His literary relations invest his career with particular interest.

Biography by Charlotte C. Stopes, 1922.

Wriothesley, Thomas, 1st Earl of Southampton (1505–50), was appointed lord chancellor in the place of Lord Audley in 1544. He was a zealous Catholic and is said to have tortured Anne Askew with his own hands. Named one of the council of regency in the will of Henry VIII, he was created Earl of Southampton, but failed to obtain the confidence of Somerset, to whom he had long been in opposition. In 1547 Wriothesley of his own authority put the great seal in commission, and appointed four individuals to discharge the duties of chancellor. This act, which was declared by the judges to amount to a misdemeanour, enabled the council to demand his resignation. Shortly after this Lord Seymour of Sudeley tried to draw him into a plot against the Protector, but, probably from caution, he refused his overtures, and gave information of the intrigue. In 1549 he entered into negotiations with Warwick, and took a prominent part in the deposition of Somerset, but soon afterwards retired from the council in disgust at the treatment he received, and died, it is said, of disappointment.

Writs, Parliamentary, are addressed to the sheriff of a county directing him to cause to be elected a member or members to the House of Commons in case of a general election or vacancy. They issue upon the warrant of the lord chancellor, or, during the sitting of the House, upon the warrant of the Speaker. The first instance of a writ of summons in their later form is in 1213, when the king directed that four discreet knights should be returned from each shire *ad loquendum nobiscum de negotiis regni nostri.* It was not until the end of the reign of Edward I that parliament assumed its final form, and that the possibility of the merchants and lawyers being summoned as separate "sub-estates" ceased. Of the other "estates" of the realm, writs of summons were addressed in the times of Henry III and Edward I to a certain select number of hereditary barons, who, in conjunction with the prelates, formed, by the middle of the fourteenth century, the House of Lords. The form of the early parliamentary writs illustrates very clearly the different functions of the three orders. The magnates are usually summoned *ad tractandum*; the Commons, *ad consulendum et consentiendum*; that is, the latter body are regarded as having inferior powers. Prelates were summoned *de fide et dilectione*; lords temporal, *de fide et homagio* or *de homagio et ligeantia.* Writs of summons to the Commons are important in the qualifications introduced, which vary from the formula "*de discretioribus et legalioribus*" of 1275 to the qualification that members should be "*gladiis cinctos,*" or belted knights, introduced in 1340. Later changes depend upon the election acts in force at different periods, such as those imposing a property qualification on electors, and directing the methods of election.

For specimens of parliamentary writs see Stubbs, "Select Charters," ed. H. W. C. Davis, 1913; and Palgrave, "Parliamentary Writs"; see also Pasquet, "Origin of the House of Commons."

Wroth, Sir Thomas (1516–73), was sent to Ireland in 1564 as a special commissioner in conjunction with Sir Nicholas Arnold, to inquire into the complaints which had been made against the English army. He had previously been employed on diplomatic missions in Germany, and had been one of the witnesses to Edward VI's "device" for altering the succession in favour of Lady Jane Grey.

Wrotham Heath, The Battle of (January 28, 1554), fought during Wyatt's Rebellion, resulted in the defeat of the Kentish insurgents under Sir Henry Isley by Lord Abergavenny. Wrotham is a small town near Sevenoaks in Kent.

Wulfhelm, Archbishop of Canterbury 923–42, was translated from Wells on the death of Ethelm. His episcopate saw the commencement of the movement in favour of monasticism and rigid celibacy, which was to agitate the Church in the reigns of his immediate successors.

Wulfhere, King of Mercia 659–75, was the son of Penda and brother of Peada. On the death of the latter (656) Oswy of Northumbria assumed the government of Mercia, but in 659 the Northumbrian yoke was shaken off and Wulfhere proclaimed king. He was successful in his wars against Wessex which he undertook in 661, and having conquered the land of the Meonwaras and the Isle of Wight, he granted these originally Jutish districts to his vassal Ethelwalch of Sussex. He further established an overlordship over Essex and East Anglia, and advanced the western boundary of Mercia at the expense of the Welsh. He carried on the work of conversion begun by Peada, and established the diocese of Lichfield, of which St. Chad was made bishop.

Wulfred, Archbishop of Canterbury 803–32, was chosen on the death of Ethelhard. He quarrelled with Cenwulf, King of Mercia, who deprived him of some of his estates and laid false charges against him before the pope. With Cenwulf's death, however, in 822, Wulfred's troubles seem to have ended, and he continued to exercise his metropolitan rights in peace until his death in 832.

Wulfstan, Saint (*d.* 1095), became Bishop of Worcester in 1062. He supported Harold on his accession, but afterwards made his sub-

mission to the Conqueror. He succeeded in retaining his bishopric in spite of the attempt of Lanfranc to displace him; his reputation for sanctity being held to compensate for his notorious illiteracy. He took an active part in the suppression of the rebellions of 1075 and 1088, and was largely instrumental in securing the suppression of the Bristol slave trade. He was popularly venerated as a saint immediately on his death, and was canonized by Innocent III in 1203.

Wyatt, Sir Thomas (1521 ?–1554), was the son of Sir Thomas Wyatt the poet. In January 1554 he became one of the leaders of the rebellion against Mary, though he is said to have had nothing to do with the origin of the plot. The insurrection, which was caused by national discontent at the contemplated marriage of Mary with Philip II of Spain, had for its object the deposition of the queen in favour of the Princess Elizabeth and Edward Courtenay, Earl of Devon. Sir Thomas Wyatt was charged with the duty of raising Kent, and so well did he perform his mission that Kent was the only part of the country where the rebellion assumed at all formidable dimensions. He excited the applause of his very adversaries by the secrecy and address with which he organized the rising, and by the spirit and perseverance with which he conducted the enterprise. A delay, however, in taking possession of London proved fatal to Wyatt's success; and after a sharp engagement he found himself compelled to surrender at Temple Bar to Sir Maurice Burkeley (February 8). After his capture he implicated Courtenay by his confessions; but though every endeavour was made to extort from him a full revelation, he steadfastly refused to buy his life at the price of an accusation of the Princess Elizabeth, which was what her enemies, with Bishop Gardiner at their head, were labouring to obtain; and at the last moment retracted what he had said concerning Courtenay's guilt. He was executed on April 11.

Memoir by R. F. Nott, 1816; R. P. Cruden, "History of Gravesend," 1842.

Wyclif, John (1320 ?–1384), was born about the year 1320, or a little later. Leland names his birthplace as Ipreswel, or Hipswell, near Richmond in Yorkshire, and states that he derived his origin from the family which held the lordship of Wycliffe-on-Tees. It was this connexion plainly that drew him to Balliol College, Oxford, which had been founded by John Balliol, of Barnard Castle, on the borders of Durham, in the preceding century. By an old mistake Wyclif has been described as first a commoner of Queen's College, and a confusion (as it appears) with a namesake makes him fellow and seneschal of Merton. In all probability, however, he remained a member of Balliol until he was chosen master of the college some time after 1356, but not later than 1360. In 1361 he was instituted to the college living of Fillingham, near Lincoln, and shortly afterwards resigned the mastership. He does not appear, however, to have given up his work as a teacher in Oxford, for we find him renting rooms at Queen's College, doubtless with this object, at various dates between 1363 and 1380. But in this interval—if we are to accept a view now nearly universally credited, which rests indeed upon abundant contemporary evidence, but which none the less may have arisen from the confusion above referred to with the other John Wyclif, of Merton—the future reformer was nominated by Archbishop Islip in 1365, warden of his foundation of Canterbury Hall, the site of which now forms a portion of Christ Church, Oxford. Wyclif and three fellows, secular clergymen, were appointed in the place of three monks whose position in the hall had been a source of disturbance; but in 1367 Islip's successor, Archbishop Langham, himself a monk, expelled Wyclif and the fellows who had entered with him, and substituted regular clergymen. Wyclif appealed to Rome; judgment was given against him in 1369 and published in 1370, and the sentence was enforced by royal writ in 1372. His living of Fillingham he exchanged in 1368 for Ludgershall, in Buckinghamshire, and in 1374 he was presented by the Crown to the rectory of Lutterworth, in Leicestershire, where he remained until his death.

During these years Wyclif had written a variety of scholastic treatises; then, turning to theology, he had devoted himself in particular to expanding and applying his theory of the divine government, known to us as the doctrine of dominion. He erected a sort of theocratic feudalism where each man "held" of God, without the interposition of any mesne lord, and where "grace" or "charity" was the sole indispensable condition of tenure. When Wyclif went on to explain that the universal power claimed by the pope could only belong by right to the "Lord-in-chief," who had never delegated his authority in that sense to man, it was evident that in the *doctrinaire* might be found one able to do good service to his country, especially at a time when England was pressed by demands for tribute to the pope, and overrun by his emissaries. Accordingly we find that Wyclif was made chaplain to the king; in 1366 he wrote against the papal claim, and in 1374 acted as one of the royal commissioners at the conference held at Bruges, with the object of settling the disputed question of "provisions." Wyclif now appears as a hearty co-operator with John of Gaunt, though it would seem that the only point they had in common was a desire to repress the overgrown power of the endowed clergy. Through this connexion rather than from any serious charge of incorrect doctrine, Wyclif was cited by William Courtenay, Bishop of London, a declared opponent of the Duke of Lancaster, to appear before him at St. Paul's in February 1377; but the trial broke up in an undignified quarrel between John, who accompanied Wyclif, and the bishop. Wyclif's

teaching, however, with regard to the rights of the Church, especially as to the temporalities, had already reached Rome; and a few months later a series of bulls were directed against him by Gregory XI. But the king's death in June delayed their execution, and the attempted action of the Archbishop of Canterbury was thwarted for some time by the independent attitude of the University of Oxford. Meantime Wyclif published his answer to the papal accusation. At length, in the spring of 1378, he had to appear at Lambeth; but here again the session was interrupted by an uproar of the people, who resented the intrusion of papal bulls: and Wyclif was simply forbidden to lecture upon the subjects which had given offence. The Great Schism, however, which began in the same year, exacerbated his opposition to the papacy. He went farther than before, and ventured to dispute the doctrine of transubstantiation. He returned from the clergy to the commonalty, and began to address them in English tracts; he denounced the papacy, the monastic, and now particularly the mendicant, orders. He planned and mainly executed, with the help of John Purvey and other friends, a translation of the Bible into English, the first complete version ever attempted, which was quickly spread abroad in innumerable copies; at least 165 manuscripts of it, in whole or in part, have come down to us, in spite of the strong measures taken by the Church for its suppression. He sent out his disciples, the "poor priests," to preach his doctrines throughout the country. But the hostility among the leading churchmen aroused by these movements was much more languid than might have been anticipated. A vigorous attack was made upon his principal adherents in Oxford, Nicholas Hereford, Repyngdon, Ashton, and Bedeman, in 1382, and they were induced to recant. But the heresiarch himself was hardly at all molested, though his doctrines were condemned by the chancellor of Oxford, and by a provincial council held at the Blackfriars in London, in May 1382: it is said also that he had to appear in person at another council at Oxford in November of that year; but no sentence was passed upon him. He retired unmolested to Lutterworth and died there from a paralysis on December 31, 1384.

Wyclif was a strenuous and conscientious, if in some respects injudicious, advocate of Church reform. So far he was in unison with perhaps a majority of the earnest clergy of his day. With the Franciscans he found a chief cause of the corruption of the Church in the excessive possession of temporal goods by the clergy. He parted company with them, as with all loyal Catholics, when he sought to reform the doctrinal system, and to destroy almost everything upon which the sacerdotal principle was based. But by this very course of teaching he attached the multitude to him, weary as it was of the perfunctory ministrations of a corrupt order. It is in his English works, his short, robust tracts and sermons—far more than in his Latin ones, which, although of a high interest, are but too plainly the products of a declining and artificial period of scholasticism—that Wyclif shows his real genius; and he may almost be said to have invented English prose as a vehicle of literary exposition. His influence was permanent, though not perhaps very extensive; but the fact which makes him a true herald of the Protestant Reformation was his assertion of the rights of the individual conscience before God and against any human intermediary whatsoever.

Biographies by J. Lewis (2nd edn., Oxford, 1820), Professor G. V. Lechler, 1873, and A. R. Pennington, 1884; also in Shirley's introduction to the "Fasciculi Zizaniorum" (Rolls Series); and in F. D. Matthew's introduction to his "English Works of Wyclif." The two last are of special value. Wyclif's English works have been published by T. Arnold (3 volumes) and Matthew (1 volume). His Latin works, of which hitherto little more than the "Trialogus" has seen the light (ed. Lechler), have been published by the Wyclif Society. Later biographies by W. L. Watkinson, 1924, and H. B. Workman, 1926; also J. Gairdner, "Lollardy . . .," 4 vols., 1908. [R. L. P.]

Wykeham, William of (1324–1404), was born at Wickham in Hampshire. He long served Edward III in the capacity of surveyor of works, and built for him many noble edifices, the new royal apartments at Windsor Castle among the number. He became warden of the forests south of the Trent, keeper of the privy seal, Bishop of Winchester, and at length chancellor in 1367. In 1371 he was driven from office by the anti-clerical party and for a time devoted himself to diocesan business and to his various building projects. In the later years of Edward III's reign he was the strenuous opponent of John of Gaunt, and played a leading part in the Good Parliament of 1376 (q.v.). In revenge Lancaster charged him with malversation and misgovernment, and he was deprived of his temporalities. On the accession of Richard II he was restored to favour, but took little further part in public affairs till 1389, when he was induced, much against his inclination, to accept again the office of chancellor. He held the great seal for two years and a half, during which period tranquillity and good government prevailed. In 1391 he retired from public life, and devoted his energies to the administration of his diocese and the founding and endowing of the noble establishments of New College, Oxford, and St. Mary, Winchester. Wykeham was a man of affairs rather than a scholar, but by his munificent foundations he did much to further the cause of learning. In character he was gentle and moderate, and his liberality was inspired by a genuine sympathy and goodness of heart. A contemporary said of him that his enemies, in seeking to impute blame to him, were "trying to find a knot in a rush."

Wyndham, Sir William (1687–1740), entered parliament for the county of Somerset (1710), and in 1713 became chancellor of the exchequer. He was a follower of Bolingbroke, and introduced in the House the Schism Act

which drove Oxford from office. In Bolingbroke's projected ministry he was to have been head of the commission of the privy seal. Wyndham's Jacobitism had at any rate the merit of sincerity. On the accession of George I he was dismissed from office. In opposition he vigorously opposed the proclamation for a new parliament, for which he was reprimanded by the Speaker, and defended the fallen ministry. In 1715, on the outbreak of the Jacobite insurrection in the north, he was promptly arrested, and committed to the Tower. Bolingbroke informs us that he and Lord Lansdowne were the only two men who could possibly have organized an insurrection in the west of England, and there is no doubt that he held the threads of the conspiracy. On his release he continued until his death a vigorous opponent of Walpole, his eloquence, which was very great, being especially directed against that statesman. He was the recognized leader of the Tory part of the composite opposition. His best speech was made in 1734 against the Septennial Act. In 1739 he announced that he and his friends were going to secede from the House, and solemnly took leave of it for ever. But the manœuvre was not a success, and the opposition returned to their places. It was generally believed at the time that Wyndham wished to play the part of a political martyr, and be sent to the Tower.

Wynendaal, Skirmish at (1708), was one of the episodes of the siege of Lille during the War of the Spanish Succession (q.v.). On September 27 a huge convoy departed from Ostend for the English army. Lamothe, the officer in command of the French cavalry, hastened to intercept it towards evening at Wynendaal, near which the road passes through a wood. He found the wood, however, occupied by General John Richmond Webb, with 6,000 men, supported towards the end of the action by Cadogan, with some squadrons of horse, who drove off the enemy at all points. The convoy arrived safely at the English camp.

Y

Yandaboo, Treaty of. [Burmese War; India.]

Yarmouth, Sophia de Walmoden, Countess of. [Walmoden.]

Yaxted, Francis (*d.* 1565), one of the household of Mary, Queen of Scots, was employed by her in various confidential missions, the details of which he invariably betrayed to Elizabeth's minister. In 1565 he was sent to Philip of Spain to obtain the aid of that monarch against the English queen, and was drowned on his way back in charge of a large sum of money, which he was conveying as a present from Spain to Mary. "Yaxted," says Froude, "was a conspirator of the kind most dangerous to his employers—vain, loud, and confident, fond of boasting of his acquaintance with kings and princes, and 'promising to bring to a good end whatsoever should be committed to him.'"

Yelverton, Sir Christopher (1535 ?–1612), who had on several occasions distinguished himself by his parliamentary speeches in favour of the restriction of the royal prerogative within due limits, was elected Speaker of the House of Commons in 1597. By his conduct while holding his office he managed to regain the favour of the queen, which he had forfeited by his previous speeches, and in 1602 was made a judge of the Queen's Bench.

"History of the Yelverton Family," 1861.

Yeomanry, The, in England, was the name given to a force of volunteer cavalry, first raised in 1761, and embodied in 1797, when numerous regiments were formed. By 1803 they numbered 44,000. In 1814, when the Volunteers were disbanded, many of the Yeomanry regiments were allowed to exist, under regulations providing that they should be called out for short periods of exercise every year. In 1900 the Imperial Yeomanry was raised for service in the Boer War. By the Territorial and Reserve Forces Act, 1907, the Imperial Yeomanry became the cavalry of the Territorial Army (q.v.).

—— in Ireland were embodied in September 1796, as the Militia could not be trusted in so dangerous a time. The government, being afraid of a religious war, had long refused the applications of the gentry to be allowed to raise men at their own expense, but could not refuse any longer. The Orangemen entered largely into these corps, of which Dublin alone raised four regiments of foot and four troops of horse. Thirty thousand men were soon under arms, nearly all of whom were Protestants. It was the Yeomanry who effected the disarmament of Ulster in 1797, and to them more than to any other force was the suppression of the rebellion of 1798 due. It cannot, however, be denied that their free use of the lash, the picket, and the pitchcap may have prevented the insurgents from laying down their arms, and have led to many of the cruelties committed by the peasantry.

Yonge, Sir William (*d.* 1755), was the eldest son and successor of Sir Walter Yonge, Bart., of Colyton, near Honiton, in Devonshire. He was elected member for Honiton at the beginning of George I's reign, and succeeded to his father's estates in 1731. In 1717 he was appointed a commissioner for examining the debts due to the army, and in 1724 a lord-commissioner to the treasury. In 1735 he was appointed secretary at war and a member of the privy council. He was a strong supporter of Walpole, who was accustomed to say of him, "that nothing but Yonge's character could keep

down such parts, and nothing but his parts could support his character." In 1746 he was a member of the committee for managing the impeachment of Lord Lovat.

York (Latin, *Eboracum;* Old English, *Eorforwic*) was the capital of Roman Britain, a fortress where the head-quarters of the Sixth Legion, and for a time of the Ninth, were situated, and the site of an important colony. Its two rivers, the Ouse and the Foss, strengthened its walls, and the former made it an important commercial centre. Constantius Chlorus died there, and Constantine the Great was there hailed Emperor by his troops (A.D. 306). It was also the seat of one of the bishoprics of the Romano-British Church. Under the Anglian kings it preserved its position as a capital; first of Deira, afterwards of the greater kingdom of Northumbria. In 627 Paulinus baptized King Edwin in the hastily-built chapel where the cathedral afterwards rose. The organization of the English Church, effected by Theodore, made York an archbishopric, though quite dependent on Canterbury, until Archbishop Ecgbert vindicated its claims to metropolitan independence. In the eighth century the learning of men such as Ecgbert and Alcuin made the great cathedral school of York famous throughout Christendom. In 867 it was taken by the Danes, and its recovery by Athelstan took place in 926. At the Conquest it contained about 10,000 people. It submitted to William, who built a castle there in 1068. It was taken in September 1069 by an English revolt aided by a Danish fleet, but retaken by William without opposition at the end of the year. The town obtained its first charter from Henry II and later rapidly added to its privileges. In the fourteenth century it was governed by a lord mayor and aldermen, and in 1396 it was given the status of a county. During the long wars with Scotland it was very frequently the meeting-place of parliaments. In 1298 Edward I; in 1314, 1318, 1319, and 1322 Edward II; in 1328, 1332, 1333, 1334, and 1335 Edward III held sessions at York, and again in 1464 a parliament was summoned thither by Edward IV. Its commerce continued to flourish, although diminished by the rise of Hull, and Edward III for a time freed the staple there. Henry VI extended its jurisdiction over the wapentake of the Ainsty. The Yorkist kings cultivated the favour of the citizens, and Richard III counted them his trustiest supporters. York suffered greatly at the Reformation from the destruction of the hospitals, chapels, and chantries which abounded there. It was captured by the rebels during the Pilgrimage of Grace (1536) (q.v.), and became the seat of the council of the North, which was erected there during those disturbances. At York also met the commission which opened the inquiry into the charges against Mary, Queen of Scots (1568). In the civil wars of the next century the city played a still more important part. There, in 1642, Charles I collected his partisans, and the surrender of York in July 1644 sealed the fate of the north of England. Its occupation by Fairfax in January 1660 enabled Monck to advance into England, and materially forwarded the Restoration. Like most other corporations York lost its charter in 1684, and had it restored in November 1688. In the same month Lord Danby seized the city, then governed by Sir John Reresby, and declared for a free parliament and the Protestant religion. At the time of the Revolution of 1688 York probably contained about 10,000 inhabitants. Though its trade was fast diminishing, and its political weight decreased as great manufacturing towns grew up in the north of England, it still retained its importance as a social centre. "What has been, and is, the chief support of the city at present," wrote Drake in his "History of York" (1737), "is the resort to and residence of several country gentlemen with their families in it." As the judicial and political centre of the largest of English counties, as the ecclesiastical centre of a much wider district, it continues to rank amongst the great cities of England.

"Victoria County History: Yorkshire"; J. Raine, "York," 1892.

York, Archbishops of. [Archbishops.]

York, House of. The regal house of York was the most short-lived of our dynasties. Beginning with the proclamation of Edward IV (March 4, 1461), it ended with the fall of Edward's youngest brother, Richard, on the field of Bosworth (August 22, 1485). It sprang from a marriage, made early in the fifteenth century, between Richard, Earl of Cambridge, and Anne Mortimer, his first cousin twice removed. Richard was the youngest son of the fifth son of Edward III (Edmund, Duke of York), and Anne was the great granddaughter of the third son (Lionel, Duke of Clarence). Thus the designation of the house came from a younger, its title to the crown from an elder, son of Edward III. Another Richard, born in 1410, was the issue of this marriage, and as early as 1424 a succession of events had made this Richard heir-general of Edward III. It came about in this way. The Black Prince's line expired with Richard II; King Edward's second son died in his infancy; Lionel's sole child, Philippa, and her husband, Edmund Mortimer, Earl of March, had a son, Roger, whose children, Edmund and Anne, were in Henry V's reign the only descendants of Lionel, Duke of Clarence. In 1424 Edmund died childless. Consequently, just when the most inefficient of the royal descendants of John of Gaunt, Edward's fourth son, was beginning to reign, the undoubted representative of the third was growing up into a manly vigour and a healthy robustness of character which promised a really competent ruler. Richard had also become the only representative of the family of York, for his father, having conspired with others against Henry V, had been beheaded in the summer of 1415, and a few months afterwards his uncle, Edmund, Duke

of York, had fallen at Agincourt, leaving no issue.

Notwithstanding his father's treason, the full favour of the court shone upon Richard's path from the first. He was carefully brought up as his father's, mother's, and uncle's heir, and was allowed to connect himself by marriage with the widespread and influential Neville family, whose head, Ralph, Earl of Westmorland, had indeed been his guardian for a time. He wedded Ralph's daughter, Cecily, and thus, when the big moment arrived, had linked to his aspirations and fortunes such powerful nobles as his brothers-in-law, Richard Neville, Earl of Salisbury, and William, Lord Fauconberg, and Richard's sons, Richard, Earl of Warwick, and John, Lord Montacute; while the advisers of Henry VI unwittingly added to his greatness. By giving him command in France and then making him regent there, and appointing him to the Irish lieutenancy, they threw opportunities in his way which he was able and willing to turn to account. He was, therefore, between 1450 and 1460 the foremost man in England. Yet his claim to the throne was not put forward till the meeting of parliament in October 1460. Its soundness is not indisputable. Succession to the crown did not then follow the same rule as succession to private property; the transmission of a right to the throne through an heiress, such as Philippa of Clarence, had never been established, and, even if it were admitted, its virtue was destroyed by the sixty years' prescription, the acts of parliament, and the oft-repeated oaths of allegiance, that made for Henry's right. The lords of parliament shrank from giving judgment, and Richard agreed not to press his claim on being declared Henry's heir. Slain in the following December with his second son, Edmund, after the fight of Wakefield, he left his rights to his eldest son, Edward, Earl of March, who soon asserted them with a strong hand. Edward simply seized the crown on March 4, 1461. The victory of Towton, and the voice of a parliament that met in November, ratified the act, and Edward IV was recognized as full king from the date of his proclamation. Mismanagement, and the alienation of Warwick, expelled him from the kingdom in 1470, but in 1471 he recovered his royalty, holding it in security till his death in April 1483. By that time his second brother, George, Duke of Clarence, was dead, dispatched, on a condemnation for treason, in some unknown fashion; but Edward left two sons, Edward, called the Fifth, and Richard, and five daughters. His youngest brother, however, Richard, Duke of Gloucester, cunningly supplanted and then murdered the two sons, reigning as Richard III for two years. Richard's crimes estranged from him several staunch Yorkists, who then promoted a marriage between Edward IV's eldest daughter, Elizabeth, and Henry Tudor. Before the combination that ensued Richard perished on Bosworth Field on August 22, 1485. Henry married Elizabeth, and thus the rival houses coalesced. Another daughter of Edward IV's married the Earl of Devon, and was the mother of the Marquis of Exeter, so fortunate and unfortunate in Henry VIII's reign. Clarence, who was married to the Earl of Warwick's elder daughter, Isabella, left two children, Edward, Earl of Warwick, who was kept in prison by Henry VII till complicity with a design of Perkin Warbeck's led to his execution, and Margaret, created Countess of Salisbury, and executed by Henry VIII. The chief historical distinction of the house of York is that it was the first to set the fashion of constitutional despotism in England.

Sir C. W. C. Oman, "Political History of England," vol. iv; K. H. Vickers, "England in the Later Middle Ages"; Sir J. Ramsay, "Lancaster and York," 2 vols., 1892; Cora L. Scofield, "Edward IV"; J. Gairdner, "Richard III," 1898. [J. R.]

YORKIST KINGS

Edward IV	1460–1483
Edward V	1483
Richard III	1483–1485

York, EDMUND OF LANGLEY, DUKE OF (1341–1402), was the fifth son of Edward III. In 1362 he was made Earl of Cambridge, and on the accession of Richard II was appointed one of the council of regency. He did not take any prominent part in the conflicts of his nephew's reign, but in 1385 was made Duke of York, and in 1394 and 1399, during the king's absence in Ireland, was appointed regent. On Bolingbroke's landing, York raised a force to oppose him, but finding him more powerful than he had expected, he was induced to make terms with him, and to profess the belief that Henry had no traitorous designs against the king. After Richard's deposition and Henry's coronation he retired to his domain, where he spent the last years of his life. He figures as a weak man, of moderate views, and always ready by mediation to prevent civil strife. His desertion of Richard, whose representative he was in England, can scarcely be palliated, particularly as, if he had made a firm stand on hearing of Bolingbroke's landing, the barons would probably have submitted. Edmund was twice married, first to Isabella, daughter of Pedro the Cruel of Castile, and secondly to Joan, daughter of Thomas Holand, Earl of Kent.

Graham Brooks, "The Dukes of York, 1385–1927," 1927.

York, EDWARD "PLANTAGENET," DUKE OF (*d.* 1415), was the son of Edmund of Langley. In the lifetime of his father he was created Earl of Rutland, and subsequently Duke of Albemarle by Richard II. He took a leading part in the attack on the lords appellant in 1397 and accompanied the king on his expedition to Ireland in the year 1399, but, on learning of Bolingbroke's success, is said to have deserted Richard. Henry deprived him of his dukedom, but despite the fact that Lord Fitzwalter and many other barons accused him of abetting Richard in his tyrannical acts, he received no other punishment. It is said that in 1399 he

conspired with the Earl of Huntingdon and others against Henry, but afterwards turned traitor, and revealed the plot to the king. There is, however, no trustworthy evidence of his complicity. He accompanied Henry V to France in 1415, and was one of the commanders in the battle of Agincourt, where he was slain. He married Philippa, daughter of Lord Mohun, but left no issue.

Graham Brooks, "The Dukes of York, 1385–1927," 1927.

York, Richard, Duke of (1411–60), was the son of Richard, Earl of Cambridge, by Anne, daughter of Roger, Earl of March, and was therefore paternal grandson of Edmund, fifth son of Edward III, and maternal great-great-grandson of Lionel, Edward's third son. In 1425 he was relieved from the effects of his father's attainder, and succeeded to the estates and titles of his uncles, Edward, Duke of York, and Edmund, Earl of March. In 1430 he was made constable of England, and in 1436 he was appointed regent of France on the death of John, Duke of Bedford. In the next year he was recalled, but in 1440 was reappointed, holding office till 1445. In 1447 he was made lieutenant of Ireland, the court party being anxious to rid itself of the presence of one whose descent made him a menace to the Crown. York did not cross to assume his new functions until 1449, but during the year for which he held office he governed Ireland with wisdom and moderation. In the meantime party strife in England culminated in the murder of Suffolk in May 1450, and in the same month Jack Cade's rebellion broke out. How far York was interested in the rising is uncertain, but in August he crossed to England and assumed the overt leadership of the party of opposition to Somerset and the court. He was as popular as Somerset was odious, and had powerful allies in the Nevilles, with whom he was closely connected by his marriage with Cecily, daughter of the Earl of Westmorland. In 1451 a proposal was made in parliament that York should be declared heir to the crown, but this was not seriously entertained, and the proposer was imprisoned. Next year, however, York declaring that his sole object was to rid the king of Somerset and other evil counsellors, raised a force, and marched to London. Henry met him at Blackheath, and consented to the dismissal of Somerset, York in return swearing fealty to the king, and promising for the future to sue for remedy in legal form; but the king made no attempt to redeem his pledge. Meantime the birth of an heir to Henry in 1453 deprived York of all hope of succeeding peacefully to the throne, while the imbecility of the king gave him the office of protector, which he held till Henry's recovery in 1454, Somerset being thrown into prison. On the king's restoration to health York was dismissed and Somerset reinstated. The first battle of St. Albans followed (1455), in which the latter was slain, and the king shortly afterwards becoming once more imbecile, York was again appointed protector (October 1455). When in February 1456 Henry recovered, and York was relieved of his office, two years of comparative peace followed, and in March 1458 a great ceremony of reconciliation took place at St. Paul's. But the misgovernment and misfortunes of the country, and the alienation of the Nevilles as a result of the attempted murder of Warwick, gave York another opportunity in 1459. The Yorkists were marching south when Lord Audley tried to stop them at Blore Heath, but was defeated, and battle was imminent at Ludlow when the defection of Trollop alarmed the Yorkists, and they fled. The duke went to Ireland, and in the parliament held at Coventry at the end of the year was attainted. In 1460 the Yorkist lords planned a return to England, and York issued a manifesto against the royal ministers. The battle of Northampton, in which Warwick was victorious, placed the king at their mercy. York himself landed in England in September, and the parliament which met in the next month repealed the duke's attainder. York now for the first time personally asserted his claim to the throne, and after a long discussion a compromise was effected (October 25), by which Henry was to retain the crown during his lifetime, after which it was to revert to York and his heirs. Meanwhile the duke and his sons were not to molest the king; but any attempt on the duke's life was made high treason, and the principality of Wales was handed over to him. However, Queen Margaret, who refused to recognize this arrangement, had meanwhile been collecting an army in the north, and against her the Duke of York marched with a small force. The battle of Wakefield ensued on the last day of the year, and during the struggle York was slain. His head was placed on the walls of York, garnished with a paper crown, but was taken down after the battle of Towton. By his marriage with Cecily Neville the duke had eight sons and four daughters, of whom four sons and one daughter died in childhood. Of the others, Edward and Richard became kings, Edmund was killed at Wakefield, and George was created Duke of Clarence. His daughters were Anne, who married the Duke of Exeter, Elizabeth, who married John, Duke of Suffolk, and Margaret, who married Charles the Bold, Duke of Burgundy.

On Richard's character it is not easy to pronounce. During his career in France and Ireland he won a high reputation as a general and an administrator. That which distinguishes him chiefly in the strife of parties which culminated in his death is his moderation. Not until 1460 did he urge his claim to the throne, and his ultimate abandonment of the rôle of constitutional reformer must be ascribed largely to the provocative and vindictive policy of his inveterate enemy, Margaret of Anjou. During his tenure of power in 1454–5 he displayed caution and restraint, and his treat-

ment of his opponents is throughout in striking contrast to that which became customary in the later stages of the Wars of the Roses.

Graham Brooks, "The Dukes of York, 1385–1927," 1927.

York and Albany, Frederick Augustus, Duke of (1763–1827), was the second son of George III, and, as early as his elder brother, broke away from the rigid discipline by which their parents fondly hoped to preserve them from the evils of the world. At the age of twenty-one he was created Duke of York and Albany, and Earl of Ulster. But already in his first year he had been elevated by his father to the half-secularized bishopric of Osnabrück. In 1791 he married Princess Frederica Charlotte, eldest daughter of Frederick William II, King of Prussia, when his income was increased to £70,000 a year by a vote of £18,000. In 1793 he was placed in command of an expedition to the Netherlands, to act with the Prince of Saxe-Coburg against France. Though giving some proofs of personal gallantry, he soon made it clear that his royal birth was his only qualification for command. Fortunately for England the duke became disgusted at his want of success, and retreated, leaving Abercromby in command. As a reward for the military ability displayed in this campaign he was in 1798 appointed commander-in-chief of the forces, and in 1799 was again entrusted with the command of an expedition to the Low Countries, in which, however, the only successes gained were due to Abercromby. The campaign finally ended in a disgraceful convention with the French. The duke was compelled to resign his office because of the shameful disclosures as to the way in which he allowed his mistress, Mrs. Clarke, to influence the military appointments, but was later restored to his old office under his brother's regency. His last act in public life was a most violent speech in the House of Lords against Catholic emancipation in 1825. In January 1827 he died.

"Annual Register" for 1827; Graham Brooks, "The Dukes of York, 1385–1927," 1927.

Yorke, Charles (1722–70), was the second son of Philip, 1st Earl Hardwicke. Called to the bar in 1746, he soon obtained a large practice, and in 1745 made his reputation as a jurist by the publication of "Some Considerations on the Laws of Forfeiture for High Treason." In 1747 he was returned to parliament for Reigate, and in November 1756 he was appointed solicitor-general. In the following July he was doomed to a bitter disappointment when Pitt insisted on making Charles Pratt (q.v.) attorney-general over his head. For this slight he never quite forgave Pitt, and on the accession of George III attached himself to Bute. On Pratt's appointment to the chief justiceship of the Common Pleas in January 1762 he became attorney-general. Bute's administration, however, was short-lived, and early in 1763 he made way for Sir Fletcher Norton. Out of office Yorke's reputation in the House rose. He strongly condemned the action of the government in issuing general warrants (q.v.). In 1765 he again became attorney-general during the Rockingham administration, but resigned his office on their falling in the following year, and continued in opposition until the last few days of his life; but his activity was confined for the most part to the courts, and was not employed in any vigorous opposition to the government. Towards the beginning of 1770, on the resignation of Lord Camden, he was offered the chancellorship—a post which he accepted after having declined it twice. A week later he died, suspected of having committed suicide.

Sir G. O. Trevelyan, "Early Life of C. J. Fox," 1880.

Yorke, Philip, 1st Earl of Hardwicke (1690–1764), the son of an attorney at Dover, was called to the bar in 1715. His political rise was due to Newcastle, Macclesfield, and Stanhope. He first sat for Lewes in 1718, and was made solicitor-general in 1720. From that date he became, in succession, attorney-general (1723), lord chief justice and Lord Hardwicke (1733), and lord chancellor (1737). He supported Walpole through his long administration; but towards the close of it he was constrained to disagree with his chief's peace policy, and became an advocate for war. On the fall of Walpole he continued to hold office under Wilmington, and subsequently under the Pelhams. In 1753 Lord Hardwicke introduced a new Marriage Act [Marriage Laws], and, during the debates on it had a violent quarrel with Henry Fox, who disapproved of it. In 1754 he was raised to an earldom. He went out of office with the Duke of Newcastle, of whose administration he had been the chief supporter. In 1758 he persuaded the Lords to throw out a bill for the extension of Habeas Corpus, and introduced a measure for abolishing hereditary jurisdiction in Scotland. His last great speech was directed against the Treaty of Paris (q.v.—1763), by which the Seven Years' War was closed. Next year he died, leaving behind him the reputation of being one of the greatest chancellors that have sat on the woolsack since the Revolution.

Biography by P. C. Yorke, 1913.

Yorke, Sir Roland (*d.* 1588), was a "soldier of fortune," and the bitter enemy of Leicester. He is said to have been instrumental in bringing about the treachery of Sir William Stanley in delivering up Deventer to the Spaniards (1587). At the same time Yorke himself gave up the forts at Zutphen, of which he was in command, and went over to Philip II of Spain.

Yorktown, The Surrender of (October 19, 1781), is memorable as the last important event of the American War of Independence. On August 2 Cornwallis had, in obedience to orders from Clinton, withdrawn into Yorktown, a place whose safety required a naval superiority

in its defenders, and at this time that superiority had passed to the French, who had a large fleet under de Grasse in those waters. Cornwallis was aware of the danger of his position, especially when, on September 28, the combined French and American armies appeared in sight. On October 1 the investment was completed, and works were begun with a view to the bombardment of the British position. The bombardment opened on October 14. After an ineffectual attempt to carry the infantry across the straits into Gloucester, a small town on the opposite headland, Cornwallis sent a flag of truce proposing to capitulate on condition that the garrisons of Gloucester and Yorktown should be sent home on their word of honour not again to serve against America or her allies. Washington would not accept these terms, and finally Cornwallis surrendered his public stores and artillery in the two forts, as well as all the shipping in the harbour; the men to remain prisoners of war in America, the ships to become the property of France. With the surrender at Yorktown the war was virtually at an end. Clinton sailed from New York for the Chesapeake on the very day of the capitulation.

"Cornwallis Correspondence," ed. C. Ross, 1859.

Young, Arthur (1741–1820), was a writer of a number of works on agriculture and rural economy, to collect information on which subjects he made numerous journeys through the British Isles and on the continent. In 1784 he began a periodical work called the *Annals of Agriculture*. In 1789 he was appointed secretary to the board of agriculture. Young's works, especially his "Political Arithmetic" (1774) and his "Travels" (1792), are of very great value for the light they throw on the state of society, trade, and agriculture in England, Ireland, and France. Young's account of France, which he visited on the eve of the Revolution, is of singular interest.

Young's "Autobiography"; Sir L. Stephen, "Studies of a Biographer," 1898.

Young, Robert (1657–1700), one of the most disreputable informers of the seventeenth century, was ordained a deacon in the Irish Church in 1680, but was expelled from his first parish for immorality, and from his third for bigamy. In 1684 he was convicted of having forged Sancroft's signature, and was sentenced to the pillory and imprisonment. When Monmouth's insurrection broke out in 1685 he gave witness of a pretended conspiracy in Suffolk against the king, but his evidence was proved to be false. After the Revolution he determined to become an accuser of the Jacobites, and concocted a story of a plot against William and Mary. In 1692 he forged a paper purporting to be an association for the restoration of the banished king, to which he appended the names of Marlborough, Cornbury, Salisbury, Sancroft, and Thomas Sprat, Bishop of Rochester. A subordinate agent named Stephen Blackhead dropped the paper in one of Sprat's flower-pots. Young thereupon laid information before the privy council. Marlborough was committed to the Tower and Sprat was taken into custody, but the document could not be found. Blackhead thereupon rescued it from its hiding-place, and gave it to Young, who had it conveyed to the secretary of state. But when confronted by Sprat, Blackhead lost his presence of mind and confessed all. Young, however, with unblushing effrontery persisted in his denial. He was imprisoned and pilloried. He was finally hanged for coining.

Young England Party, The, was the name given to a group of Tory politicians during the Corn-Law struggles of 1842–6, mostly young members of aristocratic families. They formed a separate party in October 1842, and came prominently before the public in the autumn of 1844. Intimately related to the Oxford Movement through Faber and Newman, it took its theories from Bolingbroke's "Idea of a Patriot King" and Kenelm Digby's "Broadstone of Honour." Young England believed that what was supposed to be the ancient relation between rich and poor should be restored. The landowners and wealthy classes were to be the benevolent protectors and leaders, while the poor were to be obedient and trustful dependents. Every effort was to be made to improve the material condition of the labouring classes, while at the same time a firm resistance was to be offered to the levelling spirit of the age, to free trade, and to the principles of the Liberals generally. The fundamentals of this creed were a veneration for the past, a firm belief in the Church, a lofty imperialism, and sympathy for the working classes. The movement was "the one notable experiment in popular Toryism of which the nineteenth century was witness." Combined with a good deal of coxcombry and conceit, there was an element of usefulness in the Young Englanders. "What the Tractarian priesthood were at this time requiring of their flocks," says Miss Martineau, "the Young England politicians were striving for with the working classes; and the spectacle was seen of Sunday sports encouraged, as in the old Catholic times; and popular festivals revived at which young lords and members of parliament pulled off their coats to play cricket with the labourers, or moved about among the crowd in the park or on the green, in the style of the feudal superior of old." In parliament the Young England politicians, affecting to believe in the "Old Tory principles" of the preceding century, distinguished themselves by their noisy opposition to the Whigs. They opposed the repeal of the Corn Laws, violently attacked Peel for his change of policy, and declined to join the Peelites. Among their most prominent members were Lord John Manners, the Hon. George Smythe, member for Canterbury, and Baillie-Cochrane. Disraeli lent them his support, and was looked upon in some sort as their leader, but he was never fully trusted by them.

The year 1844 was their zenith, marked by the appearance of Disraeli's "Coningsby" and by the formation throughout the country of Athenic Institutions. But in 1845 the party split on the Irish question, Disraeli opposing, and Manners and Smythe supporting, Peel's proposal to increase the endowment of Maynooth College. Disraeli's genius was not to be cramped by his "leadership of a clique"; the founders of Young England were not all men of the same age and ideas.

C. Whibley, "Lord John Manners and his Friends," 2 vols., 1925.

Young Ireland Party. The group of men known under this name, among whom Gavan Duffy, Meagher, and Mitchell are the best known, were at first followers of Daniel O'Connell (q.v.), and did much for the Irish cause by writing papers, historical romances, and national songs, and by publishing old ones. In 1843 they separated from O'Connell after his failure to repel force by force at Clontarf, and began to be known as the Physical Force Party. In 1848 Smith O'Brien (q.v.) became their leader, and as a consequence of his futile attempt at rebellion many of them were sentenced to transportation, or at least had to leave Ireland. Some of them, like Gavan Duffy, attained high distinction in the colonies.

Sir C. G. Duffy, "The Young Ireland Movement," 1880 and 1896.

Ypres, The Battles of (1914–17), were fought in Belgium during the Great War. The *first* battle (October–November 1914), which involved the loss of over 54,000 British troops, consisted in three German attacks on the combined British 1st Corps and French 9th Corps, from the La Bassée canal to the Yser, on October 30 and November 11 and 17. The British front was subsequently extended to include the Ypres salient in April 1915.

The *second* battle (April 1915) is remarkable for the chlorine gas attack employed by the German armies in their offensive of April 22–3, which reached the Yser canal and opened up a way to Ypres between the Canadian and Belgian lines. The restoration of a continuous allied line was undertaken by the British at daybreak on the 23rd, and by nightfall was nearly accomplished. The flank was protected once more, and the Channel ports were saved, but the allied position remained serious in the salient.

The *third* battle (June–November 1917) consisted in a battle round Messines followed by a series of sharp attacks. The British objective was to secure the Armentières–Dixmude ridge, and, as a preliminary, to capture the high ground near Messines and Wytschaete. At the outset the allied line ran north and south from a point a few miles west of Bixchoote to Hooge (3 miles east of Ypres), and thence to a point a few miles east of Armentières, with Messines and Wytschaete in German hands. The attack opened on June 20 with the blowing up of the German front line, and Messines and Wytschaete speedily fell. Then after a lull the second attack was launched on July 31 from Hooge northwards, resulting in the capture of Bixchoote and other points. Bad weather now held up the advance until September 20, when the British secured Polygon Wood (about 6 miles east of Ypres). This attack was followed up by Haig on October 4, and again on October 25 after a spell of bad weather, culminating in the capture of Passchendaele on November 4. This closed the campaign. The Ypres salient had been extended and strengthened, although the German hold on the coast had not been threatened.

B. Willson, "Ypres," 1920.

Yukon. [Canada, Dominion of.]

Z

Zaman Shah (*d.* 1802), the ruler of Afghanistan, threatened to invade India during the years 1795–8, and even entered into negotiations with Tippoo Sultan (q.v.). Lord Wellesley, however, concluded an alliance with Persia against him, and internal factions prevented his intended invasion. He was slain during the civil war in 1802.

Zanzibar. [East Africa, British Dominions in.]

Zeebrugge, The Attack on (April 22–3, 1918), was made by British forces on the German submarine bases, the aim being to assault the great mole in Zeebrugge harbour, thus drawing fire, while three blocking-ships were to be sunk in the entrance of the canal. A similar manœuvre was to be executed at Ostend. The action at Zeebrugge was performed by the cruiser *Vindictive* and two Liverpool ferry-boats, supported by motor-boats, launches, and destroyers. The *Vindictive* stormed the mole at midnight on April 22, facilitated the entry of the blocking-ships, and retired in perfect order before 1 a.m. The blocking-ships were scuttled according to programme, and the Flanders submarines checked. The operations at Ostend, however, failed, as the blocking-ships ran aground. Another attempt was made by the *Vindictive* on May 9 with more success.

Zemindars, The, are Indian revenue officers, to whom the right of collecting so much revenue was originally farmed out by the Mogul dynasty. These officers tended to become hereditary, and thus to assume the position of an aristocracy collecting tribute from the land, a quota of which was paid into the coffers of the state. In Cornwallis's settlement of Bengal these tax-gatherers were elevated into landed aristocracy, on the model of the English. The term "zemindar" has consequently become identical in meaning with the expression "landed proprietor."

Zululand. In January 1879 a war broke out between the British and the Zulu king, Cetewayo, owing to the refusal of the latter to make reparation for the raids by his subjects upon Natal. A British force under Lord Chelmsford crossed the frontier, but was surprised and attacked at Isandhlwana (January 22, 1879), and defeated with the slaughter of several hundred British troops. The war was continued, and on July 4th, 1880, Cetewayo was completely defeated at Ulundi, taken prisoner by the British, and sent to Cape Town. Zululand was divided into a number of small principalities under the native chiefs, and a "Reserve" territory on the borders of Natal, with a British resident to watch over the country, was instituted. In 1883 Cetewayo was allowed to visit England, and subsequently was replaced (January 26, 1883) in possession of a large part of his dominions. The result, after some months of continual fighting between Cetewayo and the most powerful of his rivals, Usibepu, was that Cetewayo was driven from his throne (July 1883), and soon afterwards died (February 8, 1884). The country remained in a state of considerable disorder, owing to civil war among the chiefs, aided by adventurers from the Transvaal; and in 1888 a rebellion of Dinizulu was crushed, and the country annexed (1897). In 1905–6 the Zulus grew restless under the imposition of a poll-tax, and fighting occurred between the natives and colonial troops. A large colonial force was raised and the rebellion suppressed after some heavy fighting. The northern districts were annexed to Natal in 1903. [South Africa, Union of.]

Zutphen, The Battle of (September 22, 1586), was fought in Guelderland between the Spaniards under the Prince of Parma and the English forces, who were assisting the Dutch, under the Earls of Leicester and Essex and Lord Willoughby. The English were besieging Zutphen, and attempted to cut off a force which was bringing provisions to the beleaguered garrison, but were completely foiled. The battle is famous as the one in which Sir Philip Sidney (q.v.) received his death-wound.

Zuylestein, William Henry (1645–1709), was greatly trusted by William of Orange, afterwards William III, and was employed by him in the intrigues with the English opposition in 1687. He was sent to congratulate King James II on the birth of the Prince of Wales. When William invaded England Zuylestein was sent to James declining a proposed conference with the Prince of Orange. On the accession of William he was made master of the robes. In 1691 he accompanied William to Holland. In 1695 he was created Earl of Rochford, and received large grants of property in Ireland, which were attacked by the Commons in the Resumption Bill (q.v.).

INDEX

This index refers to subjects on which separate articles are not given, but to which some allusion will be found under the titles here printed in italics. In cases where the reader is in doubt as to the heading under which an article he is in search of may be placed, he will find it useful to refer to this index. For instance, there is no article on "Royal Exchange"; but a glance at the index will show that the subject is treated under the title "Gresham." Alternative names are also given here. Thus, "Aboukir Bay, Battle of," has the reference, "Nile, Battle of the," and "Adelm" refers to "Aldhelm." The numbers in this index stand for the pages in the body of the work on which the matter referred to is to be found, and the letters *a* and *b* signify the first and second columns of the pages. Thus, the entry "Abeyance, *Peerage*, 835, *a*," indicates that reference is made to Abeyance in the article PEERAGE, on the first column of page 835.]

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